THE TRANSFORMATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN NAMIBIA THE DEVELOPMENT OF REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

by

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF OXFORD BROOKES UNIVERSITY FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

JULY 1998

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Jessy and Charlie, who always believed that their daughters could achieve anything, and to my husband Hennie and daughter Brigitte for giving me the space to follow my dream.

ABSTRACT

After obtaining independence from South Africa in 1990, the Namibian government saw education as central to nation building and the development of society. Transformation of the education system thus had to influence and contribute to societal reform aimed at equalising the society.

The goals, demands and expectations of basic education after independence precluded a mere reorganisation of pre-independence teacher education programmes. An entirely new programme had to be developed to take the lead in the transformation and to meet the demands of the post-independence education system. The Namibian teachers were seen to be both the agents and implementers of change. The design of the programme rested on the premise that deliberate policy interventions had to be made to enable teachers to take on these roles.

A basic assumption underlying the study is that educational practice cannot be undertaken without practitioners thinking about what they are doing. The study thus attempted to sustain the assumption of the theory-practice relationship in exploring and interpreting the research questions: What education and training do student teachers receive through the BETD programme? In what context is this education and training obtained? How do student teachers conceptualise

learning and teaching as a result of the reform? What model of reflective practice is relevant for the Namibian system? To what extent has the teacher education policy been understood and implemented?

To obtain answers to these questions data was collected through questionnaires, interviews, participant observation and document analysis.

The study puts forward a model for policy formation which could contribute to the successful implementation of policy. It also extrapolates pre-conditions for the development of reflective practice in any setting.

The major findings of the study indicate a shift in attitudes to a more critical, transformative and learner-centred system at least in the way stakeholders talk and think about learning and teaching.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude and indebtedness to Prof. John Welton and Prof. Rosemary Davis for their constructive advice, unfailing support and systematic guidance. Their personal interest and extensive knowledge and experience of educational issues provided me with both motivation and inspiration. I am also grateful for the support provided by Oxford-Brookes University in general.

My heartfelt thanks go to my family, friends and colleagues at NIED who were the 'invisible loving human forces' encouraging and supporting me throughout the study. I especially wish to thank Jan Alberts and Alfred Ilukena who were always prepared to take on extra duties to enable me to take study leave. Special thanks also go to Nora van Rooi and Immanuel Gomeb for their support in the transcription of data and the lay out of the thesis and to Rita Maritz and Elbe Boshoff for assistance with interlibrary loans.

I wish to thank all the participants in the study and college management for facilitating the collection of data. My thanks also go to my fellow students, Dutte Shinyemba and Roger Avenstrup, for their insightful comments during the initial period of my research.

Finally I wish to acknowledge my appreciation and gratitude to the Permanent Secretaries of Education, Mr Vitalis Ankama and Ms Loini Katoma, for their support and facilitation of the study. I am also grateful to the Florida State University for their financial support for my studies over the past four years and for the additional support provided by the Namibia Association of Norway.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

SWAPO	South West Africa People's Organisation
BETD	Basic Education Teacher Diploma
WASCOM	Wages and Salaries Commission
UN	United Nations
SWA	South West Africa
PLAN	People's Liberation Army of Namibia
DTA	Democratic Turnhalle Alliance
SADF	South African Defence Force
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
DNE	Department of National Education
ITTP	Integrated Teacher Training Programme
UNIN	United Nations Institute for Namibia
Sida/SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
ECP	Education Certificate Primary
NEC	National Education Certificate
HPEC	Higher Primary Education Certificate
Ed Prim	Education Primary
MECYS	Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport
EMIS	Educational Management Information System
MEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
NIED	National Institute for Educational Development
CCG	Curriculum Coordinating Group
TRC(s)	Teacher's Resource Centre(s)
PIU	Project Implementation Unit
TERP	Teacher Education Reform Programme
CEO	Chief Education Officer
EDU(s)	Educational development Unit(s)
ETP	Educational Theory and Practice
MHEVTST	Ministry of Higher Education, Vocational Training, Science and Technology
MBEC	Ministry of Basic Education and Culture
SAD	Statistical Analysis Systems
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
ELTDP	English Language Teacher Development Programme
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
ADAE	Association of Donors to African Education

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Indigenous African Education

Education, according to Handal and Lauvas (1987:21), is not a natural phenomenon "but an artificial, cultural creation which takes on different shapes, aims and ideals from culture to culture and from time to time". In this study, the focus of the investigation is the transformation of the education system in Namibia within the context of education as a cultural creation, differing from education in other cultures while showing certain similarities and differing in terms of its appropriateness in relation to the traditional southern African way of preparing children for life and work. The traditional African concept of learning is that it is permanent and gradual, and each new stage corresponds to an increase in knowledge, new rites and duties, a reinforcement of being, and sometimes a real illumination (Tedla, 1996). The study will, where applicable and appropriate, indicate where the traditional Namibian context differs in terms of interpretation and perception from the 'Westernised' cultural context, perceptions and interpretation of education. In particular, within this context, the transformation, policy formulation and policy implementation for teacher education will be researched, described, discussed and analysed since Independence in 1990 to the present.

Modern education systems in Africa, inherited from the colonisers, negated and neglected to a large extent the goals, content, methods and structures of indigenous African education. This led "to the alienation of Africans from their cultural roots and local realities" (Diallo, 1994: 49). The basic principle of indigenous education in Africa is that education is not only the right of all, but also the duty of all. All adult members of a community feel collectively responsible for educating the younger members of the society. This resulted in education being a comprehensive enterprise: socially children learned how to behave towards parents, siblings, other relatives,

neighbours, adults and peers; relevant knowledge was gained by observing and imitating (learning by doing and apprenticeship), obeying or disobeying the practical and moral teachings of the senior members of the community and learning through oral literature and rites. Children learned by participatory and apprenticeship methods, by engaging in productive work and by the doctrine of multiple learning. Indigenous education thus "gave practical, social, spiritual, physical education, experience, knowledge and responsibility, while imparting a range of skills, attitudes and values" (Joof, 1994:84).

Whitehead(1962:1) identified four fundamental aims of education which are applicable to educational enterprise in any context:

1) education must have only one subject-matter, Life;
2) education must like life, be integrated, holistic and dynamic;
3) must equip learners with practical, purposeful, and useful knowledge, and
4) must be firmly rooted in culture and reverent conviction and duty.

On the basis of these four aims, Keynan (1994:146) argues that:

> *Education must therefore reflect the great diversity underlying human existence and experiences. Its approach to life must be defined and informed by the real life situations and aspirations peculiar to the society concerned.*

Although there were differences (because of the differing contexts and cultures) between indigenous educational systems, African systems shared many fundamental similarities, some of which are encompassed by Whitehead's aims.

Teaching and learning in indigenous systems were not clearly defined and executed, but integrated and interwoven into the daily activities of the community. Most of it was

implied in what was being done or said. However, education reflected the diversity underlying human existence and experiences in the community and its approach to life was defined and informed by the real life situations and aspirations peculiar to the society concerned. According to Tedla (1996:112) in indigenous African Education "Learning is conceived boundless - fused with all aspects of life". As a result of this integrative thinking, Africans do not speak of education as a separate process or institution from everything else in life. In indigenous African education, according to Tedla, no distinction is drawn between formal, non-formal or informal education. Tedla further holds the view:

> *In fact, the Western concept of Education does not speak to the traditional African notion of learning which prioritizes community orientedness and the development of virtue and character. Neither does it speak to the traditional African reality in which the entire community is continually engaged in learning and teaching.*
> *(Tedla, 1996:112-3)*

With the attainment of independence in Namibia, the new government, in its quest for improving the quality of education through more relevant curricula and through increased involvement by local communities (Swarts, 1996), pursued some of the principles of indigenous African education. These include taking into consideration the diversity of knowledge and activities which are available in local communities, consistent with what is described in Tedla (1996) as returning to the source of knowledge in African communities.

In this regard, Avenstrup (1997:4) expressed the view that

> *Finding an economic curriculum design which can carry intensified content, codify the relationship of school knowledge to society and real life, provide flexibility in life-long learning, combine national frameworks with local variations, and communitarianism with universalisation, seem to be the challenges facing curriculum developers in the sub-region.*

Themes of the study

The 1990s are a decade of momentous changes in the international arena in terms of political and socio-economic developments, with a very definite impact on the social sectors of societies. These changes and shifts in societies manifested themselves in calls for the 'reform' or 'transformation' of education systems to enable nations to counteract the effects of 'an expanding global marketplace' on their own economies. In this regard Hargreaves (1994: 22-23) states:

> *The social transformations we are witnessing on the cusp of the millenium extend far beyond the corporate world alone. Extensive changes in economic and organizational life are being accompanied by and also interrelated with equally profound changes in the organization and impact of knowledge and information, in the global spread of ecological danger along with a growing public awareness of that danger, in the geopolitical reconstruction of the global map, in the restitution and reconstitution of national and cultural identities, and even in the redefinition and restructuring of human selves.*

Furthermore, the failure of western education (in situations where it ignored and disregarded indigenous African cultures, traditions and conditions) became evident in the 1990s and caused conventional approaches to education in Africa to be reassessed. It is within these global and regional forces and within the African indigenous educational milieu, which contains the notions of *humanity, human progress, democracy and reflection,* that the study of the transformation of education in general and teacher education in particular in Namibia has been carried out.

The approach adopted in this study is related to three main themes:

1) The transformation of the entire education system necessitated by the oppressive, discriminatory and undemocratic nature of the South African colonial rule.

2) The policies and approaches which arose from the Namibian liberation and which strive to embrace the Namibian

ways of life, aspirations, expectations andworldview without losing sight of universal trends and developments.

3) The development of reflective practice among teachers to facilitate and support the transformation of the education system and to enable the implementation of the new policies and approaches.

Context of the study

When Namibia gained its independence from South Africa on 21 March 1990, it entered into a social transformation process. Whereas before independence, the society was segregated along racial lines to ensure privilege of a minority which strengthened and maintained their authority and power, the transformation process aimed to equalise the society by redressing the inequities and disparities of the colonial period. With independence the liberation movement, the South West African Peoples' Organisation (SWAPO), assumed power which enabled it to effectively challenge the ideologies and power bases supporting the colonial social system and to replace these ideologies and power bases with their own visions and goals for the emergent Namibian nation. In such a situation struggles arise as social transformations entail the redistribution of power (Burns and Buckley, 1976).

As education was seen to be in a position to play a pivotal role in nation building and in healing the wounds of apartheid, the entire education system had to be transformed and reformed in line with the visions, major goals and policies of the new government. According to Cohen (1994:3) the "iniquities of the colonial education system and its concomitant effects on the country's supply of human resources meant that, once a representative majority government finally came to power in Namibia, many changes would have to be introduced to redress past imbalances." The pressures for reform and change were so tremendous that the transformation of the social sectors was endowed with the necessary legitimacy and power demanded to bring about the

transformation. The transformation of the educational system did not take place without resistance from the privileged minority, and the ideological struggles are still continuing. It is within this context that the study concentrates on a detailed analysis of pre-independence and post-independence policies concerning education in general, and teacher education in particular. The study analyses the development of policies and their implementation in the transformation process of teacher education. Particular reference is made to those elements in the policies and their implementation which promote or hinder the development of reflective practice in student teachers in the initial teacher education programme and serving teachers in the in-service teacher education programme.

In chapter 2 an historical overview of political and educational developments in Namibia is provided, which will illuminate the pre- and post-independence practices and policies.

Setting of the Study

The Basic Education Teacher Diploma (BETD) is offered through the pre-service mode at the four Colleges of Education in Namibia, as well as an in-service mode through a network of Teachers' Resource Centres (TRCs) coordinated by the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED). The map of Namibia (Appendix A) shows the colleges are Ongwediva (northern Namibia); Rundu (northeast); Caprivi (far northeast) and Windhoek (central Namibia). The Teachers' Resource Centres delivering the programme through the in-service mode are Keetmanshoop (far south); Windhoek College; Khorixas (northwest); Ongwediva; Rundu; and Katima Mulilo (far northeast). Most of the pre-service as well as the in-service participants in the BETD programme find themselves in northern Namibia (served by Ongwediva College and Ongwediva TRC respectively), since not only is that area the most populous area in Namibia, but it also has the highest number of unqualified and underqualified teachers.

Prior to January 1993 when the BETD programme was introduced at the four colleges, the three northern colleges offered two programmes, namely the National Education Certificate (NEC) and the National Higher Education Certificate (NHEC), which primarily prepared teachers to teach in Black schools. The Diploma in Education (DE) and the Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) were offered at the Windhoek College and primarily prepared teachers to teach in the white and coloured schools.The Windhoek college was the only one to offer part-time upgrading courses to teachers from all sections of the population. It was only in 1995 that the Teachers' Resource Centres started to deliver the BETD programme on an in-service basis.

The four colleges as well as three Teachers' Resource Centres (Ongwediva, Keetmanshoop and Rundu) were chosen as the sites for the study. The three TRCs were chosen on the basis that Keetmanshoop would be representative of Khorixas and Windhoek as the profile of teachers will be approximately the same, i.e. more advantaged in terms of resources. Rundu was the most marginalised of all the educational areas and the largest numbers of teachers are working in and around Ongwediva. It is important to note that there are some differences among Keetmanshoop, Windhoek and Khorixas e.g. rural teachers in the Keetmanshoop Region are more isolated than in the other Regions because of distances. However, the Keetmanshoop findings will be directly applicable to the other two in-service sites and also to Katima Mulilo based on the profiles of the teachers, their level of English and general educational background. The applicability and relevance of the findings at the three in-service sites to the others, should also be seen in the context of the BETD as a national and common programme within a national policy framework which seeks to address both national educational issues as well as local and specific issues.

Aims and relevance of the study

The overall aim of the research is to study the process of

transforming teacher education in Namibia - from policies and practices which prepared teachers from a content-based curriculum for a few in a segregated system, to a learner-centred curriculum in a unified and integrated basic education system. A learner-centred curriculum is employed as one of the strategies through which the democratisation of the society can be achieved. This can be done as learner-centred education is characterised by participation of stakeholders (which include learners, teachers, teacher educators, local communities, private sector and policy makers); voice; and a positive learning environment in which every learner can develop to his/her optimum capacity.

Furthermore, the study aims to:

1) analyse the process of change as manifested in the stated goals and policies for education development with particular reference to teacher education;

2) construct contrasting models of professional practice from the pre-independence content-based teacher education modes to the post-independence emphasis on developing reflective practice; and

3) analyse the outcome of the new teacher education policy as shown in the development of reflectivity/ reflectiveness in three groups of student teachers.

The study thus explores the process of transformation and charts the successes and failures of the policies involved. It attempts to provide reasons for the successes and failures. It also investigates whether the policy outcomes were in accordance with the stated governmental and ministerial expectations and whether unplanned and/or unforeseen consequences have emerged. It also aims to lead to a better understanding of educational change and/or reform as part of a wider agenda of social and political change (Tomlinson, 1994:2).

The study, in describing and analysing the pre-independence and post-independence educational system in general and teacher education in particular, pays specific attention to the factors necessitating a complete transformation of the system. It explores the transformation processes and focuses on the policies and models formulated for teacher education (for basic education) to lead the way in the transformation process and to facilitate and support transformation in the rest of the system. Some studies (e.g. Amukugo, 1993) of education in post-independence Namibia have examined aspects related to the differences in educational provision between the country's various ethnic groups, highlighting the disparities and inequities in the system and its disastrous effects on the country's skilled human resource supply. Some others (e.g. Nyambe, 1996; Dahlström, 1995) dealt with the evolution of education in Namibia from a liberation perspective and the reform of senior secondary education from a sociological perspective. Yet others (e.g. Sibuku, 1997) examined the evolution and implementation of the philosophy of learner-centered education.

This study is significant in the sense that while some studies(e.g. Nyambe, 1996 and Sibuku, 1997) focused on the Basic Education Teacher Diploma (BETD) programme and its implementation, none of them concentrated specifically on the processes of transformation; the appropriateness and responsiveness of policies for teacher education in relation to goals and realities; and the development of policy models more appropriate for the context. The vital role of the policy implementation chain and its impact on the transformation of education in general and teacher education in particular, has been overlooked. This study aims to fill the gap and in so doing will break new ground.

The study addresses an extensive field. Through an interest in education as an integral part of the dynamic forces and processes of any given society, the intention is to explore how the education system has evolved as a result of the

transformation and how the emerging post-independent Namibian values, attitudes, structures and social dynamics have contributed to the development of teacher education. In this regard Keynan (1994:135-6) holds the view which also applies to Namibia, that:

> *All societies evolve their own education. All cultures invent their own system of schooling for their preservation and reproduction ...Every society has a way of life and a worldview which determine and regulate its internal dynamics and external relations.*

This view is supported by Lawton (1978:2) who states:

> *Our view of curriculum starts from a definition of the school curriculum as a selection from the culture of a society: certain aspects of our man-made world are thought of as so important that they should be passed on to the next generation.*

In addition, the purpose of the study has been to gain an understanding of the complex processes of transformation and policy implementation and to obtain broader knowledge about the values, attitudes and dynamics underlying change and reform, as a basis for possible further and more extensive studies of the field in the future. It may lead to new considerations as to which theoretical, methodological and empirical approaches such studies should employ.

Research questions

The research questions have as their concern the elucidation through research and policy analyses what education and training student teachers receive at the four colleges and through the in-service teacher education mode. They aim to elicit the contexts of education and training of student teachers at the colleges and through in-service training in order to attempt to understand and clarify their ways of thinking about learning and teaching which form part of their individual and collective experiences. Through the research questions the national teacher education policy in relation to issues of implementation and delivery has

been analysed with the aim to develop a model of reflective professional development in teacher education that may be more relevant and meaningful to the contemporary and future demands of the country. The information and data necessary to elicit the answers to the questions, were gathered through a literature review of the three main themes of the study which are transformation, policy formulation and implementation, and reflective practice. In addition a detailed examination of the BETD curriculum and other relevant official documents has also contributed to addressing the research questions of the study. The research methodology and instruments are discussed in chapter 7.

Target groups

The three groups of teachers to be studied are:

1) teachers with teaching experience but no professional qualifications participating in the in-service BETD programme;

2) student teachers with teaching experience but no professional qualifications participating in the pre-service BETD programme;

and

3) student teachers with no professional qualifications and no teaching experience participating in the pre-service BETD programme.

These three groups were representative of the student teacher population at the time of the first intake of BETD students, i.e. the time when the study was initiated in 1994.

Limitations of the study

There were a number of factors which have inhibited and limited the execution of the study to some extent. The

major ones were:

1) The process of transformation of the educational system was not complete when the study was being conducted. The transformation can only be complete once the entire formal system (Grades 1-12) has been reformed and evaluated. This will only be the case at the end of 1999.

2) The system is still in transition which makes it premature to fully assess the impact of policies and their implementation.

3) Difficulties experienced in finding appropriate literature addressing innovations in an African context and from an African perspective, e.g. there are very few references in the literature on the development of reflective practice in the African context and from the African perspective. The definition of concepts and the development of theory therefore had to rely on literature and experiences available from the Western perspective.

4) Namibia has been experiencing a period of rapidly changing political events which made research difficult because of the unpredictability and volatility in the organisational structures. The volatility in the education sector is demonstrated through two rationalisation exercises of the civil service and the bifurcation of the Ministry of Education and Cultureinto two Ministries of Education, as well as through the constraints experienced with the implementation of the Wages and Salaries Commission's (WASCOM) recommendations. The embryonic nature of some policies also contributed to the unpredictability of the situation. To accommodate these factors the study was adjusted to the flow of events by taking into consideration trends as they emerged and evolved.

Frame of reference

In the attempt to explore, interpret and understand the processes of transformation; the development and implementation of policies; and the development of a model of reflective practice appropriate to the Namibian situation; the study was based on the principle that all theories are theories of theory and practice. These two areas will not be treated as separate areas of concern, but will be treated in a way, which according to Carr (1995:41) will demonstrate that "to engage in an educational practice always presupposes a theoretical scheme that is at the same time constitutive of this practice and the means for understanding the educational practices of others." Eagleton (quoted from Carr, 1995:40) expresses the following view:

> *Theory is just a practice forced into a new form of self-reflectiveness ...Theory is just human activity bending back upon itself, constrained into a new kind of self-reflexivity. And, in absorbing this self-reflexivity, the activity itself will be transformed.*

A basic assumption underlying the study is that just as educational practice cannot be undertaken without practitioners thinking about (and therefore theorising about) what they are doing, so it cannot be observed by educational theorists in a theory-neutral way. This conceptual scheme has been employed for the study in order for the theory to relate to practice in a relevant way, i.e. so that while new theories are being generated, the products of the study can be of practical relevance and use. According to Carr (1995:43) it thus follows "that questions about the nature of educational theory and questions about the nature of educational practice are logically linked." In order to sustain the assumption of the theory-practice relationship, the study employs the following approaches when and where necessary depending on the nature of the issue to be explored or interpreted:

1) The 'common sense' approach which refers to all those approaches that attempt to ground educational theory

in the common-sense understandings of practitioners.

2) The 'applied science' approach which is based on the notion that educational phenomena are amenable to scientific methods of investigation by eliminating the influence of subjective values.

3) The 'practical' approach which regards educational theory as a form of inquiry aimed at improving the way in which practical decision-making is conducted. Carr (1995:48) holds that this approach "offers practitioners interpretative theories which describe their practical situation in ways that are intended to help them uncover their underlying values and to reveal the tacit and previously unacknowledged assumptions inherent in their work."

4) The 'critical' approach which reconciles the insights of the 'common sense', the 'applied science' and the 'practical' approaches. It interprets educational practice not simply as a moral practice, but also as a social practice which is historically located, culturally embedded and thus always vulnerable to ideological distortion. It seeks to promote self-knowledge which informs practitioners about their beliefs and understandings, but also frees them from the irrational beliefs and misunderstandings that they have inherited from habit, tradition and ideology.

Definition of terms

Much theory has been produced on change and the change processes. In the literature reviewed, the terms *transformation*, *restructuring*, *reform*, and *change* appear to be used as synonyms. For the purposes of this study, working definitions for each of these terms have been developed to contextualise the usage of the terms; to show the difference in nuance between them; to show their separateness yet interconnectedness; and to clarify the

theoretical perspectives of the researcher. It has been deemed important to unpack the concepts of *'transformation'*, *'restructuring'*, *'reform'* and *'change'* so that the ways in which they are used to structure the discourse in the study can be understood.

Transformation

The Collins English Dictionary and The Collins Thesaurus define 'transformation' i.a. as a radical or revolutionary change or a metamorphosis.

In the study the term 'transformation' will be used to describe the complete overhaul of the education system after independence in order to accommodate the visions, goals and ideologies of the new government. The term will thus be used to describe the changes at the macro or system level. It will also be used in the context that the change is radical, revolutionary and irrevocable, i.e. the system cannot go back to what it had been before the transformation.

Restructuring

Within the context of the transformation of the system, certain structural and/or organisational changes had to be made to accommodate the needs of the new system and to provide alternatives to the old system, e.g. the eleven ethnic education authorities of the colonial system were restructured into one Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport with six decentralised regional offices; and the bureaucracy had to be rationalised to carry out the functions expected of the new system more efficiently. Hargreaves (1994:243) argues in this respect that "restructuring is commonly used to redefine and relabel traditional, outmoded and ineffective patterns of managed change."

The term 'restructuring' is used in the study mainly to describe the changes in the structures, functions and purposes of the Ministry (the bureaucracy). The restructuring of the Ministry is comprehensive in scope, accompanied by

significant redistributions of power relationships among new appointees from the former disadvantaged groups and the former privileged group.

Reform

For this study the term 'reform' will be used to convey a moral element in line with the dictionary definition of an improvement or change for the better, especially as a result of correction of legal or political abuses or malpractices.

When this term is used in the study, it will be used deliberately to show improvement, betterment and 'turning over a new leaf'.

Change

For the purposes of the study 'change' will be used to describe 'the substitution of one thing for another' or 'to make or become different' or the alteration of attitudes/ opinions at the local (micro) level, i.e. at the school and college level and at the individual level of student teachers and teacher educators.

Literature on transformation, restructuring, reform and change and the processes involved; policy development and implementation; and the development of reflective practice will be examined and related to the southern African and in particular to the Namibian situation. Comparative and interpretive research strategies and procedures have been adopted to examine the research questions in order to provide a comprehensive and as complete as possible picture of the social dynamics of the particular developments.

The historical overview of political and educational developments before and after independence is given in the next chapter. Both pre- and in-service teacher education will be discussed against the historical background which shaped the development of the BETD programme.

Structure

Chapter 1 is the introductory chapter explaining the background to the chosen topic under investigation as well as presenting the different themes. It provides an outline of the study; contextualises it; identifies the aims and relevance of the study; poses the research questions; identifies the target groups; discusses some limitations; provides the frame of reference; and defines important terms.

In chapter 2 the historical background is provided.

Chapter 3 describes and analyses why the pre-independence teacher education programmes were inadequate and why a complete transformation of the system was therefore considered imperative.

Literature on transformation, restructuring, reform, and change is reviewed in chapter 4. It comments on features in the literature which are of particular importance for the study; provides the rationale for the transformation of the educational system and the reform of teacher education; and extrapolates issues for further exploration.

Chapter 5 reviews literature on policy development and implementation; discusses the policy implementation chain; provides a model for policy implementation in Namibia; and extracts issues for further elaboration.

In chapter 6 literature on reflective practice is reviewed. The chapter discusses why Namibia embarked upon a policy to develop reflective practitioners; defines reflective practice in the international and Namibian contexts; and identifies factors facilitating and inhibiting the development of reflective practice.

Chapter 7 discusses the study's research design and the methodology and instruments utilised within the framework of the research questions to be explored and explained.

The results of the study are presented in chapter 8, illuminated by figures, graphs and views expressed by the respondents.

In chapter 9 the results are discussed, examined and analysed in the light of the research questions.

Chapter 10 provides a summary and conclusion as a synthesis to the study. It highlights those results which affect or will affect existing knowledge of the subject and make recommendations for improvement of practice and for future research.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Introduction

Namibia gained its independence from South Africa on 21 March 1990. As referred to in chapter 1, prior to independence the segregation of society along racial lines ensured that schooling was the privilege of a few, based on the philosophy to educate elites. The conception of human nature and certain individual characteristics of different ethnic groups were reflected in the type of education deemed to be necessary for especially the Black groups to fashion them into ' hewers of wood and drawers of water' (Ellis, 1984:19).

This chapter provides an historical overview of political and educational developments in Namibia to situate the study within the context which necessitated the transformation of the educational system.

Terminology

In this study use is made of the apartheid terminology of 'black', 'coloured', and 'white' when referring to the main population groupings. The use of the terminology does not in any way imply personal approval of or preference for such terminology. The classification of groups in the colonial period in Namibia was done primarily on the basis of colour, and even though the classification itself was abolished at independence, the terminology persisted and is still being widely used. 'Blacks' was the umbrella term for the largest population grouping consisting of the Bushmen, Damaras, Caprivians, Ovambos, Kavangos, Tswanas and Hereros. The term 'Coloured' originally referred to offspring of white settlers and soldiers and the indigenous peoples. Over time, however, they acquired an own identity as a separate grouping. Categorised with them were the Namas and Rehoboth Basters. 'Whites' referred to the descendants of Europeans

from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (e.g. Afrikaner, German, British, Portuguese). The term 'African', when used in the study, refers to the indigenous peoples.

Geography

Namibia is located in the south western part of Africa and is bordered by Angola (in the north), Botswana (in the east), and South Africa (in the south). (See Appendix A). Although it covers an area of approximately 318 250 square miles (about 4 times the size of Britain), it only has a population of just over 1,6 million people. It was colonised by the Germans from 1884 - 1915 and by South Africa from 1915 - 1990.

The Colonial Period

In African countries education has historically been divided into 3 periods: a) pre-colonial; b) colonial; and c) post-independence (Halls,1990:258). While acknowledging the importance of the African pre-colonial education (indigenous education), which according to Mbamba (Storeng,1994:85) "educated their children and youth about their culture, skill,etc.", the chapter focuses on the colonial and post-independence periods to provide the background to the development of teacher education after independence.

German colonial rule

Formal education in Namibia, as in many other African countries, was first introduced by the missionaries. During the German colonial period "...African education never progressed beyond simple literacy and Bible study", while generous government grants were provided to white parents to encourage them to send their children to boarding school, and school attendance was made compulsory for white children within a distance of four kilometres from a school(Amukugo, 1993:45). Halls (1990:260) is of the opinion that mission schools actually educated "the African away from his culture".

D'Oyley, Blunt and Barnhardt (1994:10)when examining schooling in developing countries contend that:

> *In the colonial area, schools were viewed as an instrument for the inculcation of the skills, knowledge and beliefs necessary for the functioning of a Western nation-state form of government and economic system, with little thought given to the implications for the traditional knowledge, beliefs and skills of the colonized societies. Schooling was first introduced by colonial administrators to serve the needs of the colonial governments.*

Already starting during the German colonial period, the indigenous peoples were excluded from political decision-making with the purpose of securing the interests of the European settlers by taking full control of the political and socio-economic development of the country. Mbuende (1987:32-33) describes the end of German rule in Namibia in the following manner:

> *The once economically self-sustaining Africans were reduced to the status of labourers who had to enter the service of the settlers to meet their subsistence requirements. Indeed, the only condition on which the Africans were given the privilege to live was that they had to supply labour. Africans could not advance beyond the status of labourers.*

South African colonial rule

In 1915 Namibia was placed under South African military rule until the signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919, and the formation of the League of Nations. The Allied powers devised a mandate system, according to which all former German colonies were placed under the administration of a designated mandatory power until such time when the indigenous population of such a colony could govern themselves. As a result of this policy, Namibia became a class C mandate to Her Britannic Majesty, to be governed on her behalf by the Union of South Africa. The South African regime then set out to organise the hitherto unorganised educational system for Blacks, which they had inherited from the German colonial regime (Amukugo, 1993:46). However, like the Germans, the South African administration wished to control, but not improve missionary education of Blacks.

It imposed a restricted curriculum spanning not more than four years, consisting of reading, writing, arithmetic, religion and singing in the vernacular (Ellis, 1984:18).

Bantu Education:

In 1948 the Afrikaner National Party was victorious after a white election in South Africa. The National Party refused to recognise the United Nations' right as legal successor of the League of Nations to supervise South Africa's administration in South West Africa. It set about entrenching their policy of apartheid, reinforcing racial separation and domination by the white minority over the black majority in all spheres of life. Christian National Education became the official policy for Whites as a means to protect their cultural and economic interests, while for the Blacks the government introduced Bantu Education. In 1958 the Van Zyl Commission was appointed to set up an education system for African Namibians. The Commission recommended i.a.:

- the establishment of a separate branch of African education within the South West Africa Department of Education, staffed by qualified white officers

- the conversion of mission schools into state and community schools

- the use of the South African Bantu Education curriculum in African schools in South West Africa (SWA)(Cohen, 1994:96).

The adoption of Bantu Education meant that the curriculum for Black learners was as rudimentary as before, ensuring that they would be able to read and write in their mother tongue and make basic calculations, as well as having a basic knowledge of English and Afrikaans. They would therefore only be equipped to perform unskilled work, consistent with Verwoerd's policy which stated very clearly:

> *There is no place for the native in the European community, above the level of certain forms of*

labour...When I have control of native education I will reform it so that the natives will be taught from childhood to realise that equality with Europeans is not for them. People who believe in equality are not desirable teachers for natives.
(Quoted from Ellis, 1984:23).

The very explicit intention of Bantu Education was that Blacks should be confined to the lowest grades, with their ambitions restricted to a tribal context. Teaching, nursing, the police, service in the Church, public service and local government were the only fields available to Blacks with some schooling. The missions established six teacher training institutions at which entry was after Standard 6 (eight years of schooling). The qualifications of teachers were lower than those of the Whites and Coloureds, as were the salaries. Since the training of teachers at secondary level was inadequate, too few of the teacher trainees had the necessary preparation for teacher training.

Coloured Education:

The Van Zyl Commission also recommended a separate branch for coloured education within the SWA Department of Education. This would help to bring their education in line with the apartheid policies. Concerning educational opportunity, the coloured learners did not have much more scope than the black learners who were severely restricted in the choice and scope of career opportunities. The Commission emphasised that as "most of the coloureds have to earn their living by manual labour, the development of their manual skills should be emphasized" (Cohen, 1994:102). Coloureds, however, were not restricted to four years of education, as was the case with black learners. Their curriculum was similar to that of the Whites, but the resources available to them were little more than those for the Blacks and thus they had very limited opportunity to progress beyond the lower grades. Those Coloureds who were better educated became teachers, but according to the findings of the Commission, coloured teachers were regarded as poorly trained and incompetent.

White Education:

White education was made compulsory in 1921 and by 1955 there was a total of 71 White schools of which 9 were secondary schools. In comparison, the Coloureds had 36 schools (32 of which were mission-run) none of which were secondary schools, while the Black population, which constituted over 90% of the total population, had 249 schools (241 mission-run) of which 2 were junior secondary schools. Teachers in White schools were better trained than those for the Black schools, and the majority of them had post-matriculated training in South Africa. Whites had access to tertiary and vocational education, albeit in South Africa, and financial assistance from the government was available. According to Cohen (1994:104) the

> *greater government financial backing they enjoyed meant high quality facilities, while the admittedly superior education they were exposed to inculcated leadership and elitist values and prepared them for dominant roles in the society.*

The white privileged position was entrenched and reinforced by the apartheid system and great inequities and disparities in terms of educational provision, quality of provision, and provision of resources were created between the different population groupings.

Political developments in the 1970s and 1980s:

In 1960 the Ovamboland People's Organisation changed its name to the South West Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO) and began broadening its base to become a united national front. It rapidly grew into the largest political organisation in the country. In 1966 the armed struggle against the South African occupation began as SWAPO realised that it could no longer rely only on the United Nations and the International Court of Justice to achieve independence (Cohen, 1994:49).

After the demise of the Portuguese empire in southern Africa in the mid-seventies, Marxist governments vied for power in

Angola and Mozambique. South Africa, supported by the United States, used Namibia to launch raids into Angola. These raids were mainly aimed at neutralising the People's Liberation Army for Namibia (PLAN), the military wing of SWAPO. At the same time SWAPO intensified both its diplomatic and military activities against South Africa. With increased pressure from the UN, South Africa started to seek an internationally acceptable internal settlement for the Namibian situation. In 1975 the Turnhalle Conference was constituted from delegates selected on an ethnic and tribal basis to form an interim government. The interim government proposed by the Turnhalle Conference excluded SWAPO and was based on a system of eleven ethnic governments, each of which would take responsibility for their own education, housing, and health and each with its own bureaucracy (Cohen, 1994:52; Amukugo, 1993:72 -3). This was not acceptable to SWAPO or to the UN.

In 1977 the Western Contact Group, consisting of Britain, the United States, France, Germany and Canada, was formed to negotiate with South Africa over Namibia's independence. The Contact Group devised a plan for the independence of Namibia, adopted as Security Council Resolution 435 of 1978. South Africa opposed this plan and pursued its own internal solution by holding elections in December 1978 for a Constituent Assembly. The Democratic Turnhalle Alliance (DTA) won the election and, in order to gain credibility both internally and internationally and with the support of South Africa, began to repeal discriminatory laws. According to Cohen (1994:53) this "resulted in the de jure scrapping of apartheid, but the policy remained operative de facto as was evidenced, for example, by the continued existence of segregated schools and hospitals".

During the late 1980s international sanctions against South Africa were taking their toll on the economy, while the white domination within South Africa was being increasingly challenged. At the same time the South African military defeat by combined SWAPO and Cuban forces at Cuito Cuanavale dispelled the myth of its military invincibility. This

greatly influenced South Africa's decision to withdraw from Namibia. Resolution 435 was activated, elections were held in 1989 and Namibia gained its independence from South Africa on 21 March 1990.

Educational developments since the 1970s up to independence:

Education in exile:

Already in the late 1950s young Black and Coloured Namibians started to flee their homeland in order to gain an education and to fight for independence. By 1973 there were enough Namibians in Zambia for SWAPO to open a school for several hundred children outside Lusaka. SWAPO devised a curriculum for this school, drawing mainly on the Zambian but also on the Tanzanian curriculum. However, a steady stream of exiles, among whom were nurses, teachers, and secondary school learners, started pouring into Angola and from there to Zambia. Since it was very difficult to transport all the children to Zambia, a school was started at Kassinga in southern Angola. The South African Defence Force (SADF) raided the school in 1978 and indiscriminately killed 600 of the refugees. As a result a new education centre was established further north in Kwanza Sul (Ellis, 1984: 54 - 9).

Since Bantu Education was designed to serve the interests of the ruling class (White minority), it was clear to SWAPO that after independence the educational system would have to undergo fundamental changes to serve the interests of the majority of the Namibian people. SWAPO therefore embarked on an alternative system of education in exile. Within the general framework of SWAPO's policy for national independence and social reconstruction, education was given a central role. SWAPO's Department of Education and Culture designed and executed four main educational programmes in exile:

1) the basic education programme;
2) the fellowship/scholarship programme;
3) the adult education programme; and

4) the special training programme and workers' education programme.

The basic education programme was intended to provide a comprehensive education for young people aged 6 to 20. It consisted of a one-year pre-school programme, a six-year primary school programme and a three-year junior secondary programme. The fellowship/scholarship programme made it possible for students to obtain education and training beyond the level SWAPO could offer at its own centres. Funds were provided by international donors, other governments and Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs). The adult education programme was designed to meet the educational needs of adults in SWAPO settlements in Zambia and Angola. It included distance teaching, literacy teaching and skills development. The special training programme concentrated mainly on teacher training and consisted of both in-service and college based training and was supplemented by the activities of the UN (Amukugo, 1993:133 - 7).

At a seminar on education in Lusaka in September 1982, SWAPO narrowed down its priorities for education to three areas:

a) teacher training; b) curriculum development; and c) research into the present and future education system (Ellis,1984:61). For those Namibians in exile education was an integral part of the struggle for independence and human development. In this regard the SWAPO President, Sam Nujoma had the following to say:

> *It is through education, formal and informal, that we gain understanding of the various forces which act against or in support of the people's quest for freedom and independence...*
> (Quoted from Ellis,1984:61).

SWAPO, totally opposed to the kind of education they experienced in Namibia, was adamant that a new education system had to be an antithesis of the system in operation in Namibia. They therefore started to prepare for social

and political programmes which could help Namibians to overcome the colonial legacy and to participate in the creation of a new society.

Educational developments in Namibia from the 1970s to independence:

In terms of the Turnhalle Constitution of 1977, the second-tier or Bantustan governments were to be responsible for the education of the various ethnic groups, while the education of Blacks within urban areas fell under the Department of National Education (DNE). Through the second-tier authorities, the South African regime tried to give apartheid a new face. However, even though the responsibility for education was now with the ethnic groups, no substantial changes occurred since their limited economic resources limited their possibility to provide adequate education for their people. Economic constraints were therefore utilised as part of the strategy to reproduce the old society in a new dispensation. In this regard, Mbuende (quoted from Amukugo,1993:75) states that ,

> *the nature of the federal government is such that it would not leave room for Africans to strive for and eventually obtain an equitable redistribution of the country's resources. Instead, the whites would control the wealth of the country, and the Africans would be left to control their poverty and economic deprivation.*

The National Education Act (Act No.30 of 1980) replaced the Bantu Education Act (Act No.47 of 1953) and brought control of all primary and secondary education which did not fall to a second-tier authority to the Department of National Education. In instances where the ethnic authorities chose not to exercise their educational responsibilities, these could be performed by the DNE. The DNE was also to provide professional services at primary and secondary school level to the ethnic authorities on request. Three bodies were established in accordance with the Act: the National Education Board, the Examination Board and the Curriculum Management Committee. Their functions were i.a.:

- to advise and make recommendations to the Administrator-General on general education policy
- to prescribe minimum standard and requirements for courses and syllabuses
- to conduct examinations
- to issue certificates to schools and other institution
- to advise on matters pertaining to the curriculum (Cohen, 1994:200-1).

In spite of all these developments the education system as a whole, "...in terms of standards, structure, content and requirements, was virtually all South African based. As such, it was lacking in national character, confirming the ineffectiveness and powerlessness of the boards [National Education Board and Examination Board] as independent policy-making bodies" (Cohen, 1994:201). Ultimate control still rested with South Africa in the person of the Administrator-General.

In 1985 the DNE appointed an Education Committee to look into the issue of improvement of education and to submit proposals for the solutions of the problems experienced. The Committee investigated six main educational problem areas:

- the relevance of curricula
- the principle of free association and parental choice
- the formulation of a comprehensive language policy
- provision of adequate and effective physical facilities and maximum utilisation of existing facilities
- the establishment of an effective and appropriate education control and management structure
- the achievement of a fair financial dispensation.

In addition, they also had to consider other identified problems impacting on education, e.g. fragmented control over the educational system and a lack of national educational goals, aspirations and planning (Cohen, 1994:84 - 5).

The Committee identified the problem of education in South West Africa/Namibia as follows:

> *The dissatisfaction, as expressed inter alia in the National Assembly, at the inability of the current education policy and system to meet the formal and non-formal educational demands and needs of the country and her people in a balanced way, according to educational considerations, and as part of a national development strategy.* (Education Committee, 1985:25).

The Committee observed disparities in educational provision and the inadequacy of educational policies and was amazed by the low educational level in Black schools as well as by the high drop out rates. It stated:

> *The present education system emphasises theoretical-academic education. Research has shown that such education does not meet the needs of the employer, the individual or the community and that it retards economic growth and progress.*
>
> *Furthermore, there is great inequality in the distribution of education opportunities, the provision of education and in education requirements across the whole population....*
> (Education Committee, 1985:6).

The Committee also pointed out the positive aspects of the system. These were i.a. that the government was sympathetic towards education; that the relatively small numbers of learners were easier to handle; the peaceful environment in which education could be carried out; and the large measure of consensus on general education matters. It also indicated both short and long term strategies for the improvement of education e.g. the promotion of national solidarity between the various population groups of the country and the eradication of backlogs in the provision of equal education opportunities. However, a cross-section of Namibian and other researchers in the mid 1980s and later, e.g. Amukugo (1993); Mbuende (1987); Melber (1987); Katjavivi(1989); Callewaert and Kallos (1989); disagreed that there was 'a large measure of consensus on general education matters' and denied that 'South West Africans controlled their own education affairs'. Amukugo (1993:93-4) in her analysis of

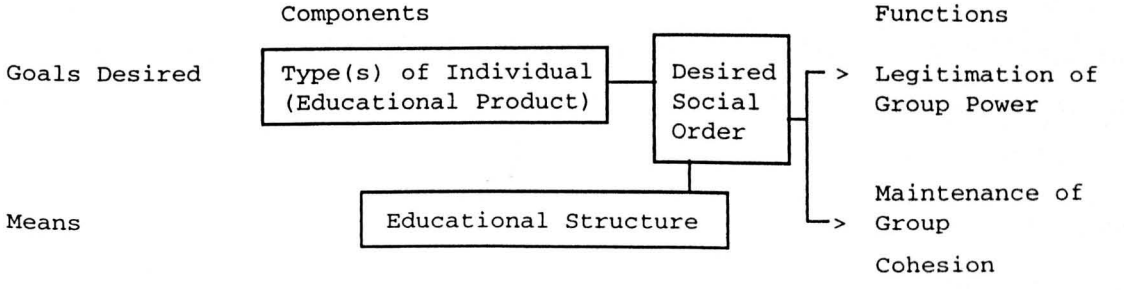
the Committee's report, states in this respect that

> *the 1985 Education Committee observed some degree of inequality in the educational system. It noted discrepancies in the provision of education and the distribution of financial resources as well as in access to qualified teachers. What is important in this respect, however, are the committee's recommendations with regard to how these problems could be solved. The committee did not have a solution as to what could be done in order to make education available to the impoverished African majority, especially in the Bantustans ...Separating the educational problems from their social framework, as the committee had done, was bound to lead to insignificant educational innovations rather than meaningful educational reforms.*

It is clear that while there was an awareness and recognition of the problems experienced by the various education authorities and the country at large, and strategies had been devised to address some of the problems, the interim government could not effect any meaningful change since it was not in control of the system. The interim government and the ethnic authorities had a say in educational matters, but no real political power to effect real change. Amukugo (1993:99) refers to this as "oppression in an invisible way". This was the state of affairs in education when Namibia gained its independence in 1990.

Salter and Tapper (1981: 65) constructed the following diagram of the educational ideology of a colonial power.

Figure.1: Educational Ideology: Components and Functions



The diagram indicates that the goals of the colonial education system are derived from what is perceived by the colonial power as the desired social order. However, the components

and functions do not only apply to colonial situations. From the diagram the functions of an education system are to legitimate group power and to maintain group cohesion. This is consistent with Melber's view that:

> *Education is a component and mirror image of social realities. Social realities are maintained and reproduced by education- and are at the same time changed by education.*
> (Melber, 1997: 68).

The South African colonial educational ideology was sophisticated and complex and therefore better able to legitimate the interests of the colonial power and the White minority group. As was hinted at in this chapter, the economic structure was clearly unjust, with very few jobs, gross inequalities in earnings and opportunities, and ownership and power reserved almost entirely for foreign companies and local whites. This inevitably had an effect on education provision and therefore on educational opportunities for Whites. The overall thrust of the ideology was to keep Black Namibians in subordinate positions in order for the Whites to retain their position of privilege.

Post-Independence Educational Development:

When Namibia gained its independence from South Africa, the new government inherited a deficient education system with gross inequities and disparities of resource allocation. The optimal growth and development of all Namibians has not been central to the educational enterprise. On the contrary, education has been part of the politics of exclusion and oppression. With independence, "Education for All" became an important goal central to the national development strategy. The policy document of the Ministry of Education and Culture, Towards Education for All (MEC,1993:2-3), states in this regard:

> *Schooling in this country was once the privilege of the few. As the 20th Century closes, education is the right of every Namibian... Education has come to be understood as an investment in human capital. Extending and improving education promotes development.*

Statements like the above clearly demonstrate the powerful psychological and ideological shift which was occurring in the way Namibians viewed the role education had to play in democratising society and in developing the country. A re-evaluation and reconstruction of the educational system was central to this process. The entire education system had to be transformed and reformed in line with the major post-independence goals *of access; equity; pedagogical effectiveness; internal efficiency*; and *democratic participation*. These goals necessitated a paradigm shift from a content-based education system for a few to a learner-centred system for all, which required fundamental changes in teacher attitudes and teacher competence and thus required fundamental changes in the content and processes of teacher education. The teacher, especially in recent years, has become the key agent in implementing change - not only in Namibia, but in most countries attempting to bring about substantial change. Fullan (1991:117) states: "Educational change depends on what teachers do and think - it's as simple and complex as that". In this respect Hargreaves (1994:ix) supports Fullan and argues:

> *...we have come to realize in recent years that the teacher is the ultimate key to educational change and school improvement. The restructuring of schools, the composition of national and provincial curricula, the development of benchmark assessments - all these things are of little value if they do not take the teacher into account. Teachers don't merely deliver the curriculum. They develop [it], define it and reinterpret it too. It is what teachers think, what teachers believe and what teachers do at the level of the classroom that ultimately shapes the kind of learning that young people get.*

In recognition of the above, i.e. the teacher's central role in the transformation, restructuring and reform of the educational system, the Ministry developed policies and procedures and created structures for the teacher to take up this central role equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes. In the next chapter teacher education will be discussed in more detail in terms of pre-independence programmes and practices to provide the rationale for the transformation, and post-independent developments. This will

provide a description of the philosophy, ideology, policies and practices which underpin the transformation process and which led to inter alia,the policy for the development of reflective practice in teacher education.

CHAPTER 3

TEACHER EDUCATION IN NAMIBIA

Introduction

This chapter attempts to describe and analyse why the pre-independence teacher education programmes were inadequate and why a total transformation of the system was necessary. As stated in chapter 2 the paradigm shift required fundamental changes in teacher attitudes and teacher competence and thus required fundamental changes in the content and processes of teacher education. Calderhead and Shorrock contend that

> *... teaching, and the processes of learning to teach, are highly complex and place heavy demands, of a cognitive, affective and performance nature, upon the student teacher.... Learning to teach involves the development of technical skills, as well as an appreciation of moral issues involved in education, an ability to negotiate and develop one's practice within the culture of the school, the development of personal qualities and an ability to reflect and evaluate both in and on one's actions. Each of these areas may make quite different demands upon the learner and entail different forms of professional growth... Learning to be a teacher requires multiple forms of learning... Not only does learning to teach involve different forms of learning, but since student teachers start out with many different abilities, types of expertise and background experience, their routes in the process of learning are inevitably quite varied. Just as children come to the classroom with different background experiences that influence their learning, student teachers approach initial training with different pasts on which to draw, different aspirations and expectations, and different repertoires of relevant skills, abilities and knowledge.*
> (Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997:18)

Teacher education was considered one of the most important areas of reform at independence. It had a very important role to play in the transformation of the education system, because of teachers' strategic role in the reform efforts. Fullan (1991:117) holds the view that educational change depends on what teachers do and think. The Ministry, in its

policy document, Toward Education for All (MEC, 1993:37), expresses itself thus on this issue:

> *Perhaps the most important challenge in improving the equity of our education system is to ensure that our teachers are well prepared for the major responsibilities they carry. More than anything else, it is the teacher who structures the learning environment. It is they who can keep learning exciting and satisfying or alternatively who make schooling a pain to be endured.*
>
> *It is essential, therefore, that we help our teachers develop the expertise and skills that will enable them to stimulate learning. Their professional education must begin before they enter the classroom and continue during the course of their professional careers.*

Pre-Independence Teacher Education:

The chapter starts with the discussion of the pre-independence period of teacher education, both in exile and in Namibia. These two systems had a very definite influence on post-independence developments in teacher education.

Teacher education in exile:

Within the general framework of SWAPO's policy for national independence and social reconstruction, education was given a high priority and profile. SWAPO's Department of Education and Culture carried out four main educational programmes while in exile. The *special training programme* was devoted to teacher training, since the importance of the role of the teacher was recognised and fostered. SWAPO, in addition to providing school-level training, embarked upon extensive primary school teacher training programmes as it recognised the crucial role trained teachers play in the provision of quality education. The teacher training programmes emphasised English language training as English was to become the official language of an independent Namibia. The programmes consisted of both in-service training and institutional pre-service training, supported by donor agencies and training institutions in various countries (Cohen, 1994:241).

The Integrated Teacher Training Programme (ITTP), funded by the Swedish International Development Aid (Sida), focused on improving the professional quality of a small number of teachers at Kwanza Sul. By 1989 more than 100 students had completed English language teacher training in the UK and about 40 primary school English language teachers had trained in Sri Lanka and Sierra Leone.

The United Nations Institute for Namibia (UNIN) was launched in 1976 in Lusaka. In 1982 the Teacher Training programme was established to "... overcome the shortage of qualified teachers both in the [refugee] camps and within Namibia after independence once educational provision was expanded there" (Cohen, 1994:284). Two types of training were offered:

- a two-year residential teacher training programme at primary and lower secondary level leading to a diploma.
- programmes of two to three weeks' in-service training for SWAPO teachers during their vacation periods.

The in-service programme catered for qualified and trainee teachers who wished to upgrade their skills and included training in classroom management, evaluation, testing, teaching skills and methodology. The aims of the in-service programme were to improve the general quality of serving teachers who were drawn from primary and secondary levels and to act as a preparatory course for full time teacher training. The diploma programme included training in educational administration, curriculum studies and methodology. The three-year, full-time Integrated Teacher Training Programme (ITTP) for primary school teachers commenced in 1986. It was conducted jointly at Kwanza Sul in Angola and at Umea University in Sweden. The ITTP strove to include specific knowledge relevant to the needs of the refugee learners at Kwanza Sul; trained the trainees in the environment in which they would eventually work; stressed the link between theory and practice; and encouraged and equipped trainees to produce their own teaching materials. In spite of the fact that the trainees' educational backgrounds and teaching and learning experiences were very

varied, the ITTP succeeded in making it possible for all of them to succeed in the programme. Although the programme could accommodate only relatively small numbers, it provided a model for an alternative form of teacher education in post-independent Namibia. Many of the innovative ideas and principles underpinning the ITTP were incorporated into the design of the reformed teacher education programme for basic education. These elements are discussed in the section dealing with teacher education after independence.

Teacher Education in Namibia:

Before independence teacher education, like education in general, had been controlled and regulated by the different ethnic authorities. The teacher training programmes were designed to produce teachers for the ethnic administrations which controlled them. Thus, teachers from the different ethnic groups were not exposed to each other nor to the beliefs and values held by other groups. Hargreaves (1994) describes this kind of teacher culture as 'balkanized' which is defined by particular patterns of behaviour. The culture is typified by, but not specific to the Balkans and could be used in a wider context. Although this type of teacher culture is most often observed in high schools (because of the subject-departmental structures), it can also manifest itself in primary schools and in the wider educational context. In the Namibian situation the example of a 'balkanized culture' is used to describe the cohesion of the sub-groups (White, Black and Coloured) and the 'deep-seated distinctions of status and priority' (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992:223) which was apparent in the educational system. The patterns of behaviour mainly consist of teachers working neither in isolation (within the educational community of their own group), nor with most of their colleagues (across ethnic boundaries), but in smaller sub-groups within the broader educational community. Hargreaves (1994:213) states that 'balkanized cultures' among teachers and other groups have certain qualities, of which 'low permeability' is one. He elaborates in this regard:

In balkanized cultures, sub-groups are strongly

insulated from each other. Multiple group membership is not common. Balkanized teachers belong predominantly and perhaps exclusively to one group more than any other. Teachers' professional learning occurs mainly within their own sub-group, and the nature of that professional learning - what teachers come to know, think and believe varies considerably between those sub-groups.

In Namibia, the apartheid structure depended on and was supported and perpetuated by 'low permeability'. The White and Coloured groups had their own colleges of education, offering programmes exclusively for teachers belonging to their specific groups and prepared them for teaching in the schools under their specific ethnic authorities. The Academy for Tertiary Education, through its satellite campuses at Ongwediva, Rundu and Katima Mulilo provided teacher training for the Black authorities. Thus Namibian teachers belonging to the three main ethnic divisions (White, Coloured, Black) were trained in isolation from each other and worked in isolation from each other. Even where they taught in the same schools (which was the case in the Department of National Education as there were not enough qualified Black teachers) they stayed within their sub-groups with very little and/or superficial contact with teachers from other groups. Teacher training was offered by the Academy for Tertiary Education in Windhoek (the predecessor of the University of Namibia) and the five segregated colleges. White teachers were trained at the Windhoek College, Coloureds at the Khomasdal College and Blacks at the Ongwediva, Rundu and Caprivi Colleges in northern Namibia and at the Academy.

Before independence, teacher training programmes conformed more to a certification process than to a genuinely professional learning process, with the result that student teachers learned to demonstrate a narrow range of contrived competencies in order to be favourably assessed and certificated as a teacher. According to Dahlström (1995:274) the

...pre-independence pedagogy was effected mainly through study guides comprising copied articles from different sources bound together under an Academy cover. The colleges at Ongwediva, Rundu

and Katima Mulilo were training black teachers for disqualification to the system as the ECP (Education Cerificate Primary) resulted in a certificate which was not recognised as a proper qualification in the salary scales for teachers. The same was for the NEC (National Education Certificate) programme.

Some of these programmes 'over-qualified' teachers for the phase they had to teach in, e.g. the Higher Diploma in Education of the former White Administration. Others 'under-qualified' teachers for the work they had to do e.g. Primary Teachers' Certificate, Education Certificate Primary, National Education Certificate, National Higher Education Certificate. As these programmes were reliant on the resources that the ethnic authorities could provide, they were very different in terms of scope, structure, content, sequence, duration, philosophy, approaches, entry requirements and exit competencies.

In general all these programmes showed a tendency to concentrate too much on academic knowledge and formal examinations at the expense of professional development. Some had had insufficient consistency between the stated goals and principles of the programme and its structure and implementation. The various programmes treated school practice differently, both in scope and organisation, and provided different competencies in terms of teacher qualification. In most cases not nearly enough time was devoted to practice teaching, school organisation and administration e.g. ECP. The Higher Primary Education Certificate (HPEC), the ECP and Education Primary (Ed Prim) only prepared students very superficially for administrative tasks in education (Cohen, 1994:177). The programmes were usually seen as terminal studies and attending college had had a specific purpose: to secure the certificate necessary to practise as a teacher or to enter with this certificate into a related profession. Once that objective was achieved, education stopped. What mattered was certification, not the acquisition of the necessary understanding, attitudes, knowledge and skills to be able to function as a professional teacher.

In the same way that Black learner enrolments had risen

progressively in the 1980s, so was there a significant rise in the number of Black teacher trainees as well as in the numbers of teachers employed. In 1982 there were 905 trainees enrolled in Namibia. By 1988 enrolments at the Academy alone came to 2 877, which represents an increase of 218% over the 1982 enrolments. However, according to Cohen (1994:180) only "...about 60 per cent of the candidates pursuing teacher training courses at the Academy's satellite campuses qualified."

The following tables demonstrate the increase in the number of teachers employed by the Department of National Education from 1982 to 1990. Since no reliable statistics are available from the different ethnic administrations, the DNE figures are used to illustrate that there was a steady increase in the numbers of teachers employed since 1982. The figures for 1982 and 1986 are shown to demonstrate the trend.

Table 1: Teachers According to Population Groups, 1982 and 1986

Population Group	1982	1986
Bushman	2	0
Caprivian	1	3
Coloured	40	81
Damara	325	370
Herero	210	271
Kavango	16	13
Nama	36	45
Rehoboth Baster	4	9
Tswana	73	67
Ovambo	141	160
White	181	315
Other	36	41
TOTAL	1 065	1 375

Source: DNE Statistics

In terms of teacher qualification the Education Committee

(1985) reported thus:

> *Of the total number of teachers in South West Africa/ Namibia, namely 9978, 74% do not have qualifications higher than Std. 10 [Grade 12] level. This number includes 20% who do not have a qualification equal to Std.8 [Grade 10]* (1984 statistics).
>
> *Where there is the largest concentration of population and the most urgent need for education, provision of education is poorest in terms of number ratios and level of training. Caprivi, Kavango and Owambo together have 65% of the total school population, while 54% of the total teaching corps works there. Of these teachers only 7% have qualifications higher than Std.10 level, while 30% have qualifications lower than Std.8.*
> (Education Committee, 1985:6 - 7).

Since there is a connection between the level of formal education and professional training of teachers, and the quality of teaching, it can therefore be concluded that poor instruction and thus low-level learner performance was a continuing trend in the majority of schools. The following table indicates that the percentage of teachers without Std.10 for Kavangos, Hereros and Ovambos were 90, 85 and 81% respectively.

Table 2: Teacher Qualifications According to Individual Ethnic Groups, 1988.

	CATEGORY OF TEACHER				
Ethnic Group	Std. 10 or Lower	% *	Std. 10 & Furth.Quals.	% *	TOTAL
Caprivian	565	70	246	30	811
Coloured	197	30	461	70	658
Damara	298	70	128	30	426
Herero	519	85	94	15	613
Kavango	1034	90	113	10	1147
Nama	338	64	194	36	532
Ovambo	3986	81	934	19	4920
Rehoboth Baster	184	40	281	60	465
Tswana	12	28	31	72	43
White	14	1	1198	99	1212
DNE	868	51	830	49	1698
TOTAL	8015	64	4510	36	12525

* Percentages in each individual group's totals.

Source: Cohen, 1994: 168.

The trends of the 1988 statistics are confirmed by the 1990 statistics compiled by the newly formed Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sports in order to obtain an overview of teacher qualifications just before and at independence. There are some discrepancies between the 1988 and the 1990 statistics which could be ascribed to the fact that some of the ethnic authorities did not keep accurate data. However, the trend of teacher qualification, i.e. that a large number of Black teachers were very poorly prepared for the task of teaching is clearly demonstrated. The figures for 1990 are shown in the table below:

Table 3: Teachers by Former Education Authority, 1990

Authority	<Std10	Std 10+>	Total
Admin for Whites	6	1 109	1 115
Admin. for Caprivians	513	269	782
Admin. for the Damara	256	165	421
Admin. for the Herero	593	103	696
Admin. for the Kavango	1 190	90	1 280
Admin. for Coloureds	173	472	645
Admin. for the Nama	295	214	509
Admin. for the Tswana	17	23	40
Admin. for Ovambo	4 754	422	5 176
DNE	971	1 062	2 033
Gov. of Rehoboth	166	368	534
TOTAL	8 934	4 297	13 231

Source: EMIS/MECYS,1990
[<Std 10 = without Std 10; Std 10+>=Std 10 with a professional qualification]

Post-Independence Reform of Teacher Education:

Teacher education in Namibia had undergone various phases of change in the period before and just after independence. Even before independence the unevenness of the teacher training programmes caused concern. In 1989 SWAPO organised an international conference in Lusaka to discuss teacher

education and the role it needed to play in an independent Namibia. This conference created the first opportunity for teacher educators from both within Namibia and in exile to meet and to discuss the future of teacher education in Namibia. Dahlstrom (1995:279) states that

> *...perhaps the most important aspect of the conference was that it catered for the first major official confrontation between the educational philosophy and practices carried out by SWAPO in exile and representatives from the old establishment, thus preparing the ground for the new system after independence.*

At independence, Namibia inherited not one, but eleven education systems and authorities. "Although they shared a common administrative organisation and orientation, they had different responsibilities, authority, and resources. That system of separation did not provide a foundation for effective integration" (MEC, 1993:28).

The elected government followed a policy of national reconciliation to foster national harmony and mutual understanding to pave the way for effective integration. Those who had belonged to the different ethnic authorities and who had become used to working in unrelated systems, as well as those who had been in exile for many years, were brought together and had to start working together as teams with common goals. In this respect much turbulence was experienced consistent with Bines' and Welton's (1995:4) statement that "...experience has demonstrated [in the UK] that policy often has unintended consequences, not least because it is open to all sorts of interpretation and change during implementation". This was apparent in the Namibian context where, as Dahlström (1995:275) states:

> *The reform process started in a situation where many civil servants from one day to another were supposed to implement a policy in sharp contrast to the old one. Many of these civil servants, with a few significant exceptions, did not appreciate the need for change and were reluctant to administer the new policy and advocated 'improvements' of the old system.*

The 1993 educational statistics (the year in which the BETD

was implemented) show that more than half of the teachers had not attained the credentials required for their positions. The majority of these were Black teachers (EMIS, 1996: 18). The majority of those who were adequately qualified for their positions were from the ranks of the former White, Coloured and Baster ethnic authorities and many of them were resistant to some of the policy changes in education as they perceived the proposed changes and those already in implementation as a lowering of standards and of eroding their privileged positions. This type of reaction to change is consistent with the literature on shifts in privilege and power bases as Tomlinson (1994:5) points out.

After independence and during the transitional period, the legacy of the apartheid system continues to trouble the country. This legacy contains elements of mistrust on both sides: different and differing expectations and perceptions concerning education on the side of the previously disadvantaged majority and on the side of the privileged minority. Thus, two 'societies' with very different expectations and very different perceptions of the new education system and what it can or cannot do for them (Avenstrup and Swarts, 1992).

The Constitution of independent Namibia mandates universal access to primary education. The Namibian Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) however, decided to take this a step further and is committed to provide basic education (grades 1-10) to all Namibians. Basic education in Namibia is intended to become learner-centred education which requires interactive teaching and learning and presupposes certain attitudes in teachers.

Planning for this paradigm shift from a content-based, examination-driven basic education system where only a few could succeed to a learner-centred and democratic system for all, necessitated the transformation and restructuring of the entire educational system. Grounded in the new goals (equity,access, effectiveness, efficiency, democracy), the new system strives to be equally accessible and equitable

for all. It is to be free from bias concerning ethnicity, gender and religion. It is to be efficient and effective and opens up for more community participation in educational affairs (MBEC,1996).

To meet the new expectations and demands in the reformed basic education system, a mere reorganisation and integration of elements of the previous teacher training programmes were neither acceptable nor feasible. An entirely new programme had to be developed to accommodate the new visions, goals, demands, expectations and approach to basic education. Bernstein (1971) argues that for educational change to have any social significance, it has to restructure the way knowledge is organised. Salter and Tapper (1981:21) state in this regard:

> *The key to change, therefore, is to effect a reorganization of those social forces which determine the authority patterns and the structure of knowledge.*

This holds true for both learners and teachers and this made a complete transformation and restructuring necessary. Since teacher educators hold the position of authority and control the structure of knowledge to a certain extent, it was crucial to change them and the ways in which they work. At independence the then Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport (1990:28) reported on the state of teacher education thus:

> *The state of teacher education in the country is similar to education in general: uncoordinated, fragmented, ill-organized and non-uniform. Thus, an in-depth investigation of the pre-service teacher training program was called for.*

As is the case in other countries, the Namibian teachers (within the new paradigm of education) were seen to be both the agents and implementers of change, and thus had to be adequately prepared for the task. The role of the teacher had to be examined very closely in relation to the stated goals and policies and had to be redefined in line with these. The design of the new teacher education programme

rested on the premise that deliberate and conscious interventions were to be made through the teacher educators and the teacher education programme to meet the demands of the new basic education system. Holly and McLoughlin (1989:22) assert in this respect:

> *Since teacher education, whether pre-service or in-service, is the deliberate and conscious effort to intervene in the personal and professional development of an individual or groups of individuals, both ethical and practical considerations require some policy statement to guide practice.Indeed, it is a fundamental professional assumption that effective education programs rest upon a teaching-learning process that is rooted to a consciously developed plan, and that effective education programs in turn rest upon well-developed educational policies.*

Pre-Service Teacher Education:

The diversity of programmes offered before independence, both in Namibia and in exile, provided valuable experiences that could be drawn upon for the development of a new teacher education programme. For example, some programmes proved the importance of providing sufficient depth of subject or subject area knowledge in relation to a specific phase of education, e.g. Lower Primary, Upper Primary. Others demonstrated the importance of exposure to school experience in different ways, while still others concentrated on the development of classroom management skills. Some showed the advantages of having a programme where academic and professional aspects cohered together closely and were balanced in relation to each other. All these programmes raised issues of professionalism and of feasibility, yet none seemed to have been successful in achieving these aims satisfactorily. Thus a completely new programme had to be devised to incorporate the positive elements of some of the previous programmes, to eliminate outdated and ineffective practices and to accommodate the new philosophy and goals of the education system as well as some of the international trends in teacher education which were found to be appropriate for the Namibian context.

The Basic Education Teachers' Diploma (BETD):

The Namibian government committed itself to providing basic education for all Namibians. Teacher preparation for basic education is not seen as the final stage of formal education, nor as the completion of teacher education. In the new paradigm teacher preparation is seen as an initial step in an ongoing process of professional growth and development as a result of the rapidly increasing and changing state of knowledge, and the new and more complex demands that are made on the role and functions of the teacher.

The National Institute for Educational Development (NIED) established in 1991, was mandated by the Ministry to guide and coordinate the design, development and implementation of the BETD. In 1992 the Minister of Education and Culture constituted the Task Force for Pre-Service Teacher Education. The Task Force mandated the overall development of the BETD programme to the Curriculum Coordinating Group (CCG), based in NIED, to operationalise and guide the design and development of the programme. Before the CCG started organising the development of the BETD programme, an in-depth desk study was done of the then existing teacher training programmes in Namibia to ascertain their strengths and weaknesses and to prevent the 'bathwater' syndrome. In addition, team members of the CCG visited teacher education institutions and educational policy units in Botswana, Zimbabwe, Lesotho and South Africa, to familiarise themselves with the teacher education programmes in the sub-region and to link in to trends concerning educational development in the sub-region so as to ensure coherence, compatibility and comparability between the BETD and the programmes offered in the sub-region. The information and data gathered through these efforts as well as contemporary literature on developments in teacher education elsewhere in the world, guided the design and development of the BETD programme.

In consultation with the stakeholders (e.g. University, Colleges, Teachers' Unions, principals of schools, teachers,

non-governmental organisations) the BETD programme was developed. The goal of the programme is to provide a national and common teacher preparation related to the needs of basic education, the educational community and the nation at large. The main aim of the programme is to develop professional expertise and competences for teachers and to enable them "to be fully involved in promoting change in educational reform in Namibia" (MEC, MBEC & MHEVTST: 1994 and 1998). It strives towards some general aims in society, e.g. to foster "understanding and respect for cultural values and beliefs", "social responsibility", "gender awareness and equity". It also strives to inculcate certain attitudes and personal characteristics which are closely related to how learning and teaching situations and processes are organised. These include how to "develop a *reflective attitude* and creative, analytical and *critical thinking*; understanding of learning as an interactive, shared and productive process; and enabling the teacher to meet the needs and abilities of the individual learner" (MEC,1994; MBEC & MHEVTST, 1998). Implementation started in January 1993 with the first intake of BETD students.

Characteristics of the BETD Programme:

The BETD differs in many ways from the programmes offered previously. It has a stronger emphasis on the professional aspects of teacher education, i.e. the pedagogical and social aspects of teaching have a much larger portion in the school-based component of the study. It emphasises learner-centred, *reflective*, analytical and productive methods and approaches in teacher education. The following is a summary of the main characteristics of the BETD:

- it is a unified three-year study for all teachers in basic education, which provides all teachers in basic education a common diploma with the same formal value and status

- it combines a common core foundation with opportunities for specialisation in particular school phases and subject areas

- various types of exposure to classroom situations are closely integrated so that theory and practice can be integrated meaningfully for the benefit of the student

- it provides a constructivist perspective on learning and a learner-centred approach building on the real needs in schools

- student teachers are expected to go through the types of learning processes that they will have to facilitate for their learners

- much emphasis is placed on the school-based studies component, as school-based studies is organised in such a way as to create opportunities for *the development of reflection*

- *critical inquiry* (including action research) serves as a way to take the change process into the classrooms at colleges and at schools and to create a new official knowledge base

- it creates opportunities for students to become self confident, self-reliant, critical and knowledgeable professionals who will be able to deal with the realities of the educational system. (Summarised from the BETD Broad Curriculum, MEC, 1994)
  (See Appendix B for the aims of the BETD)

The BETD Curriculum states that the teacher educator has a flexible role as teacher, instructor, tutor, counselor, enabler and mentor. The student teacher is provided with opportunities to create and develop projects and materials within areas of the study leading to higher cognitive skills such as *analysis, reflection, synthesis, and 'research' and evaluation related to practical experience.* On this issue, Pring contends (quoted from Bines and Welton, 1995:46) that the main activity of pre-service training is, "...first and foremost, learning about the practice of teaching. The

key questions are: how best do trainee teachers learn and what is it that they need to learn?" These questions received careful scrutiny in the design and development of the programme.

The BETD programme adopts different methods of teaching to ensure that student teachers are provided with the opportunities to learn suited best to their ways of learning. Pring (1995:46-7) elaborates on this point:

> *One reason why there cannot be simple answers to those questions [how and what?] is that different [student] teachers, like the children they teach, will learn in different ways. They adopt different learning styles. Furthermore, like the children they teach, they start from different places. They come with different conceptions of the tasks, of the values to be imparted, of the nature of the subject matter to be taught, of their own talents and weaknesses, of how children learn and of what is worthwhile learning. Finally, therefore, there can be no ready-made theory upon which practice might be based or on exactly how trainee teachers should be trained. That, therefore, leads us to the formulation of one important principle which should govern the training of teachers, namely, that it should be so organised as to enable and to encourage the learning teacher to explore, to formulate and to test out ideas of what is worth learning and how it might be learnt.*

The BETD programme has been designed to take cognisance of the different ways in which students learn, the fact that they all bring different experiences, different conceptions and values and their own strengths and weaknesses into the learning situation. The design of the programme allows for the learning of student teachers to be organised so as to enable and to encourage the learning teacher to explore, to formulate and to test out ideas. It is through the design and the implementation that the desired outcome of reflective practice and critical inquiry will be achieved. However, much of the success for this lies with the way in which teacher educators conceptualise, interpret, understand and as a result of these, implement the programme. In order to assist the teacher educators to interpret, understand and implement the programme, the Ministry placed Reform Facilitators at each college. The Teacher Education Reform

Programme (TERP) Project supporting the BETD Programme recruited mostly expatriate Reform Facilitators on the basis of their expertise in and experience of teacher education in a learner-centred paradigm. Successful implementation also depends on the support received from the Ministry to create the necessary pre-conditions, e.g. through professional development for teacher educators through which they themselves can become reflective practitioners.

In comparison to the previous teacher training programmes, it is in the area of assessment and evaluation that the BETD differs most from the others. In line with the basic education system, the principle of positive achievement is used to assess what student teachers know, understand and can do. The principle of positive achievement entails a variety of assessment techniques, counselling and remedial assistance.

After independence the Ministry embarked on a policy whereby the four colleges of education at Windhoek, Ongwediva, Rundu and Katima Mulilo would offer the BETD programme for teachers wanting to teach in the basic education phases, and the University of Namibia would offer programmes preparing teachers for the senior secondary phase.

In-Service Teacher Education:

At independence 67.5% of the serving teachers were not appropriately qualified for the positions they held. The majority of these teachers were Black teachers who were teaching without professional qualifications or who had obtained some professional qualifications inadequate for the work they were expected to perform. There was a heavy demand for more teachers, but the ablest were leaving for new jobs in government and commerce as predicted by Ellis (1984:64). Most of the teachers with no or very limited professional training were placed at the lower primary phase.

After independence a two-pronged programme for in-service teacher education was developed to address the needs of serving teachers with regards to the upgrading of professional qualifications and proficiency in English as English became the medium of instruction from grade 4 upwards. The orientation towards the new philosophy and goals of education and a continuous development component to keep abreast of contemporary developments in education became key aspects. The foundations for this programme were laid by the Working Group on In-Service Teacher Education, which produced the Five Year Plan for Teacher Improvement in September 1991 (MEC, 1991). Since most of the teachers and teacher educators at independence were educated and trained according to the old paradigm of education, it was necessary to attempt to orient all serving teachers and teacher educators towards the new paradigm and to incorporate notions such as reflective practice, critical practitioner inquiry and learner-centred education into the programme. In this regard the Ministry expressed itself in the following way what teachers had to be oriented and educated for:

> *Currently, teaching methods in our schools tend to foster memorisation and rote repetition. But to address the problems we face and to lay the foundation for a self-reliant and prosperous Namibia we need our young people to go beyond relying on what they have read or been told. Indeed, learning is more than memorising and repeating. Our children need to think independently and critically. They must identify strategies for identifying, analysing, and solving problems.*
> (MEC, 1993:119)

To support and to provide the necessary infrastructure for in-service teacher education activities, a national network of Teachers' Resource Centres (TRCs) was established. There are centres in all seven of the educational regions and they serve as the focal point for decentralised teacher education activities which take two forms: (1) ad hoc curriculum implementation courses to introduce new syllabuses into the schools as part of the transformation and reform of the education system, and (2) the comprehensive in-service programme (based on the same principles and premises of the pre-service BETD) to upgrade teacher qualifications,

provide proficiency in English and orient teachers towards the philosophy of learner-centred education. The initial implementation of the in-service programme in Namibia differs in context from the in-service or professional development programmes of Western countries as the focus is entirely (during the initial stages after independence at least) on upgrading the teacher qualifications of those teachers with no or inadequate professional qualifications.

Before independence very few Black teachers received in-service teacher education as shown by the survey of serving teachers' needs done in 1991 (MEC, 1991). As was the trend elsewhere, e.g. in the U.S.A., the few ad hoc in-service courses which were offered before independence, were offered in isolation from the pre-service programmes and the colleges. Bernier and McClelland (in Holly and McLoughlin, 1989:34) comment on this issue in the USA context in the following way:

> *...the view that successful completion of a pre-service teacher education program provides an individual with the status and knowledge required to be a teacher. A correlate of this assumption is that such a status, once achieved, will establish positional authority for the duration of one's career. This assumption is rooted to the distinction between pre-service and in-service education. Because of the manner in which teacher education developed in the USA, with focus on the accreditation of teacher education pre-service programs within college and university settings, and the licensing of students upon completion of pre-service teacher education programs, the link between pre-service and in-service education has been tenuous. Even in those cases where teacher educators provide in-service educational programs either in the university setting or in the school, programs generally remain organizationally and conceptually separate from pre-service activities.*

These assumptions certainly held true in Namibia just before and immediately after independence with pre-service teacher education perceived as terminal studies and the notion of education as an on-going and lifelong process as alien. The provision of in-service teacher education and thus the accreditation and qualification received through it was

also perceived as inferior to pre-service teacher education. In this respect the philosophy of education after independence, as well as the approaches adopted and the great need for in-service education, has levelled the playing field towards a more positive approach towards in-service education.

The Namibian model of in-service teacher education strives to link the in-service programme as closely as possible to classroom practice by providing the teachers with the same type of experiences they are expected to provide to their learners and by making all projects and assignments classroom-based and as practical as possible. (See Appendix C: Competencies for the BETD In-Service Programme). Practice-based inquiry, including action research, constitutes an important component of the study. The Ministry developed a support scheme to reach teachers close to where they work and also to reach them in their classrooms and through their colleagues through the cluster system. The clusters are supported by inspectors, advisory teachers and resource teachers. In the more populous regions the clusters are organised along circuit inspection demarcations to facilitate communication, while in the sparsely populated regions the clusters are organised differently.

The in-service BETD is decentralised and delivered at the TRCs through tutors trained and oriented by NIED and the colleges, as the philosophy, goals and main principles are the same for both the pre-service and in-service programmes. A decentralised system of field supervision supports the delivery of the in-service BETD.

As in the other parts of the education system, at independence the major immediate task was to reduce the inequalities of the past by providing opportunities for teachers to develop professionally, in line with the principle of life-long learning. New platforms of opportunities had to be created and new institutional arrangements made to suit the emerging circumstances and aspirations. The next chapter reviews

the literature on transformation, restructuring, reform and change. The policies and processes of transformation, restructuring and reform of the system in general, and teacher education in particular, will be discussed in the light of the necessity to provide opportunities, establish platforms and shape new institutional arrangements in order to achieve the goals of education.

CHAPTER 4

TRANSFORMATION, RESTRUCTURING, REFORM AND CHANGE: THEORIES AND CRITIQUE OF THEORIES

Introduction

> *Changes can be proclaimed in official policy, or written authoritatively on paper. Change can look impressive when represented in the boxes and arrows of administrators' overheads, or enumerated as stages in evolutionary profiles of school growth. But changes of this kind are ... superficial. They do not strike at the heart of how children learn and how teachers teach. They achieve little more than trivial changes in practice. Neither do changes of buildings (like open-plan ones), textbooks, materials, technology (like computers), nor even student groupings (as in mixed-ability groups) unless profound attention is paid to processes of teacher development that accompany these innovations. The involvement of teachers in educational change is vital to its success, especially if the change is complex and is to affect many settings over long periods of time.*
> (Hargreaves,1994:10-11)

This chapter deals with the literature and theories on *transformation, restructuring, reform,* and *change*. It attempts to link developments in other countries to developments in Southern Africa and in particular to Namibia, while critiquing and analysing them to explore their applicability in the Southern African and Namibian context. The study takes cognisance of the Western starting point of the literature, and where applicable, will point out the similarities or dissimilarities between Western and African thought and theory. However, it must be borne in mind that Namibia, like South Africa, is a society of 'two worlds': the first and the third world. Therefore, many of the theories and ideas from the Western perspective can be made applicable to the Namibian situation since like in other colonised societies, Namibia inherited a Western-orientated schooling system. Furthermore, all societies whether Western or African, share some common features.

The research is concerned with the study of the process of transforming teacher education in Namibia. It examines policies and practices which are attempting to move teachers from a content-based, examination-driven curriculum for a few in a segregated system, to a learner-centred curriculum in a unified and integrated basic education system. It explores the involvement of teachers in the processes of transformation and change. It also investigates the policies and strategies to achieve the desired change; the complexity of transformation and change as they manifest themselves in the Namibian context and the meaning of the transformation and change in different settings over a period of time. In this chapter literature representing both the Namibian views and perspectives and those of the international educational fraternity on transformation and change, are reviewed in order to explore and explain developments in Namibia.

The areas to be explored, investigated and analysed in detail are:

1. the processes of transformation, restructuring and reform at the different levels of the education system, i.e. from macro to micro levels: from the bureaucratic and central head office to individual colleges and schools;

2. the process of change as manifested explicitly and implicitly in the stated goals and policies for educational development, pre- and post-independence, with particular reference to teacher education;

3. the construction of contrasting models of professional practice from the pre-independence content-based teacher training to the post-independence emphasis on developing reflective practice; and

4. the outcome of the new teacher education policy as shown in the development of reflective practice in the

three groups of student teachers described earlier.

At independence the government embarked on a policy of reconciliation to facilitate nation building and the healing of the wounds of apartheid. In independent Namibia the suspicions, cultural and ethnic boundaries and traditions that separated people, are gradually being removed and the different ethnic groups are being enabled to learn to live and work together in constructive ways. However, the damage done by the apartheid policies and the suspicions and mistrust created by them, have made the processes of transformation, restructuring and change even more complex and difficult than usual. This is compounded by the fact that education is bound to change in the full glare of the public eye as Hargreaves (1994:5) points out:

> *Few people want to do much about the economy, but everyone - politicians, the media and the public alike - wants to do something about education.*

Transformation

> *The task of transformation is greater than reconstructing the systems and structures which sustain any society. It requires a fundamental shift in attitudes, in the way people relate to each other and their environment, and in the way resources are deployed to achieve society's goals.*
> (Department of Education, SA,1996:11).

The entire Namibian education system had to be transformed to meet the demands, challenges and needs of the newly independent nation and to reflect the new philosophy and approach to education. After independence education was seen to be central to nation building and the development of society. Transformation of the education system thus had to influence and make a contribution to societal reform and had to be comprehensive both vertically - from classroom, to circuit, to district, to region to the national level as well as horizontally, incorporating more holistic elements of reform within each level and at all levels. The transformation was embarked upon to completely overhaul the system and to move away from the apartheid legacy of a content-based, examination-driven system for elites to a

learner-centred, democratic system for all. The pressures for the transformation of the Namibian society as a whole, came from the disadvantaged majority. The government thus received the mandate to embark on the transformation, also in the educational arena. The education system had to be transformed in such a way that the legacy of apartheid could be diminished and eliminated in the shortest possible time and in the most effective manner, to foster certain attitudes and cultures that would make a 'going back' to the pre-independence segregated system unthinkable.

The Ministry of Education and Culture undertook its task in this regard both carefully and as a matter of urgency. The caution is apparent in the surveys and studies carried out in the different fields e.g. Commission on Higher Education (1990); evaluation of literacy and non-formal programmes (1990); extensive consultation on the code of conduct for schools (1990); in-service training needs of teachers (1991); investigation into vocational and technical education (1991); and in the development of the language policy (1990-1992). The urgency manifested itself in the speed with which some changes were implemented and through the ministerial directives issued over a period of time e.g. Education in Transition: Nurturing Our Future (1990); Change with Continuity: Education Reform Directive (1990); The National Integrated Education System for Emergent Namibia: Draft Proposals for Education Reform and Renewal (1990); Education and Culture in Namibia: The Way Forward to 1996 (1991); Language Policy for Schools 1992 -96: Explanatory and Information Statement by the Ministry of Education and Culture (1991); Basic Education in Namibia: A Framework for Nation Building to the year 2000 and Beyond (1992).

The transformation process is fraught with difficulties, inconsistencies and contradictions - it is also very complex (as are all such processes involving systemic change) because of the way in which the Namibian society was structured, divided and compartementalised. Dias (Melber,1997:68) holds

the view that the process of transformation is a "dialectical, conflict-ridden and ambiguous one". Because of the immense pressure for quick and comprehensive change, the government and the Ministry had to plan and implement change quickly. It also had to establish a culture of democratic collaboration and maintaining flexibility in the face of an ever 'moving mosaic' (Hargreaves, 1994). Hargreaves (1994:62), in referring to corporate management and organisational change, has the following to say:

> *Structures, roles and responsibilities created for one set of purposes during the organization's development tend to solidify and become unable to adapt to new purposes and opportunities as they arise. New challenges are either ignored, diverted into existing (and often inappropriate) departmental structures, or dealt with by adding yet more departments and responsibilities in a way that only makes the overall organization even more complex and cumbersome.*

The Ministry of Education and Culture was faced with the dilemma that while it was recreating new structures, roles and responsibilities as well as trying to make the organisation more transparent, more flexible and less complex and cumbersome, as the 'set of purposes' had changed, it also had to ensure that the newly created structures, roles and responsibilities did not 'solidify' as the situation had to remain fluid for some time in order to explore, architect and chart the official policies and strategies. This situation led to problems of misunderstanding and confusion. This reflects the situation as described in the literature on transformation, restructuring, reform and change. Fullan (1993:27) contends that conflict is essential to any successful change effort as people "spark new ideas off each other when they argue and disagree - when they are conflicting, confused, and searching for new meaning...". Saul (quoted from Fullan,1993:27) observes that the " proper way to deal with confusion is to increase that confusion by asking uncomfortable questions until the source of the difficulties is exposed".

Fullan (1993:20) further propounds the view that since

change/transformation "in dynamically complex circumstances is non-linear, we cannot predict or guide the process with any precision". Dalin and Rust (1996:29) support this view when they state that Europeans and North Americans are experiencing the most important period of change in this century. According to them never has it been more difficult to anticipate and predict. According to Ellis (1996:261) this is also true of Africa as demonstrated by recent social,economic and political developments which may amount to a major historical shift. This supports the rationale of the Ministry not to have the process of transformation fully worked out beforehand although the framework was established through the Constitution and the goals of the system, but to discover 'through the journey itself' and to make 'new maps' as the landscape unfolded. It was necessary for the Ministry to, consistent with what appears in the literature (Fullan,1991b:83), adapt its plans as it went along to "improve the fit between the change and conditions ... to take advantage of unexpected developments and opportunities". According to Fullan (1991b:66-7) effective approaches to managing change include

> *combining and balancing factors that do not apparently go together - simultaneous simplicity-complexity, looseness-tightness, strong leadership-participation (or simultaneous bottom up-top downness), fidelity-adaptivity, and evaluation-nonevaluation.*

He lists ,among others (Fullan 1993:21-2), the following lessons to be borne in mind when attempting to effect transformation, which represents change at the systemic and macro-level:

- change is a journey, not a blueprint, i.e. transformations are so multi-faceted and complex that solutions for particular settings cannot be known in advance;

- in the process of transformation problems are to be expected, and in fact to be regarded as friends as in such a process problems are inevitable and provide opportunities for learning to take place, provided there

is a capacity for inquiry to learn the right lessons;

- vision and strategic planning come later as shared vision must evolve through the dynamic interaction of the players;

- neither centralisation nor decentralisation works, as the centre and local units need to complement and support each other for the change to have any substantive effect;

- connection with the wider environment is critical, since expectations and tensions in the environment contain the seeds of future development;

- every person is a change agent as individual change agents can form the critical mass to bring about the desired transformation.

In the process, as change accelerates, innovation multiplies in such a complex and multi-layered organisation like the Ministry. The time-frames expected for decision-making become more compressed as the organisation tends to experience overload, anxiety, stress and burnout. The results of such a situation sometimes can be bad decisions, hasty decisions or no decisions at all - all of which had been experienced in the transformation process in Namibia to a lesser or larger extent.

In very volatile post-independence conditions, the Ministry had to simultaneously 'impose' comprehensive, systemic changes, affecting all levels: from the classroom level to the head office level. Although the Ministry has democratic participation as one of its major goals, the 'root changes' which lie at the heart of the transformation (Hargreaves, 1994:6) were non-negotiable. At the macro level the change had a multiple, mandated character and, because of the wide sweep of its legislative authority, it was bound to exert immense influence. The mandated character of the transformation was necessitated by the legacy of apartheid and the policy of national reconciliation after independence.

The needs of Namibian education at independence were so extensive and so pervasive that, in order to minimise resistance, the transformation had to be mandated and certain principles had to become non-negotiable and entrenched in legislation. The Government of Namibia, represented by the President at the Etosha Conference in 1991, which lay the foundation for the reform of the system, took the following stance:

> *The nature of the education system that we inherited is such that it can only be be remedied by reform, by a complete overhaul of the system, starting from below. ... It is grossly discriminatory, both in content and in the facilities made available to various communities. ... It is racially stratified, giving qualitatively better education to few and neglecting the majority, by making them perpetual servants of ignorance; and for the majority it is a contribution of Bantu Education, which was meant to make the African a better domesticated servant for the white masters.*
>
> *The motivating force behind the Etosha Conference is our supreme law itself. Cognizant of the nature of the inherited education system, it implies that educational reform of a very substantial nature must be made in order to guarantee every Namibian equal access to a quality basic education by the year 2000. My Government, and thus the Ministry of Education and Culture, sees its highest obligation as reforming the existing educational processes, so as to put the Constitution into effect throughout Namibia.*
> (Snyder, 1991: 4-5)

The Minister of Education and Culture at the same conference, in providing the framework for the reform, sketched the situation thus, thereby legitimating the wide sweeping changes to be effected and the mandated nature of such changes:

> *As far as the participants in the reform process are concerned, there are three broad positions: one, sceptical, unbelieving and apprehensive; another, enthusiastic but suspicious; and a wide minority that is, by and large, ambivalent, but holds the view of wait and see. The apprehensive group feels threatened... Therefore, in order to address the concerns of all groups, the imperatives for the reform process are to provide measures of educational security, operational confidence, and motivational impetus.*
> (Snyder,1991:9)

The issues to be addressed by the reform were identified by the Minister as issues of equity and equal opportunity; improvement of learning and learning outcomes ; reduction of wastage as a result of high drop out rates, high repetition rates, and low academic features. He framed these issues in the following way:

> *Educational provision in our New Republic is a polarity: on the one end of the pole are schools of the former white administration; on the other end are black townships and rural schools. The former white schools are perceived to be expensive and elaborate in upkeep, extravagant in design, and utopian in their aspirations. The black schools are, by and large, inadequate in classroom space, decrepit, and dilapidated in their outlook. Namibian education is a tale of two worlds: one black, bleak, and deprived; the other, white, rich, and comfortable.*
> (Ibid,7)

This multi-level mandated change with its wide legislative base and tremendous influence is referred to in the study as transformation, since it involves normative national and broad structural changes (Dalin and Rust, 1996:4). The transformation process had to be mandated and legitimised by legislation so as to prevent mere accommodation or just cosmetic change in the light of the Namibian history. Sarason (1990:35) holds the view that

> *the strength of the status quo - its underlying axioms, its pattern of power relationships, its sense of tradition and therefore what seems right, natural, and proper - almost automatically rules out options for change in that status quo.*

This view supports the conscious policy stance taken by the Ministry to ensure that the transformation would in fact change the status quo from assumption of 'right', 'natural' and 'proper' for the Whites to have had certain privileges denied the other groups. To many members of the Black and Coloured communities, the status quo had also meant that it had seemed 'right' and 'proper' for the Whites to have had these privileges as they were conditioned by the system and its traditions to accept less and to be satisfied with less than the Whites. This theory is borne out by Jones (1993:11) in the following way:

> *Where a society is unequal, the only way it can survive is if those who are disadvantaged in it come to accept deprivation. ... Structures of inequality can also survive - and with a surer future - if those most disadvantaged by them can somehow be prevented from seeing themselves as underprivileged. Or, if they do recognise it, if they can be persuaded that this is fair enough - rightful, legitimate and just.*

Restructuring

From the literature reviewed on restructuring (Hargreaves,1994, Fullan 1991 and 1993; Sarason 1990), it is clear that restructuring has no single, agreed meaning. Its meaning is to be found in its purpose and context. Hargreaves (1994:260) holds the view that

> *The challenge of restructuring in education and elsewhere is a challenge of abandoning or attenuating bureaucratic controls, inflexible mandates, paternalistic forms of trust and quick system fixes in order to hear, articulate and bring together the disparate voices of teachers and other educational partners.*

Sarason (1990:5) argues that major educational change is unlikely to be successful unless it addresses school power relationships. He states that schools "... remain intractable to desired reform as long as we avoid confronting their existing power relationships". This holds true not only for schools, but also for any organisation trying to implement 'root changes'.

In the study the term structure is used in the sociological sense to include organisational arrangements, roles, finance and governance, and formal policies that explicitly build in working conditions that either constrain change or improvement, or facilitate and support change. According to Fritz (Sparks and Hirsh, 1997:7) structures achieve their power in organisations through their influence on human behaviour. Restructuring is discussed from the perspective that the most important influence in social life is the distribution of advantage, and its impact on behaviour (Jones, 1993:9). This perspective is particularly illustrative of the Namibian society in which advantages and privileges were unequally distributed and held mainly

by the White minority ('white, rich, and comfortable'). These advantages enabled the minority to enjoy privileges from which the majority were excluded by virtue of their colour. This had a tremendous impact on the quality of education as illustrated by the tables on teacher qualifications in chapter 3, and for many black learners brought a premature end to their education which in turn perpetuated and reinforced the cycle of disadvantage. This scenario is not confined to the Namibian situation, as is described by Zeichner (1996:210):

> *It has become very clear in many countries that the gap between the concept of democracy and the reality of domination and oppression is growing greater. In the United States, there is irrefutable evidence that social-class background, race, gender, sexual orientation, and so on, continue to play strong roles in determining access to a variety of things in addition to quality education...*

However, another perspective arose out of the study, i.e. that the minority were also 'disadvantaged' by their advantaged position, in the sense that they were less flexible, less resilient and less able (in many instances) to cope with the changes after independence and therefore suffered more stress, e.g. the teacher educators at the Windhoek College of Education. They were, as a result of their advantage, "constrained by the norms and values they have learnt via socialisation" (Jones, 1993:10).

However, the inequality in the Namibian society, while primarily based on ethnicity, was not confined to colour. Women in Namibia and rural dwellers were also disadvantaged in terms of unequal occupational opportunity and unequal economic reward based on gender and remoteness. While the colonial regime was fighting Marxism on the one hand, it was actively making Marxist ideology popular with majority in the way in which it was exploiting the bulk of the population, rendering them grossly unequal and disadvantaged.

Althusser (Jones,1993) argues that the state exercises power through a political apparatus ('oppressive state apparatus') alongside which runs an ideological one ('ideological state

apparatus'). These two structures are layered and interconnected and dominance of the one or the other prevails at different times. According to Althusser education has become the ideological instrument of oppression in modern times. This was reflected by the state of Namibian education at independence where the colonial educational system fostered high failure rates, high drop out rates and high repetition rates for the black learners to keep the black majority oppressed in order to maintain economic, political and ideological dominance. This situation could not be allowed to continue after independence. It was clear that transformation or reform could not be brought about with the colonial structures as they would inhibit and even prevent change. This is consistent with Aron's view (1996:111) that institutions are the products of their environment and that the negative impact of past distortions will persist. Giddens (1987) developed the theory of 'structuration' which embraces the notion of the 'duality of structure'. According to this notion structures constrain and determine certain forms of behaviour but can also enable behaviour. In recognition of this notion, as well as to implement the principles of the Constitution e.g. equality and justice, the Government of Namibia had to restructure the educational system. However, this had to be done based on the policy of national reconciliation and the agreements made with the Western Five to guarantee job security for the white civil servants.

As much out of economic necessity as of political pressure, the eleven ethnic educational authorities had to be restructured after independence into a unified Ministry of Education and Culture. The Ministry combined the bureaucracies of the eleven ethnic administrations into one large bureacratic organisation. Hargreaves (1994:243) contends in the context of schools, but also appropriate for the Ministry, that restructuring "... is commonly used to re-define and re-label traditional, outmoded and ineffective patterns of managed change". The effects of the restructuring cannot as yet be measured and evaluated fully, as the patterns are diverse, the outcomes still unclear,

and the challenges as well as possibilities still emerging with every step. In addition, the Ministry had been rationalised twice and a bifurcation took place in 1995 to create two Ministries of Education; one to look after basic education to fulfil the constitutional obligation, and the other to take care of higher education and vocational education.

According to Fullan (1993) and Nelson and Hammerman (1996:11) if change is to become a permanent part of organisational life, in addition to restructuring, there also needs to be a 'reculturing' of the organisation. Deming (Jenkins,1994:218) states in this respect:

> *Research shows that the climate of an organization influences an individual's contribution far more than the individual himself. The way people work together is what produces excellence.*

The reculturing will involve not only new organograms, new job categories, new procedures, and new regulations, but also new conceptual frames, new groupings of tasks, new ways of communicating, new relationships and new ways of dealing with tasks. In essence a new paradigm is needed, underpinned by new assumptions. The change process, however, is more than a list of assumptions that underlie a new paradigm. Jenkins (1994:218) states that it is a much more complicated process, and therefore lasting institutional change requires a more thoughtful approach:

> *Lasting change is a process that is built on reflection. It is not the latest buzzword written large or the newest piece of educational jargon. Paradigm shifting is tough work.*
>
> *A paradigm shift seems easier to write about and talk about but decidedly more difficult to realize. Our social conditioning as educators is a powerful predictor of our practices, and our social conditioning is deeply ingrained. Questioning the assumptions of the old paradigm seems the initial step in the process.*

The new paradigm will have to inform the need to clarify individual and collective thinking in order to lead to a shared understanding of the goals to be achieved by the

organisation so that everyone can play his/her part. Within the new paradigm of education in Namibia the restructuring, in intent at least, places a strong focus on the education of all learners, especially those who have been ineffectively served in the past, and attempts to reorganise the entire bureaucracy for that purpose.

Ferguson (Madsen, 1994:67) believes that in large administrative structures, information is passed along bureaucratic channels and is selectively screened by people within such organisations as a result of resistance. According to Weber (Madsen,1994:67) a bureaucracy is supposed to be an efficient model which creates experts who make technically correct, rational decisions based on facts. Once these rational decisions are made, the hierarchy ensures disciplined compliance with directives to establish a well coordinated, stable system for uniform implementation. However, this supposition still has to manifest itself in the Namibian context - mainly because the Ministry is a bureaucracy in transition attempting to establish a corporate culture embracing both individualism which is a Western concept and collectivism, an African concept. There are also several other factors mitigating against efficiency, rational decisions, disciplined compliance and a well coordinated and stable system at this stage in the process. The once stable structures of the ethnic administrations were completely uprooted and combined into a unified Ministry with new visions, a new agenda, new programmes which had a different philosophical intent, new ideologies underpinning this philosophy, and new goals. The Ministry (MEC, 1993:29) in its policy document Toward Education for All, commented in the following way on the process:

> *Those who had belonged to the different authorities, and who had become used to working in unrelated systems, were brought together. They had to start work together as a team with a common goal, attending to the needs of all the learners.*
>
> *Our current education system is transitional. We intend to retain the best features of the old system even as we reject its discriminatory and divisive organisation. We have a vision of the future we*

seek to reach - a vision that we regularly refine - and we have some ideas about how to get there. We are committed to a thorough overhaul of the education system we inherited. But we also know that the obstacles and distractions are many, and that it will take us time to reach our goals.

One of the major components to ensure effective restructuring is, according to Hargreaves (1994:244-5), the principle of collaboration. He writes in this respect:

> *One of the emergent and most promising metaparadigms of the postmodern age is that of* ***collaboration*** *as an articulating and integrating principle of action, planning, culture, development, organization and research.*

Hargreaves argues that the principle of collaboration repeatedly, in the exploration of change, emerges as "a productive response to a world in which problems are unpredictable, solutions are unclear, and demands and expectations are intensifying" (ibid:245). This argument is supportive of the situation in which the Ministry has found itself in the last few years; a situation that will continue for some time to come.

He further argues, that in the context of restructuring and of educational improvement, collaboration provides promising approaches to success through the application of the principles of:

- Moral support which allows people to share and air anxieties and can carry them through failure and frustrations.

- Increased efficiency which minimises and/or eliminates duplication as activities are coordinated.

- Improved effectiveness, as collaboration engenders a spirit of cooperation, boosts confidence and provides increased senses of efficacy.

- Reduced overload, as collaboration permits sharing of burdens and pressures and prevents people from feeling isolated.

- Synchronised time perspectives permits communication and participation in common activities and creates shared and realistic expectations about timelines.

- Situated certainty, as collaboration creates 'collective professional confidence'.

- Political assertiveness, as collaboration enables those involved to interact more confidently and assertively with their surrounding systems.

- Increased capacity for reflection, as collaboration provides sources of feedback and comparison which can lead to critical reflection.

- Organizational responsiveness, as collaboration pools the collected knowledge, expertise and capacities of those involved.

- Opportunities to learn, as collaboration provides powerful sources of professional learning.

- Continuous improvement, as collaboration encourages participants to see change not as a task completed, but as a process of continuous improvement.

In Hargreaves' opinion one of the key tensions in restructuring and in collaborative work is between vision and voice. To place exclusive emphasis on vision or voice alone is not constructive for restructuring or for professional development. A balance has to be struck between the two as a world of "voice without vision is a world reduced to chaotic babble where there are no means for arbitrating between voices, reconciling them or drawing them together". Similarly, a world of vision without voice is problematic as visions can sometimes be repressive rather than enlightening. A major challenge for educational restructuring is thus to work through, reflect on and reconcile this tension between vision and voice - "...to create a choir from a cacophony" (1994:251).

Hargreaves, however, warns that collaboration can also carry dangers, "in ways that can be wasteful, harmful and unproductive." The dangers he refers to are those in which collaboration are: (1) comfortable and complacent, (2) conformist, (3) contrived, and (4) co-optative. He further warns that in view of

> *...differing and often conflicting understandings, it is important to be clear about what the key principles and purposes of restructuring are and to ensure, for instance, that restructuring efforts do seriously try to disestablish the traditional structures of schooling; and do redefine relationships...*
> (Ibid:243)

To a large extent the educational system in Namibia had to concentrate its restructuring efforts on the 'disestablishment' of traditional structures in a period of suspicion and mistrust. This complicated the process, created tensions and conflict and as a result created delays. However, as Hargreaves points out (ibid:261):

> *Restructuring is not an end to our problems but a beginning; a chance to set new rules for new purposes and new learnings in a newly constructed world.*

Reform

In the context of this study, reform has been defined to convey moral elements. The apartheid ideology and policies which provided privilege to a small minority, discriminated against people on the basis of their skin colour, and disenfranchised the majority of the people of Namibia, made itself guilty of 'abuses', 'political and legal malpractices' and was 'reprehensible'. In the context of moving away from this ideology to another, reform of the education system will be described. In this respect those changes that led to improvement of the system will be discussed under the term 'reform'. However, the distinction between 'transformation' and 'reform' will not be as clear cut as the distinction between 'transformation' and 'restructuring' as there will be overlapping elements between them. This difficulty is compounded by the fact that in contemporary literature on educational change these terms

are used as synonyms, which makes it necessary to redefine the usage of the terms. For the purpose of this study, therefore, the term 'reform' is used for the developments and processes in teacher education aimed at improving programmes and practices since independence. This is discussed and analysed within the broader framework of the transformation of society and the educational system, and the restructuring of the Ministry and the institutions located within the Ministry.

Fullan (1991:15) warns that new programmes may not necessarily help improve the situation and that education and educational reform should not be seen as the panacea to society's problems. He also points out the relationship between educational reform and societal reform and states that educational reform is no substitute for societal reform, but it can influence and contribute to societal reform. It was the intention of the Government of Namibia that education should take the lead in nationbuilding and national development. The President of Namibia (Snyder,1991:5) made it clear that reforming the educational system was an imperative for putting the constitution into effect throughout Namibia. Not only is education seen as a fundamental human right, but also as a requirement for politico-socio-economic development, and crucial for improving the welfare of the individual, enabling him/her to make a meaningful contribution to society at large. This principle is reflected in the intention and spirit of the educational reform in Namibia, and manifests itself in many statements. The Development Brief (MEC, 1993:19) states in this respect:

> *Education is both an investment in our future and our right as citizens. Unless we make the investment, we will not have the right.*

Bernier and McClelland (in Holly and McLoughlin, 1989) state that education is not only a social activity, but also a profoundly political one. It is in the political arena that the decisions and policies concerning

transformation, restructuring and reform are made. Mambo (Snyder,1991:83) holds the following view in this regard:

> *Education assumes an important function in any society, not only because of its perceived role in national development, and the demand placed on it by students and parents, but also because of its political nature. In almost all instances, colonialists have maintained political and economic advantage through manipulation of the education system. It is this political nature of education which brings to the fore questions of equity, equal access, and equal opportunity, and the distribution of both human and material resources among various groups and classes in society.*

Sarason (1990) advises that the different components of educational reform should be treated as a whole, in their interrelationships, as a complex system, and therefore patterns of educational reform should be systemic and interconnected.

Teacher education is a system within a larger system and any changes within the realm of teacher education must therefore be reliant on the same principles that guide the reform of the larger system. All systems of teacher education must meet certain demands which have to be taken into consideration (within the specific context) when a reform is to be executed. According to Andersson et al (1991:3-4) the demands of teacher education include i.a.:

- providing the educational sector with a sufficient number of trained teachers

- correspondence to the school system , i.e. the content of teacher education must have an elaborated relation to the curriculum of the school

- providing the schools with teachers adequately qualified (for the context) both in subject knowledge and in pedagogy

- definition of the teaching career in relation to other career systems within the society

- close relationship between pre-service training and continuous in-service training,which implies simultaneous and coordinated actions in both the sectors

- national character, which implies reflection of national characteristics culturally, traditionally, politically and economically.

A study of the pre-independence teacher training programmes reveals that they met few of these demands: none of them were national in character as they each prepared teachers for ethnic authorities; only one of them showed a semblance of a relationship with in-service training; they showed very little correspondence to the school system; those aimed at the coloured and black teachers structurally embedded underqualification; and they never were able to produce a sufficient number of trained teachers. It is based on these findings that Andersson et al (1991:5) state:

> *The problems of teacher education in Namibia and the often stated necessity to reform teacher education in Namibia do not only stem from the fact that Namibia has gained independence. We hold that the earlier system of teacher education in Namibia was highly inefficient also in relation to the school system. A high number of teachers were and are not formally qualified in terms of the earlier requirements, the rates of student failure in teacher education were (and are) abysmally high, the quality of teacher training varied very much within the country etc. ... The need to reform is to a large extent due to the failures of the earlier system to meet even its own standards. No strong political interest was demonstrated, nor any far-reaching initiatives taken during South African rule to deal with the problems of schooling and teacher education. It might be stated that Namibian independence was a pre-requisite to make changes possible to implement.*

Fullan (1993:46) is of the view that there are two basic reasons why educational reform must fail:

> *One is that the problems are complex and intractable. Workable, powerful solutions are hard to conceive*

> *and even harder to put into practice. The other reason is that the strategies that are used do not focus on things that will really make a difference. They fail to address fundamental instructional reform and associated development of new collaborative cultures among educators.*

Fullan's view can be applied to the Namibian situation where it was, and still is hard to put solutions into practice because of the complicated and fragmented nature of society at large and the colleges as microcosms of the larger society. The paradigm shift had to be brought about in a hostile and resistant environment as many administrators and teacher educators, because of their habits, skills, beliefs and norms, found the changes difficult to come to grips with. The Development Brief (1993:21) acknowledges some of the problems in the following way:

> *Societal expectations remain sharply divided. On the one hand, the majority marginalised in the old system demands the redress of unequal allocations and social disadvantages: education for all. On the other hand, there persists concern, even fear, among the privileged minority that this redress may lead to declining quality in education and other adverse effects for them and their children.*

However, the study will attempt to illustrate that despite these problems, the teacher education reform effort did try to address fundamental instructional reform and associated development of a new collaborative culture through the policy of developing reflective practitioners. Namibia, in contrast to what seems to be the trend elsewhere, is confident that investment in teacher education will yield results. Fullan (1993:104) refers to this trend when he states:

> *Despite the rhetoric about teacher education in today's society, there does not seem to be a real belief or confidence that investing in teacher education will yield results.*

Change

Fullan (1993) holds the view that having to deal with change is endemic to post-modern society because of the

constant and ever expanding presence of educational innovation and reform. He further states that

> *Productive educational change at its core, is not the capacity to implement the latest policy, but rather the ability to survive the vicissitudes of planned and unplanned change while growing and developing.*
> (Fullan,1993:5).

In this section the term 'change' will be used to depict local (micro level) changes, i.e. in schools, colleges, in individual student teachers and teacher educators.

This section deals with change from both a macro and micro perspective, i.e. broad influences of change and their implications for teacher education (macro level); and the roles of teacher educators, student teachers and other actors in the change process, innovative approaches in teacher education, etc. (micro level). Change is explored in the context that institutions exist at the discretion of society, and therefore, if they fail to respond to the needs of society, they will lose their legitimacy and will ultimately become redundant.

Freiberg and Waxman (1990:617) describe change in its broadest view as the modification of existing conditions in response to present forces or future needs. It is a cumulative process, with each new successful step resting and building on previous efforts "to form a new stratum of efforts, ideas, processes, and products".

It is acknowledged in the literature that change is context-bound and that what works in one setting, may be a dismal failure in another. In addition, according to Hargreaves (1989:149), changes vary. He states:

> *They embody different principles, purposes and values. They realise different ends. They are matters of choice between different views and visions of what education is meant to achieve. Change is not therefore neutral. Resistance to change is, in this sense, more than merely resistance to change alone, but also to what is being changed and for what purpose. Embracing change*

or resisting change is consequently as much a question of values and purpose as it is one of technique.

As described in chapter 2 and in the sections on transformation, restructuring and reform, several factors in Namibia mitigated against change, one of which is resistance. This resistance was, and still is, based on different ideologies and therefore also on divergent expectations and aspirations. Resistance to change results from uncertainty, fear of the unknown and the complexity of change.

The relationship between change and the environment in which the change is to take place is a very important factor. Fullan (1993:3) argues that while educational innovations are on the increase, the educational system seems to remain inherently conservative. He states:

> *On the one hand, we have the constant and ever expanding presence of educational innovation and reform. ... On the other hand, however, we have an educational system which is fundamentally conservative. The way that teachers are trained, the way that schools are organized, the way that the educational hierarchy operates, and the way that education is treated by political decision-makers results in a system that is more likely to retain the status quo than to change. ...You cannot have an educational environment in which change is continuously expected, alongside a conservative system and expect anything but constant aggravation.*

According to Salter and Tapper (1981) both the prescriptive educationalists (e.g. Owen, Becher) and the descriptive educationalists (e.g. Eggleston, Shipman, Stenhouse) stress the critical position of the teacher in the change process. The critical role that the teacher has to play was one reason why the Ministry placed so much emphasis on the transformation/reform of teacher education. The Ministry described the key role of teachers thus:

> *Perhaps the most important challenge in improving the quality of our education system is to ensure that our teachers are well prepared for the major responsibilities they carry. More than anything else, it is the teachers who structure the learning*

> *environment. It is they who can keep learning exciting and satisfying or alternatively who make schooling a pain to be endured.*
> (MEC, 1993:37).

In the design of the BETD programme, recognition was given to the fact that teachers would have to be trained to be change agents to take up this 'critical position' with confidence, as it was realised that the system would take some time to stabilise. This insight seems to be consistent with what Fullan (1993:104) cites as an important factor contributing to the success of reform efforts:

> *... a high quality teaching force - always learning - is the sine qua non of coping with dynamic complexity, i.e., of helping to produce citizens who can manage their lives and relate to those around them in a continually changing world.*

Kogan, (1975), describes educational change as a kaleidoscope with colours in a changing pattern moving out of view, getting stuck or changing position when the box is tapped. This is so because change is never static and the outcomes can never be fully planned. Educational issues are constrained and influenced by wider societal forces, so that developments in education have an impact on society, and the conflict about educational codes becomes a conflict about the nature of society. Fullan (1991:65) states that educational change can be technically simple and socially complex in that a major part of the problem of educational change may be the difficulties related to planning and coordinating a multilevel social process involving thousands of people. He argues that many attempts at policy and programme change have concentrated more on product development, legislation, and other 'on-paper' changes in a way that ignored the fact that what people did and did not do was the crucial variable.

Hargreaves (1994:23) supports Fullan in this respect and contends that the challenges and changes facing teachers and schools are not parochially confined to education but are rooted in a major socio-historical transition. He argues that:

> *Schools and teachers are being affected more and more by the demands and contingencies of an increasingly complex and fast-paced, postmodern world. Yet their response is often inappropriate or ineffective - leaving intact the systems and structures of the present, or retreating to comforting myths of the past.*

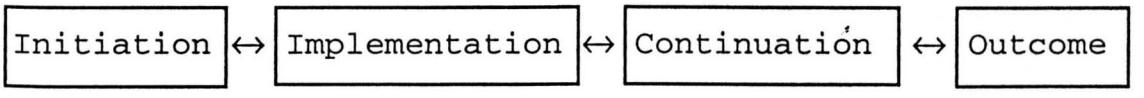
In addition, the teacher's role expands to take on new problems and mandates within an administrative apparatus that is often cumbersome and unwieldy, which makes it even more of a burden to change. Hargreaves' argument refers to European and Northern American teachers who have been adequately trained or well trained for the task at hand. If they find the demands daunting, Namibian teachers would find the post-independent demands much more frightening as the majority of them had not been adequately prepared for the task of teaching, yet they are expected to move away from what they think they can do to something completely new in an 'ever moving mosaic'.

Havelock and Havelock (1973:80) put forward four main models to describe the possible patterns of educational change: (1) change as a research-development and diffusion process; (2) change as a problem-solving process; (3) change as a process of social interaction; and (4) change as a linkage process. These models suggest different sequences of innovation as well as different strategies and approaches. To effect change, depending on the model, three strategies have been identified by which the actors can be persuaded to participate: empirical-rational strategies, normative re-educative strategies; and power-coercive strategies.

From the literature on change (Fullan, 1991b and 1993; Hargreaves, 1989 and 1994; Sarason, 1990; McLaughlin and Oberman, 1996; Zeichner et al, 1996) it is clear that there are no hard-and-fast rules for the effecting of change. This is because the uniqueness of the individual setting is a critical factor. However, it is not an impossible task to effect change as research findings on the change process could be used as means of helping practitioners and planners

'make sense' of planning, implementation strategies, and monitoring. Fullan (1991 b:48) describes three broad phases of the change process: Phase 1 is labelled 'initiation' and consists of the process that leads up to and includes a decision to adopt or proceed with a change. Phase 2, called'implementation', involves the first experiences of attempting to put an idea or 'reform' in practice. Phase 3, referred to as 'continuation', deals with whether the change gets built in as an ongoing part of the system or disappears by way of a decision to discard it. To the 3 phases 'outcome' is added to provide the notion of a more complete overview of the process. The figure, taken from Fullan (1994:48), is shown below:

Figure 2: A Simplified Overview of the Change Process



The most important ideas to be derived from Fullan's figure is that change is a process, not an event; and that it is not a linear process, but one in which events at one phase can feed back to alter decisions and directions taken at a previous stage, as shown by the two-way arrows. In addition, as pointed out by Villa and Thousand (1992:112) change is a process that takes time usually several years. It is a process that is primarily about individuals and their beliefs and actions rather than about programmes, materials, equipment, structures and technology. The Ministry, in attempting to prepare teachers to become facilitators and agents of change, developed strategies that would enable teachers to acquire the attitudes, skills and knowledge necessary to take up their central role and to cope with the many and complicated demands that the change process would place on them. One of the aims was to develop analytical, critical and reflective practitioners.

Rogers and Freiberg (1994:249) caution that change will not endure if "we focus on changing actions without providing opportunities for individuals to reflect on their values, beliefs and attitudes". They further contend that if individual values, beliefs, and attitudes are negated in the change process, "we run the risk of building our learning habitat on shifting sands" (Ibid:249). The rationale for the development of reflective practice in the Namibian context, as well as its place in the BETD programme, will be discussed in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

POLICY MAKING AND IMPLEMENTATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN NAMIBIA

Introduction

> *All persons shall have the right to education.*
>
> *Primary education shall be compulsory and the State shall provide reasonable facilities to render effective this right for every resident within Namibia, by establishing and maintaining State schools at which primary education will be provided free of charge.*
> (Constitution: Republic of Namibia, Article 20, Government of the Republic of Namibia, 1990).

The principles and visions embraced by the Namibian Constitution provide the framework, ethos, guidance and direction for the transformation of the Namibian society and therefore also for the transformation of the educational system. The Ministry of Education and Culture in 1993 published its policy statement which contains the visions of the national leadership and embodies the richness of the diversity of Namibia's people. Toward Education for All: A Development Brief for Education, Culture, and Training (MEC, 1993) provides policy makers and programme developers with a foundation for informed decision making; integrates the separate policy statements which had been issued since independence; and serves as a broad guide for setting priorities and allocating resources among the various dimensions of eduction, culture, and training. In this regard the Ministry describes the Development Brief as " a schematic statement of goals, orientations, objectives, relationships, and priorities - in other words, *a statement of vision* "(MEC, 1993:24).

It is within this framework and to work towards this vision, that the policies for teacher education had been devised and will be analysed. In the study an attempt is being made to examine the teacher education policy in its totality. It further attempts to identify the gap between the intended

policy for teacher education and its implementation; to analyse the gap; and to put forward a model for policy making which could narrow the gap between the intended policy and its actual implementation.

Fullan (1993:vii) states:

> *It is no longer sufficient to study factors associated with the success or failure of the latest innovation or policy. It is no longer acceptable to separate planned change from seemingly spontaneous or naturally occurring change. It is only by raising our consciousness and insights about the totality of educational change that we can do something about it.*

The study examines teacher education policy making and traces a specific set of educational issues and the conflicts, pressures and influences which attend their translation into action. It was recognised by the Ministry that as a result of the sharply divided societal expectations, tensions would abound and apprehension would flourish. In this respect the Ministry stated:

> *Understandably in a transitional situation, the preparation of major policy documents generates apprehension. How will the institutional framework and specific positions be affected? Will programmes in which there has already been a substantial investment of time, effort, and funds be reconsidered or reoriented or perhaps discarded? Who will be the effective and influential participants in formulating the new policy statement? These concerns are not unreasonable and merit serious attention.*
> (MEC, 1993:21-2).

In the light of the above the study also attempts to examine the dynamics involved in the policy making chain, as "policies cannot be divorced from interests, from conflict, from domination or from justice" (Ball, 1990:3).

Background

In Namibia, as in most other countries, the education sector translates the pressures placed upon it into new policies and practices. As a result of the pressures placed on it, and of the needs and demands of the Namibian nation with

regards to education at the time of independence, the Ministry of Education and Culture had to make statements of assumptions and intentions about education which had to be accompanied by its associated legislatory and regulatory mechanisms. These 'statements of prescriptive intent' (Kogan, 1975:55) carry within them the 'authoritative allocation of values' (Ball,1990:3). Ranson (1990:440) contends that policies are

> *statements which are typically expressed both in utterance and in textual form. They have a distinctive and formal purpose for organisations and governments: to codify and publicise the values which are to inform future practice and thus encapsulate prescriptions of reform.*

He goes on to say that policies are thus oriented to change and action, providing public intent of transforming practice according to ideal values. This is certainly true in the Namibian context where policies are intended to

> *serve as a broad guide for setting priorities and allocating resources; ... enable decision makers to assert a national initiative ... foster a unity of purpose, effective collegial communication, and a shared culture of management and administration among those responsible for managing the national education system.*
> (MEC, 1993:24)

The 'ideal values' will be examined within the Namibian social context, with specific reference to the centrality of power and control in the concept of policy.

According to Barrett and Fudge (1981:3) there is a fundamental anxiety about the effectiveness of public policy and government in general. They go on to say:

> *Government, whether national, regional or local, appears to be adept at making statements of intention, but what happens on the ground often falls a long way short of the original aspirations. Government either seems unable to put its policy into effect as intended, or finds that its interventions and actions have unexpected or counter-productive outcomes which create new problems.*

The study therefore also seeks to examine the adopted teacher education policy in Namibia in terms of the aspirations, pressures, needs, statements, intentions, interventions, implementation strategies and outcomes.

With the attainment of its independence from South Africa Namibia entered into a rapid process of political and social transformation as discussed in chapter 2. The transformation of the educational system did not take place without resistance from the privileged minority, who were fearful of losing control over and access to resources. The ideological struggles are still continuing, as any change, and therefore also educational change, is accompanied by ideological struggle. In this regard Samoff (1994:85) states:

> *Because education is so central to the social order and to a very widely shared understanding of development, education policy is always fashioned on contested terrain and always manifests the principal features of its political environment.*

It is within this context that this chapter concentrates on a detailed analysis of post-independence policy documents concerning education in general, and teacher education in particular, and will analyse the development and implementation of policies in the transformation process of teacher education. The chapter will further map out the process of policy making and implementation, its successes and failures; will discover whether the policy outcomes were in accordance with the stated governmental and ministerial expectations; whether unplanned and/or unforeseen consequences have emerged and will contribute to a better understanding of educational change and/or reform as part of a wider agenda of social and political change (Tomlinson, 1994:2). Based on the conclusions drawn, a model will be put forward for policy making and implementation.

Context for New Policies

The central position of education for Namibians in exile as discussed in chapter 2, the inequalities and disparities

created by the educational apartheid policies, as well as the indignities suffered by the black majority under Bantu Education, led to a need for demonstrable signs of progress in education soon after independence. Timing and opportunity were two vital factors in initiating policy development, particularly as the government faced the challenge of balancing tensions between preservation of minority privileges and transformation of the system to meet the needs of the majority.

The constitution of independent Namibia mandates universal access to primary education (grades 1-7). The Namibian Ministry of Education and Culture decided to provide basic education (grades 1-10) to all Namibians. As discussed in chapter 3 the post independence visions, goals, demands, expectations and approaches to basic education could not be accommodated in the previous teacher education programmes. An entirely new programme, the BETD had to be developed. The role of the teacher within the new paradigm had to be examined closely in relation to the stated goals and policies and had to be redefined in line with these. As discussed in chapter 3 the design rested on the premise that deliberate and conscious interventions were to be made through the teacher education programme to meet the demands and pressures of the new basic education system.

The Namibian Ministry attempted through its teacher education reform, to root the BETD programme to a 'consciously developed plan' resting upon the teacher education policies. However, as referred to in chapter 4, the Ministry was faced with the dilemma of creating new structures and of establishing new cultures while having to keep the new structures and cultures from 'solidifying' as the situation had to remain fluid to make new 'maps' as the course became clearer. Policy choices could thus be viewed as 'transient accords' in the 'unstable' policy environment, but the 'transient accords' were deliberately preferred to having policies which would be too rigid and which would as a result, inhibit contributions, adaptations

and amendments as the landscape was evolving.

Central to policy accords are the meanings that underpin concepts which undergo redefinition and alteration and acquire new nuances and dimensions as the process evolves. In this environment there is thus the emergent notion of educational policy which emphasises its integrating and disintegrating tendencies, as well as the chaos and order of policies. Subsequently, the meaning of policies are not fixed and static and are subject to interpretation and re-interpretation by actors located within specific contexts.

Definition of Policy

Different definitions of what policy is are being put forward in the literature. Barrett and Fudge (1981:11) ask the following questions as to what policy is, since to different people in different settings policy means different things:

> *What do we mean by policy? A political intention as expressed, say, in a political party manifesto? A formal decision expressed as legislation or a local council resolution? Operational policy expressed in government circulars, managerial statements or detailed administrative procedures providing 'rules' for the carrying out of specific tasks?*

Policy is clearly all these things, but in some settings it will have more emphasis on a particular aspect than in others and the permutations may also be different. Policies reflect the perceptions, attitudes and intentions of a given group of people whose aim is to bring about reform or improvement.

Conceptualisation of Policy

For the purpose of this study, it is important to investigate how the frameworks for action - legislative, administrative, procedural- reflect or relate to the original intentions; to examine the various stages in the process, who is

involved, in what role and with what motives; and to trace what has happened/is happening to the policy as it is successively refined, redefined, interpreted and translated into action. Therefore, in the context of this study, policy making and implementation are seen to be two aspects contributing to the overall process in the policy chain and not two discrete and mutually exclusive entities as often described in policy literature. To reinforce this, the term 'policy formation' is used to embrace the concept of a continuous interactive process in which policy making and implementation cannot be separated if the policy is to be implemented closely to its intentions. The organisational literature tends to treat the implementation of policy as a separate process more or less in a vacuum. Policy is made somewhere else and then handed in/down to the administrative system which has to execute it. In this way policy is construed as coming in at the top and as successively being refined and translated into operating instructions as it moves down the hierarchy. Barrett and Fudge (1981), on account of this separation, make the observation that policy is a number of things. It can be a formal decision expressed as legislation, a political intention, or detailed administrative procedures. Where policy starts and implementation begins thus depends on where you are standing and which way you are looking.

The social science literature on policy formation shows two distinct views: the more traditional literature tends to characterise the process as 'a set of stages or steps' which follow in logical order, while more recent literature suggests that policy making is 'a messy, fluid process' which cannot be reduced to a simple linear model (Evans et al, 1995:2). They argue that the elements of the policy cycle do not take place as a series of discrete steps, but are experienced as a continuously interactive process. Environmental characteristics strongly influence every stage of the process, and therefore a country, at any given point, can be addressing a particular stage or even a number of stages at once, without necessarily having dealt

with a preceding stage. The perspective of policy making as a fluid process was what guided the Namibian Ministry in the reform of teacher education. It was recognised that the formulation of policy options does not only happen at the beginning of the cycle, but is continuous, with important inputs being made even after the adoption of a particular policy option. The Ministry also recognised that it is a complex process without definite beginning or end.

Evans (1994:6) points out that when it comes to Africa, the following applies, based on a number of case studies:

> *Policy recommendations for education reform therefore have two components, technical and political. Even modest changes in education, desirable from a technical perspective, can lead to substantial unrest and even violence if they are perceived to threaten the access to benefits of various groups in society. Change in education requires public consensus and political acceptability to a degree not needed in other sectors.*

This argument does apply to the Namibian situation, albeit to a lesser extent. With the abolition of the old matriculation system (a system based on selection and therefore only benefitted a few) there were several student demonstrations. Like in other African countries the educational arena in Namibia also serves as the battleground for ideological differences and therefore the need for consensus and political acceptability is much bigger than in other sectors. Consensus and political acceptability can partly be achieved through participation, negotiation, and consultation in the policy formation process.

Stakeholders in Policy Formation

According to Evans et al (1995:18) there are many stakeholders who are critical to successful policy making. They include the following groups:

1) officials in the education bureaucracy, both central and local;

2) officials in other government sectors, particularly Planning, Finance and Local Government;

3) legislators and representatives of groups from civil society (religious groups, school boards, unions, parent associations); and

4) employers and chambers of commerce.

From its Development Brief it is clear that the Ministry intended, and in many instances did consult widely in the formulation of policy. The Development Brief (MEC, 1993:37) states the following in this regard:

> *The Development Brief, then has had broad consideration and input over several drafts. Just as it had been based on extended discussions among those concerned with education, so should it contribute to even more extensive discussions about our education system, what it is, and what it should be.*

Evans et al (1995:18) argue that which stakeholders are particularly important depends on the local context, as not all have to participate equally at all stages of the policy process: some are more important when the issues are being identified; others when the technical solutions are discussed; and still others when the resources are negotiated. Therefore Evans et al (ibid:18) conclude that the participants for the various stages will depend on the stage of the process, the nature of the policy under consideration, and the local context. Several principles reflecting the Ministry's perspectives on policy formation are encompassed by the following statement:

> *The Education Reform Directive is not meant to be a sacrosant edict or preordained decree. It demands initiative, creativity, democratic consultation and involvement and above all commitment to educational change, reform and renewal. The Directive will be continually enriched by experience in the process of implementation. The educational collective and especially the school community are invited to offer their suggestions for improvement as the Directive is being implemented.*
> (MECYS, 1990:1-2)

From the above statement it is clear that the Ministry viewed policy formation as a process going through many loops and that something could be learnt and fed back into the process during every loop. It is also clear that the policies proposed were not viewed as 'perfect' as the reference to experience and the call for suggestions indicate. Furthermore, it did not equate 'consultation' with 'involvement' and paid attention to all levels of stakeholders as required by the various stages in the process. Crump (1992:424) supports this view and states that "all players on the educational field need a chance to participate productively and democratically in some phase of the policy process".

Goals of Policy Formation

To be effective, policy formation must be seen as a social and political process as well as a task of technical analysis. Therefore the goal of the policy formation process is not just the production of a policy document, but to create a social learning process so that key participants in education can come to understand the nature of the problems faced, the resource constraints which exist, and the kinds of compromises that may be needed to make the process move forward. In this respect Hartwell (quoted from Evans et al,1995: 18) states:

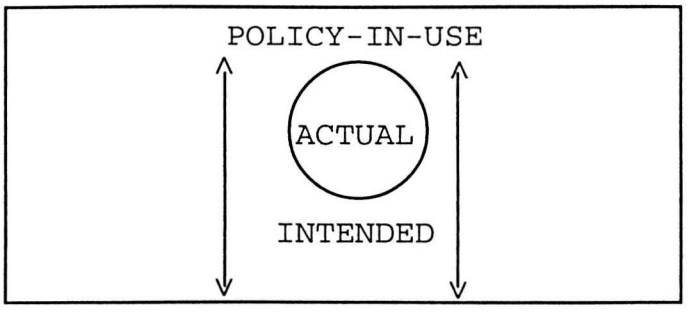
> *Policy isn't a solution to a problem but a continuous process of growth and nurturance. When carried out effectively such a process can produce general awareness of the problems, neutralize potential opposition, and mobilize support for the difficult policy choices which are inevitable in developing contexts.*

The Policy Cycle

Policies seem to have partially overlapping, cyclical phases. Bowe, Ball and Gold (1992) call these: 'intended policy' (what the various interest groups want); 'actual policy' (legislation, regulation, documentation); and 'policy-in-use' ('street-level' reaction). Policy is constantly evolving as new actors enter the arena; new challenges and constraints

develop; new conditions are set; and new solutions are found as the old ones are being dealt with. To keep abreast of the changes and shifts that are constantly occurring, educational policy must be fluid, flexible, and visionary. Crump (1992:419) put forward a model to explain the policy cycle:

Figure 3: The Policy Cycle



When the process of policy development and implementation and the policy-action relationship are analysed, it becomes clear that policies are not 'frozen texts or omnipotent discourses' (Crump, 1992:419). The process is multifaceted and multi-layered with no set starting point and no fixed end-point as some elements are taken up into new policies. Therefore, since policy making and implementation is a multifaceted and multi-layered process, actual policies are open to many interpretations in all parts of the system and at all stages: the contradictions and gaps are exploited; the policy is interpreted and contextualised by every group of actors; it is opposed, resisted, contested; and power bases are manipulated. This then partly accounts for the policy-in-use looking different from the actual and intended policy.

In the Namibian context, since one of the major goals in education is democratic participation, the policy process can be viewed as one which is based on involvement, participation and responsiveness. Ideally all stakeholders should thus be involved in the conception, planning and design of policies. This study attempts to establish whether this has actually happened with regard to the teacher

education policy.

Through the Task Force on Pre-Service Teacher Education, constituted by the Minister of Education and Culture, the stakeholders (political, technical and local) were given a chance to participate productively and democratically in the appropriate phases of the policy process. A new policy inevitably carries the seed of conflict between powerful vested interests of stakeholders between the different levels in the educational system. The teacher education policy was no exception, as stakeholders at various levels tried to exploit gaps. Since only assessment guidelines were provided in the BETD but no rigid prescriptions, some colleges attempted to carry on with the old system. Others tried to manipulate power bases e.g. the University of Namibia Faculty of Education's bid to have the colleges as affiliated institutions. Some tried to contest the policy as was demonstrated by the disruptive behaviour of some teacher educators at curriculum development sessions and other intercollege meetings. However, by involving key actors in some phases, these conflicts could be minimised and where appropriate the necessary compromises and adjustments could also be made.

Stages in Policy Formation

Numerous studies (e.g. Mitchell, 1988; Weatherly and Lipsky, 1977 ; Madsen, 1994; Association of Donors to African Education[ADAE], 1995; Evans et al, 1994) have documented the difficulty of converting public policy into appropriate action. Many factors can be responsible for this difficulty. Some of these are: time and resource constraints; limited vision; inhibiting environment or inadequate cognisance of environment; relationship between the conceptual framework and the actual implementation not clear enough; ineffective communication between the different partners. Furthermore, policy formation requires making choices between policy options. Selecting an option for a specific problem relies on the evaluation of the

advantages and disadvantages of the options. Two sets of criteria apply in this respect:

1) technical judgements based on available information, research knowledge, educational practice, and an assessment of financial viability; and
2) judgements based on an understanding of the local context - political, economic, cultural and social.

Policy formation is necessarily a temporal process involving issues of task, i.e. how the policy is to be formulated and implemented. The process also involves people and groups, i.e. who will be involved over a period over time. However, the process is not a single, undifferentiated continuum, but is broken up into distinct stages/phases within a 'workflow' (Mitchell, 1988). These stages are generally conceptualised within a broader environment governed by constitutional rules, political institutions, political culture, public opinion, and other constraints and resources (Porter,1995:9). As policy proposals move from the one stage to the next, they are subjected to very different decision-making processes, the questions asked at the different stages are different, the dilemmas and conflicts are different and so are the resources needed. Sometimes the actors involved are the same but are wearing different hats. This is especially true in the Namibian context with its relatively small population and thus relatively small Ministry where officials are involved in various tasks in different capacities.

The model put forward through this study to reflect the different stages in the policy chain, builds from the six stages identified by Mitchell (1988). The model has been constructed in an attempt to explain the intentions, values, interpretations, complexities, dilemmas, challenges, conflicts, contradictions, gaps and spaces experienced by the teacher education sector in Namibia in trying to design and implement the new policy. It also attempts to

illustrate the policy-action relationship (Barrett and Fudge, 1981) and to provide a basis for improved policy making and implementation in the future. In constructing the model, cognisance has been taken of the important principle that policy making is not a highly coherent and rational process, with a beginning, a middle, and an end, with each part leading logically and inexorably to each succeeding part. In this regard Porter (1995:13) states:

> *Policy is not produced as if it moved along a conveyer belt. It can be very useful to think of agenda setting, decision making, and implementation as distinct phases in the policy cycle, often (but not always) involving distinct participants and processes. But they do not necessarily follow each other through time in any regular or consistent pattern.*

Figure 4: POLICY CHAIN

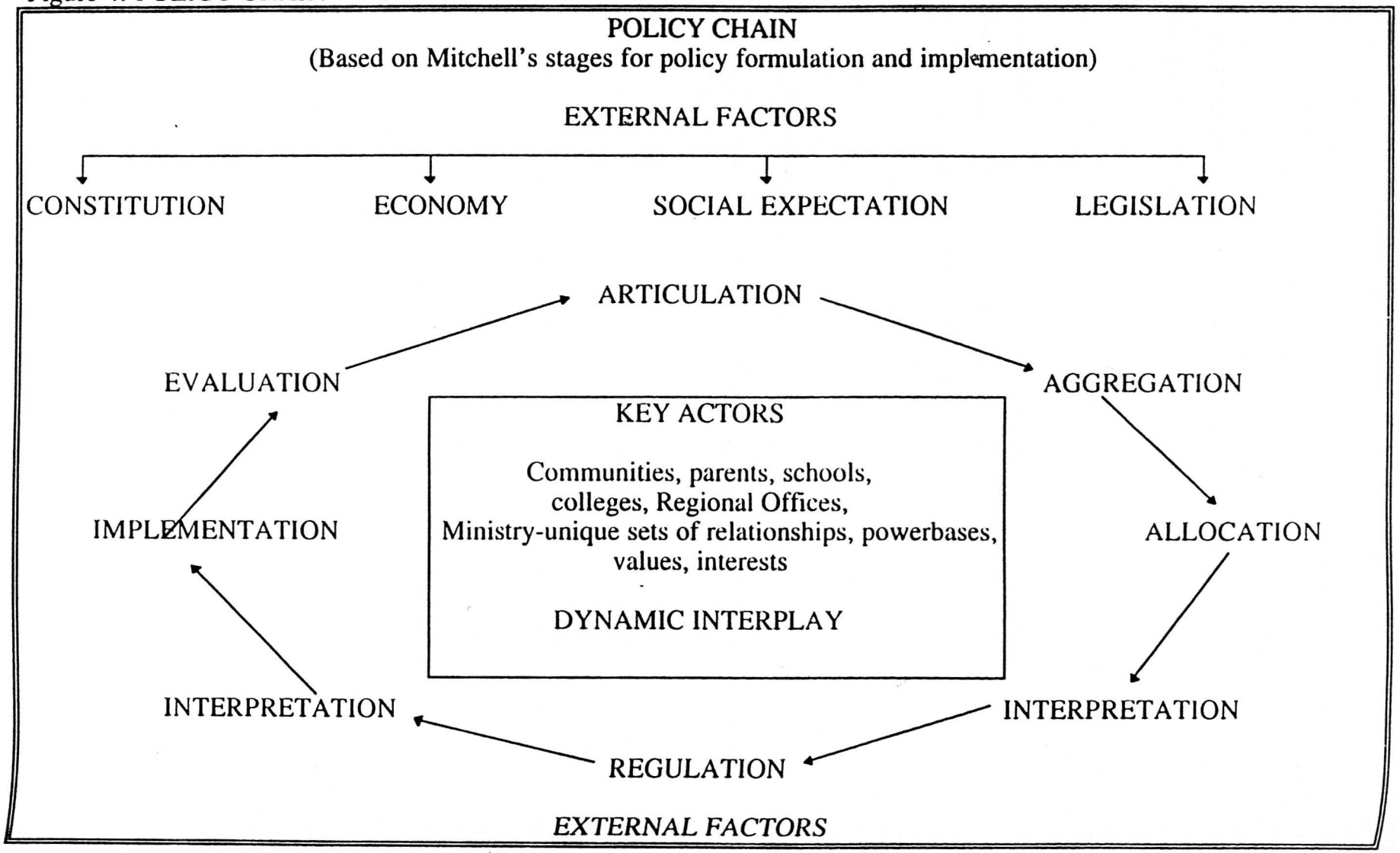


Figure 4 Policy chain
(Based on and adapted from Mitchell's stages for policy formulation and implementation)

From figure 4 it is clear that the policy chain is constantly influenced by and impacted upon by the policy paradigm at the different stages and at different levels, as this paradigm is interpreted by the stakeholders involved at that stage. In the Namibian context the policy paradigm is a learner-centred and democratic basic education for all, free from bias concerning ethnicity, gender and religion and equally accessible and equitable for all. The Government, through the President, articulated the policy paradigm for Namibia in the following way:

> *... since independence my Government has placed education at the top of our national priorities. It is the key to better life and, therefore, fundamentally important. Consequently, access to education should not be limited to a select elite, but should be open to all those who need it - especially children and those adults who previously had no opportunity to gain education.*
> (MEC, 1993:i)

This policy paradigm embraces the goal of education for all, and is in sharp contrast with the pre-independence paradigm which was based on segregation and selection. In this regard the Ministry recognised that the new paradigm did not only mean expanding access and providing multiple and new programmes, but also "a new way to think about our system of education and training and how we organise it" (ibid:4).

External factors like the economy, the constitution, political and social expectations and culture, influence the policy chain and exert certain pressures. In the case of Namibia, developments in the political sphere, i.e. the attainment of independence and a new government, became the agenda setters.

The stages in the policy chain as suggested by Mitchell (1988) and adopted for purposes of the study are:

1. Articulation:

Policy is a response to pressures and problems experienced on the ground (Barrett and Fudge, 1981; Porter, 1995). In Namibia the pressure was to transform the entire educational system after independence to bring it in line with the major goals of education. This necessitated the transformation of teacher education as well. The response to the pressures was thus a policy for a national and common teacher education programme closely aligned to the needs and demands of the new basic education system. The policy problem had been identified and explicitly articulated as a target for action, and possible mechanisms for dealing with the problem had been proposed. Mitchell's view is that unless the articulation of the problem and at least one possible mechanism for dealing with it has been proposed, the policy system does not really achieve anything.

In the Namibian context, because of the centrality of democracy as a goal of the educational system, several stakeholder groups were involved in this stage: the political leadership in the Ministry; officials tasked with the professional development of teachers; teacher educators; teacher unions; school management; the higher education sector; and teachers. These stakeholder groups were brought together in the Task Force for Pre-Service Teacher Education. However, the conceptualisation of a plan of action to deal with the problem was left largely to technical experts, called the Curriculum Coordinating Group (CCG), which consisted of senior Ministry officials involved in teacher education, and advisors and project staff assigned to the Ministry to assist with teacher education reform. The CCG operated under the auspices of the Professional Development division of the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED).

2. Aggregation:

Barrett and Fudge (1981:14) point out that policy is likely to come up against problems of obtaining a mandate, and that the process of legitimising action is likely to involve compromise and modification of the original intentions. During the aggregation stage broad-based coalitions of support for or against the particular proposal are formed and attempts are made to integrate diverse proposals into one programme. Since no stakeholder has total control over resources, agencies and the implementation environment, notions of negotiation, bargaining and compromise are involved during this stage. However, though more pronouncedly present during this stage, they are not exclusive to this stage. If the policy is to be put into effect, then the 'politics of policy' needs to be played out and interaction between policy makers and implementers needs to take place to reach consensus.

In Namibia, as in many other countries, government agencies are operating within a constitutional framework of interdependence which specifies the distribution and general scope of functions. Whilst the 'balance of power' inevitably rests with central government, it is dependent on local government agencies, in this case Colleges of Education, to implement its policies. It was not difficult to muster the support of the majority of the population for the new teacher education policy as it was perceived as an effort by the Ministry to redress the inequities of the past. However, powerful senior officials within the central Ministry as well as at the local level had to be 'controlled' and 'persuaded' towards acceptance of the policy. Normally, according to Madsen (1994:5), those who wish to change an existing system are set up for failure by their colleagues who wish to maintain the status quo within the organisation.

The political leadership of the Ministry was aware that key

officials in the bureaucracy would/could knowingly oppose, resist, contest and sabotage the reform. These officials had to be retained by the Ministry after independence because of the compromise with the Western Five as referred to in chapter 2. The Ministry, in order to minimise interference by such officials, established the Project Implementation Unit (PIU) which reported directly to the Permanent Secretary, and forged a coalition of support for the teacher education reform effort through advisors and project staff who worked closely with the PIU. The PIU consisted of a small and select group of Namibian teacher education professionals who were supportive of the Ministry's reform efforts. By virtue of its direct line of communication with the Permanent Secretary, the PIU enjoyed an unusual status within the hierarchy of the Ministry. The PIU members, for example, could attend high level meetings normally attended only by officials from director level and up; and enjoy membership of all the important policy formulating fora. This unusual status was resented by officials bypassed through this arrangement and because the PIU was not part of the hierarchical structure of the Ministry (although some members were in the hierarchy), this resulted in apparently deliberate delays whenever the bureaucracy had to support its initiatives.

Madsen (1994:5) points out that the bureaucratic mindset usually to be found in many government institutions might be unable to envision changes in the system and would not easily allow new policies to "disrupt their orderly way of doing things or force them to do things in a different manner". Lipsky (from Madsen,1994:68) argues that the different levels of a bureaucracy are normally in conflict with each other, rather than being mutually responsive and supportive to each other. This stage therefore, because it is regarded as more politically charged and socially

active than the previous one, requires more direct information, clear goals, clear delineation of responsibility and more technical and problem-solving skills.

In the process of legitimising the proposal through negotiating, bargaining and persuasion, those who are expected to implement the policy should be involved. They should not be seen as passive agents on the receiving end of policy, but as a semi-autonomous group with their own goals and objectives which have to be reconciled as far as possible with those of the policy makers.

3. Allocation:

During this stage the 'allocation of values' comes into play. This involves the allocation of power and resources according to priorities. The distinction between this stage and the previous one is not very clear, as stakeholders move backwards and forwards between these two as they do between the others. Stakeholders attempt to maximise their own interests and priorities. Different values, attitudes, and experiences combine to form the 'perceptions of the situation' (Barrett and Fudge,1981). Values at both individual and agency level affect the way in which different individuals and groups perceive and interpret their scope for action. According to Mitchell (1988), 'winners' are divided from 'losers' in this stage and thus there is no such thing as objective neutrality. When allocation of power and resources are at stake, everyone is presumed to have an interest. Powerful stakeholders can and will seek to influence the allocation of resources and thus the translation of policies into regulations and actions. Evans et al (1995:5) contend that:

> *Policy leaders often underestimate the importance of the large numbers of mid-level bureaucrats and school-level educators who will influence the form*

which policies take in practice.

Which policies emerge on the public agenda and the particular form they take, largely depend on which interests prevail in the political process. It is also during this stage that legislation is passed to give the necessary legitimacy and to ensure the allocation of resources.

In the new teacher education policy in Namibia the old values could not be allowed to continue, therefore the new values had to be explicitly stated and the weight of power and authority had to be lodged firmly behind them. The complication in this situation was that although the less privileged majority of Namibians were dissatisfied with the fact that they had been disadvantaged by the previous system, they adhered to the same aspirations as the advantaged minority in terms of what constituted 'good' education. The Ministry thus had to firmly and explicitly articulate and allocate the new values as embedded in the Constitution, and had to put its authority behind them. New values are being fostered as the process develops, and as more stakeholders align their expectations and aspirations to the philosophy and goals of the reforming system. The intention of the Ministry's reform policies is to create appropriate conditions for the shift or reconstruction of social and power relations in education. Ideally, therefore, the stakeholders being part of the process, will become sensitised to this intention and will, as a result, begin to subscribe to and support this intention.

4. Interpretation:

This section does not form part of Mitchell's policy stages, but has arisen from the context of the study. On the basis of the researcher's experience of the Namibian teacher education policy, interpretation is seen as a separate stage. The policy framework and the interpretation of both the framework and the policy itself can have an important impact on whether a policy will fulfil its intentions. In

this respect De Clercq (1997:127) argues that in the South African context interpretation plays a crucial role in policy formation since

> *Because of the way they understand and address the problem and the policy process, these policies* (for reconstruction) *are in danger of creating conditions that will assist the privileged education sector to consolidate its advantages while making it difficult for the disadvantaged to address their problematic educational realities.*

This situation, as described for South Africa, equally applies to Namibia since the same apartheid regime created the disadvantages and disparities for the majority of the Namibian people and instilled a certain conceptualisation of policy into both the privileged and underprivileged. Policy frameworks and therefore also policies, however revolutionary and visionary they may seem on paper, will most likely still be interpreted in terms of the old (colonial) paradigm and be implemented according to the old paradigm. This results because "implementing bureaucrats will always put their own interpretations and meanings to the intended policies and, in the process, will use their power or discretion to subvert or transform the original goals of the policy makers" (McLaughlin,quoted from De Clercq, 1997:129).

The different actors in the policy formation process perceive and make sense of the world in different ways, which in turn leads to different practices and organisational behaviours. This is why similar agencies respond differently to the same policy; why some agencies innovate and others not; and some succeed in inter-agency coordination and others not. Organisational structures place certain limits on policies - these limits may vary in kind over time, e.g. they may be legal frameworks or may be accepted norms of behaviour. Madsen(1994:99) is of the view that

> *As implementers bring their own beliefs, attitudes and motivation to policy-making, the pursuit of*

individual goals often overshadows the goals of the organization. The attitudes, motivation and beliefs that underlie an implementor's response to policy goals or strategies will affect the outcomes of a new program.

The multifaceted and multi-layered nature of policy, as well as the multiplicity and complexity of linkages, requires a stage during which the policy is examined before it is 'solidified' into regulations and budgetary details. It has to be examined and evaluated by the different stakeholders in order to clarify issues which will have to be regulated and budgetted for. During this stage the stakeholders have to consider what actions need to be regulated and how they should be regulated. This does not imply that they will decide on the regulations themselves - these are best left to the technical experts in that specific field. However, if this stage is skipped, a mismatch of intentions may arise, which will make the creation of a common vision and understanding of the policy problematic. Successful implementation of the policy, must therefore be grounded in a clear and consistent interpretation of its intent. The intentions are what will be regulated. It is what is regulated and how the decision is framed which impact most on how it is implemented.

5. Regulation:

The process of policy formation also involves the translation of legislation into administrative action. Legislation is usually written in broad terms which allow the administering agency to interpret the intent of the bill. Given this responsibility, the administering agency develops regulations for the new policies. The administrative actions include developing regulations, interpreting and administering guidelines for newly developed programmes, and determining what resources are required to facilitate implementation. The availability of resources is critical for successful implementation as

pressures of inadequate resources may result in questionable practices or no implementation at all.

During this stage regulatory and budgetary details are fleshed out of who will be given explicit authority and resources to carry the policy into effect. It is during this stage that the necessary legislation, policy directives and circulars are prepared to ensure that everybody to be affected by the policy is informed. At this point technical information about the consequences and implications of alternative regulatory patterns is most valuable. This, however, is more often than not lacking as Mitchell (1988:463) points out:

> *Responsibility for regulation writing and the development of detailed organizational plans is frequently given to departmental functionaries who have been socialized to a bureaucratic world view alien to those who must implement the policy.*

In the Namibian context, this stage was left very much to the discretion of the officials who had been instrumental in the conceptualisation, articulation, and aggregation of the teacher education policy. This has had its positive effects, e.g. the policy was framed in supportive regulations. However, it also had weaknesses, e.g. the fact that external agencies are financially sponsoring some of the activities. The Ministry has not tracked the cost of the implementation of the policy which could lead to sustainability problems in the future.

6. Interpretation:

Just as interpretation (stage 4) does not form part of Mitchell's model, this stage also arose out of the context of the study and experiences during the course of the study. Interpretation at this juncture was also found to be a necessary component of the policy process. Now that the regulatory and budgetary frames have been worked out, the policy has to be examined and evaluated again to ensure that it has been framed adequately to ensure 'proper'

implementation.

During this stage the policy and its regulatory and budgetary frames are reviewed with the intention to translate the regulations, directives, and circulars into comprehensive operational plans. This stage provides another opportunity to make linkages between the various stakeholders and to align perspectives, values and resources.Like in the other stages, the influence of micro politics should be taken into consideration. During this stage parameters are set for implementation and administrative processes and procedures are accepted based on the regulations formulated in the previous stage. This has to be done in order to minimise that some of the implementers 'play the system' to their own advantage, especially in the post-apartheid context. In as much as complications and difficulties can never be fully anticipated in advance, this stage can create or reinforce a forum of trust and open discussion, which could pre-empt some of the problems normally experienced during implementation. The technical expertise and experience of those on the 'street-level', as well as their creative ideas, may ensure improved implementation and mutually enriching interaction among the stakeholders, also during the succeeding stages. The translation of policy goals into routine practice is usually conceived of as organising resources and legal requirements into a framework for action. However, the political and administrative processes associated with policy enactment often require a prior tool, a generative concept that not only captures the normative assumptions in a particular policy goal, but also synthesises empirical data so as to identify a particular strategy for achieving the goal and guidelines for how to measure progress towards achieving the goal.

The communication of new policies often takes the form of directives and admonitions rather than dialogue and education, according to Darling-Hammond(1990). Implementation in this context thus means nothing more

than compliance, and in most cases, contrived compliance. Madsen(1994:152) views communication as a most important aspect of policy formation. Effective and meaningful communication is necessary to promote new programmes, to provide information and also to pre-empt some of the expected implementation difficulties. In the Namibian case regular and timely information dissemination was effected through the National Seminars, monitoring activities and reports, the formative evaluation of the BETD, inter-college meetings and workshops and staff development activities. An educational journal for debate and discussion on reform issues, including new policies and practices, The Reform Forum, was established and circulated on a regular basis to all stakeholders, including all schools.

Dialogue and education were utilised in the implementation of the teacher education policy in Namibia. Colleges of Education staff as well as teachers were involved in the operationalising of the policy into action plans. Colleges, for various reasons e.g. as quardians of old paradigms, were sometimes reluctant to participate, but those who embraced the opportunity contributed to the process by helping to create awareness and understanding of the local realities and context. They also gained from the process, i.e. an increased understanding of the constraints faced by central government in the implementation of a new policy and therefore developed a greater willingness to look for alternative strategies.

7. Implementation:

Barrett and Fudge (1981:17) hold the view that implementation will not automatically follow from policy decisions but needs to be treated as a 'positive, purposive process' in itself. Darling-Hammond (1990:236) contends that policy-makers 'often behave as though the policy process is virtually complete when a new law has been passed and the writing of regulations or guidelines has been completed.'

However, policies do not land in a vacuum; they land on top of other policies. It thus follows that previous policies and the practices that flowed from them will have a profound influence on the new policy to be implemented. Implementers apprehend and enact new instructional policies in the light of their inherited knowledge, beliefs and practice. Interpretation of a particular policy is therefore diverse - everyone interprets and enacts new policies in the light of her/his own experience, beliefs and knowledge.

In the literature on policy formation there is general agreement that a top-down approach to policy overemphasises the power and agenda of the policy makers while underestimating the important policy role of other agents, especially at the local level, in the implementation phase (Barrett and Fudge, 1981; McLaughlin and Oberman, 1996; Evans et al, 1995).

Research evidence shows that strong policies are more likely to be implemented, but even strong policies may not be implemented as intended (Barret and Fudge, 1981; Evans et al, 1995). From the literature four characteristics appear to reflect the strength of policies: *consistency*, i.e. how it matches up with, relate and speak to other policies; *prescriptiveness*- specificity, no vagueness that could be exploited; *authority* -local acceptance; and *power*, *i.e.* the ability to enforce policy through rewards and/or sanctions.

Other factors which influence the extent to which policies are implemented are: the extent to which 'street-level bureaucrats' (Weatherly & Lipsky, 1977) are aware of and understand the policies; the extent to which the Ministry can directly or indirectly empower local implementers to implement the policies; and the extent to which local implementers have the capacity to enact the policies and had the opportunity to influence earlier stages.

This study explores the implementation stage of the policy chain more intensively than the other stages, since it is during this stage that policy is turned into practice. Practice shapes the policy into producing sometimes counter-productive and unexpected outcomes. The study also attempts to show that while the 'street-level bureaucrats' are in many cases viewed as conduits for policy and not as key actors, they are in fact the 'real policy makers'. They are the people on whom many demands and pressures are placed from many sources, and they find ways in which to accommodate and cope with these demands and pressures. If they have not been involved in the other stages, have not come to understand the policy and have not been empowered sufficiently, it is doubtful whether the intended and actual policy will have much resemblance to the policy-in-use (Crump, 1992). Weatherly and Lipsky (1977:172) state in this regard:

> *These accommodations and coping mechanisms that they are free to develop form patterns of behavior which become the government program that is "delivered" to the public. In a significant sense, then, street-level bureaucrats are the policymakers in their respective work arenas.'*

Weatherly and Lipsky further explain that the street-level bureaucrats interact directly with the clientele in the course of their jobs and have substantial discretion in the execution of their work. They interpret the new policy in terms of their inherited knowledge, beliefs and practice; routinise procedures; modify goals to fit in with their frames of reference; assert their priorities; and control the clientele. They give meaning to the policy by putting it into practice - whether close to its intention(s) or not. Evans et al (1995:18) agree with this view and go on to say that setting the stage for implementation of education policies is an unusual challenge because of the number and diversity of people who must agree and cooperate for the implementation to be effective. They also argue that the seeds of that collaboration are best planted early in the process and nursed continually throughout the process.

In the teacher education arena in Namibia, the new teacher education policy had to be implemented as an innovation into continuing practice. This required adjustments in the attitudes, values and behaviour of the teacher educators at the Colleges of Education, and thus required a change in their work requirements. The Ministry inherited teacher educators from various ethnic authorities who had widely differing levels of knowledge, aspirations, expectations, attitudes and values. In the three northern colleges (Ongwediva, Rundu and Caprivi) college staff had not been appointed as teacher educators, but had been appointed on the same basis and under the same criteria as secondary school teachers. The result was that many of them were considered to be inadequately qualified to teach at college level. This is illustrated by the minutes of a meeting of the Coordinating Advisory Committee (on which the Ministry, the Academy and the colleges were represented and which had to coordinate the NEC and NHEC affairs) in November 1991, where the following decisions were taken:

> *That the Personnel Office of the Ministry be requested to look into the issue of college staff in the North being appointed as teachers and not lecturers.*
>
> and
>
> *That underqualified staff be requested to upgrade their qualifications within a set time limit and in the event of failing to do so, they be transferred to suitable positions in schools.*
> (Coordinating Advisory Committee, 1991:5-6)

As a result of the transformation of the educational system the 'old' employees were required to adopt new behaviours. This situation created an even more complex implementation stage - the old battles were brought into the new arena. In the implementation of the policy, the Ministry had to rely on incumbent staff accustomed to the styles of their ethnic administrations. Their new work requirements were perceived as an enormous increase in their workload, especially in the area of student teacher assessment. This led to many tensions and conflicts. One of the tensions was created by

the fact that the Reform Facilitators, referred to in chapter 3, based at each of the colleges to assist teacher educators and college management to come to grips with the new policy, had differing perspectives from those of the college staff. According to Weatherly and Lipsky (1997) there is an inherent tension between specialist and teacher. Some teacher educators resented the 'intrusion from outsiders' and also resented the fact that the facilitators were responsible to different lines of authority, i.e. directly to NIED, which raised the issue of status. In addition, the coordination of their activities, in order to ensure a certain measure of uniformity of understanding of the important principles of the reform, was done from NIED.

The implementation phase was also seen as a negotiating phase by the Ministry, as the teacher educators had a relative autonomy and independence because of their expertise and experience. However, the Ministry could not allow this independence and autonomy to take its own course - it had to be directed towards the new goals and values. This independence and autonomy was encouraged and promoted only as far as it did not compromise the goals and values underlying the policy. Certain trade-offs were made which could be construed as policy failure, but since they did not affect the underlying principles of the policy, they in fact contributed to facilitating implementation. This experience was an interactive and negotiative process taking place over time between those seeking to put policy into effect and those upon whom action depended.

The outcomes of the implementation stage and of the policy chain will only be fully recognisable and apparent after the first cohort of BETD students have been teaching for a number of years. However, at this early stage the following trends are already becoming clear:

- the teacher education policy displays elements of a

strong policy, i.e. it displays *consistency* in that it speaks to the policies guiding basic education. It exhibits *prescriptiveness* i.e. the BETD policy is specific and extensive; contains guidelines on approaches, methodology, assessment, objectives, admission, and provide information, procedures and advice on how to deal with issues. It demonstrates *authority* as there is local acceptance by the majority of teacher educators and student teachers, and *power* since the Ministry has the legitimacy and the means to enforce the policy, especially when the underlying principles are challenged;

- the oversight and monitoring mechanisms established prior to and during implementation effectively and timeously informed other stakeholders of how the implementation stage was going;

- the considerable strain that the innovation/policy has placed on those engaged in implementation at the local as well as at the central level-but more so at the local level, because of the attitudes and practices prevailing there;

- by allowing interactive, negotiative processes and trade-offs the Ministry gained much more ground and credibility with the street-level;

- the implementers devised a variety of coping mechanisms, among others they 'played the system', i.e. when it suited them they would expect to receive prescriptions from above, otherwise they will not take action; at other times they would claim that they were not given enough scope to take action;

- the involvement and empowerment of college management and teacher educators through national seminars and inter- and intra-college workshops on curriculum development and assessment procedures, which made them more confident and prepared to deal with the new policy

contributed to some of the successes experienced so far;

- while allowing things to develop in some areas, it was also necessary in others to have clearly defined and stated objectives and priorities which were not negotiable. This was necessary to ensure that the policy, which is a national policy, was not undermined by the selfish interests of a specific college or of a specific faction within a college.

8. Evaluation:

During this stage the extent to which the policy has been implemented as intended and/or has produced (un)expected outcomes, is examined. Like the others, this stage is necessary, although it is sometimes neglected. The findings of this stage may lead to a reformulation of the policy; new legislation; amendment(s) to existing legislation; modification in action plans; re-allocation of resources; or even the demise of the policy. The findings can feed into all the other stages in sequence, or can feed directly back into individual stages as the need may arise.

This stage has not been completed yet as far as the teacher education policy in Namibia is concerned. The preliminary reports show that in some areas the intended and actual policy is very close to the policy-in-use, while in other areas there is a considerable gap. They also show some variance between the colleges. These aspects will be further discussed in chapter 9.

The policy model, based on Mitchell's stages and proposed through the study, is one in which the 'steps and stages' approach has been reconciled with the 'fluid process' view emphasising the unpredictability of the process (Evans et

al, 1995:4). The model presents the elements of the policy cycle not as a series of discrete steps, but as a continuously interactive process, with important inputs being made throughout the process.

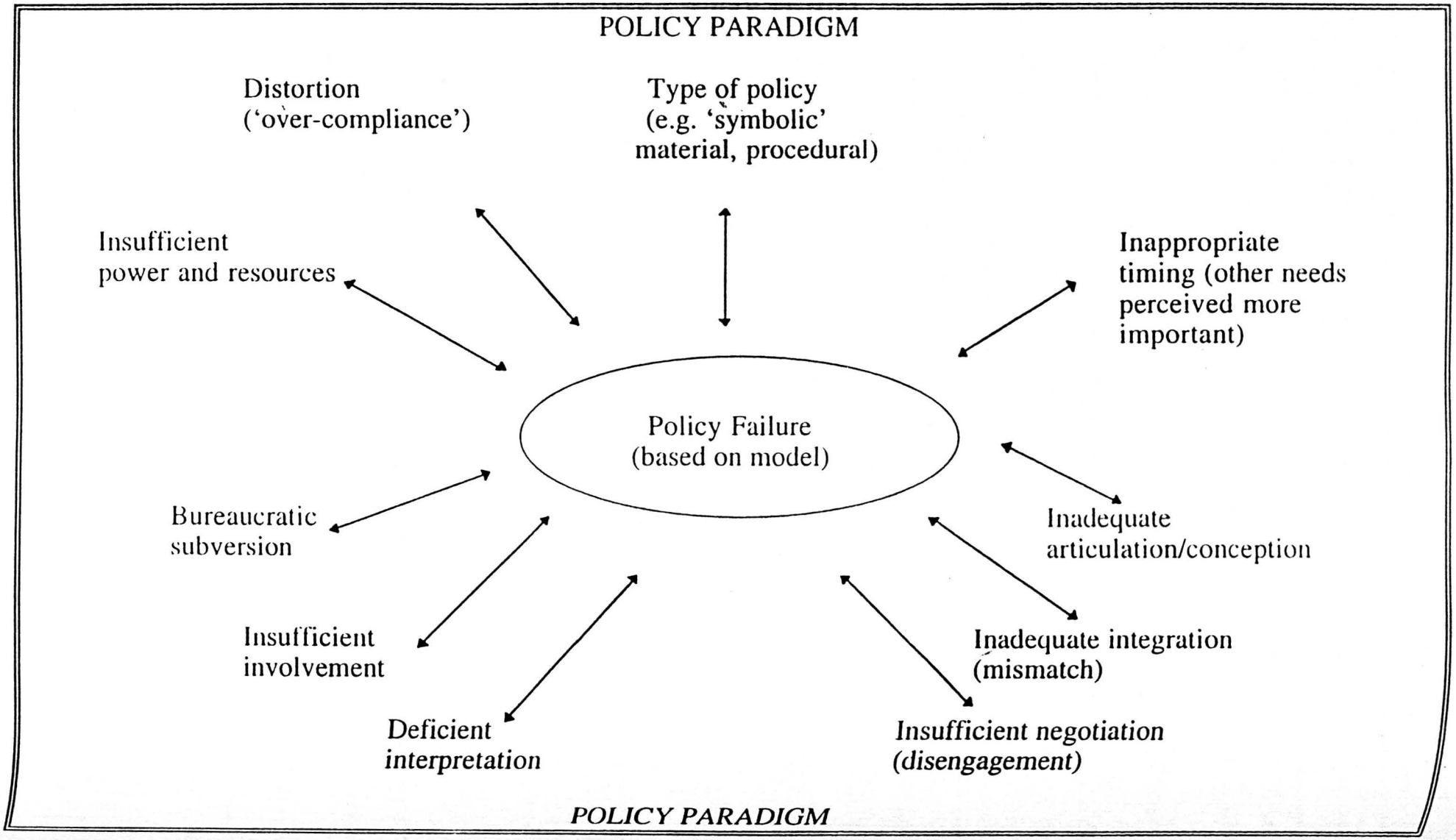
Policy Failure

Based on the model put forward by the study on page 117, the reasons why policy failure occur could be deduced and are discussed below. The reasons for the policy failure are presented in diagrammatic form and are by no means perceived to be exhaustive, as many other factors could impact on the policy chain, which are incumbent on the specific context and the policy paradigm under which it has to operate.

Pressman and Wildavsky (from Barrett and Fudge, 1981:15) explain that one of the key reasons for 'policy failure' could be that "policy-makers generally underestimate the complexity and difficulty of co-ordinating the tasks and agencies involved in implementing programmes". Furthermore, the view of implementation as separate from policy-making, is another factor that could contribute towards policy failure, as implementation does not automatically follow from policy decisions but needs to be treated as a positive, purposive process in itself.

From the literature reviewed on policy formation and from the study itself, the following explanation for policy failure can be given. The reasons are explored through questions and are illustrated in figure 5:

Figure 5: **POLICY FAILURE**



Dalin and Rust (1996:5) contend that sometimes politicians recognise that it takes considerable time to conceptualise a problem, establish policy, and implement reform. Some politicians thus attempt to short circuit the process by eliminating certain steps which may result in policy failure.

1) Type of policy: Was the policy suited for the purpose it had to fulfil? Was it a 'redistributive ' policy but without the necessary regulatory and economic mechanisms to be properly implemented or a 'symbolic' policy articulated only to demonstrate recognition of a problem?

2) Timing: Was the environment for the implementation receptive and prepared for the policy? Was the issue to be addressed perceived as a problem at the time? If these conditions are not present a policy may become unimplementable.

3) Inadequate articulation: Was the problem identified and explicitly articulated as a target for action and were possible mechanisms for dealing with the problem proposed? Was the framework understood and the intent of the policy within the framework?

4) Inadequate integration: Was the policy conceived in a vacuum without considering its possible impact on other policies? Did it 'speak' to other policies?

5) Insufficient negotiation: Was there adequate agreement among stakeholders about the process and its implications?

6) Deficient interpretation: It is argued that insufficient negotiation may lead to deficient interpretation since not enough inputs and perspectives have been obtained. Were the different and differing expectations and assumptions clarified? Were the

external factors like the economy, culture, etc. taken into consideration?

7) Bureaucratic subversion: Were the ideological battles and power struggles adequately addressed during the different stages and at the different levels to ensure that bureaucrats will frame the policy appropriately and implement it accordingly?

8) Insufficient involvement: Were stakeholders at all levels involved and consulted on a continuous basis during the process?
9) Insufficient resources: Were the persons required to implement the policy provided with the necessary power and resources?

10) Distortion: Was the policy distorted or manipulated by the 'street-level bureaucrats' because of the fact that there was insufficient involvement and/or insufficient negotiation? Was it implemented to the extent that it was taken beyond what was intended ('over-compliance')? Did improvements in one area produce unintended negative consequences in another part of the system? (Sparks and Hirsh, 1997:6).

These are some of the possible explanations, framed as questions, put forward by the study as reasons for policy failure. However, just as the process of policy formation cannot be broken down into discrete steps, so can the reasons for policy failure not be separated from its contextual and environmental factors. According to the literature (e.g. Bowe, Ball and Gold, 1992; Ball, 1990; Evans et al, 1995) policies are above all about contexts, processes and conflicts of actors as they relate and mediate their actions within their institutional structures and state organisations. Therefore, in every policy environment there will be different sets and combinations of reasons why a specific policy fails or is successful. The successful implementation of policies is implied by the avoidance or

reversal of the issues presented as possible reasons for failure.

In this chapter the issues surrounding policy formation have been identified and explored consistent with the view that if we do not consider the political dimension, the way we think about teacher education will be partial and distorted. In the next chapter the development of reflective practice as a policy initiative in the reform of teacher education in Namibia will be discussed.

CHAPTER 6

THE DEVELOPMENT OF REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

Introduction

In this chapter the intended development of reflective practice through the Basic Education Teacher Diploma is examined. The aims are to determine the viability of policy underpinning the reform (and therefore also the development of reflective practice) of teacher education in Namibia and to establish the measure of success of change processes. After independence, as discussed in chapter 3, the Namibian educational system was faced with providing access to more learners while at the same time bringing about a total transformation. In order to cope with these changes, disparities in the system, and a system in transition, while at the same time expected to improve efficiency and effectiveness in terms of learning outcomes, a completely new way of preparing teachers for their task had to be devised. To meet the aims of transformation through teacher education reform, teachers needed to develop reflective qualities and modes of practice through the aquisition of critical and analytical thinking skills and through the development of inquiring minds.

The Broad Curriculum for the Basic Education Teacher Diploma (MEC, MBEC and MHEVTST, 1994 and 1998) states, among others, the following aims:

> *Basic Teacher Education will strive to:*
>
> - *develop a reflective attitude and creative, analytical and critical thinking*
> - *develop the ability to actively participate in collaborative decision making*
> - *develop social responsibility towards learners, colleagues, the community and the nation as a whole*
> - *develop an understanding of learning as an interactive, shared and productive process*
> - *develop the ability to create learning opportunities which will enable learners to*

explore different ways of knowing, and develop the whole range of their thinking abilities

It is within the framework of the goals of the educational system, the policy paradigm of the Ministry, and the aims of the Basic Education Teacher Diploma, that this chapter examines the development of reflective practice amongst BETD students.

International Trends in Teacher Education

The 1990s represent a crucial time in teacher development around the world as illustrated by the literature on teacher education, e.g. in the United Kingdom, the United States of America and some African countries. This came about as a result of reforms being introduced based on the challenges to improve, to do things differently, to accommodate new foci and frames for teaching and learning, and to address issues of disparate resources. According to Dalin and Rust (1996:33) the world is now at a turning point or engaged in a fundamental paradigm shift in terms of knowledge production. They state that the shift is equivalent to a shift from the Newtonian to a quantum physics scientific order. McLaughlin and Oberman (1996:ix-x) describe why teacher education has taken on such importance in the 1990s in America:

> *The new classroom practices that reformers imagine, often described as "teaching and learning for understanding," assume fundamental change in the ways teacher interact with students. Not surprisingly, teachers' capacity and opportunity to enact this complex, far-reaching reform agenda have taken centre stage. At root, the problem of reform is a problem of teachers' learning* (emphasis is researcher's)...

The change in England and Wales with the introduction of the National Curriculum and the implications for teachers, is described by Hargreaves (1994:6) in the following way:

> *Beneath them* [the changes] *are even deeper transformations at the very roots of teachers' work which address and affect how teaching itself is defined and socially organized.*

In the African context the new South Africa, which emerged after the 1994 democratic elections had to transform the society and therefore also its education system in line with its new mandate. In this respect they adopted the principle that improving the quality of learning "... requires strategies which focus on change at the school and classroom level" (Department of Education, South Africa, 1996:13). This principle implies fundamental changes in the field of teacher education as well.

The attainment of independence made it imperative for Namibia to transform its education system, as described in chapter 2. In this regard the principle underlying the change was that: "For Namibia to change, so must its schools" (MEC, 1993:76). As is the case of South Africa and elsewhere where the education system and schools are expected to change, the role of teachers and therefore their training, come under close scrutiny. Hargreaves (1994:23) contends that the challenges and changes facing teachers and schools are not parochially confined to education, but rooted in a major socio-historical transition. He argues that:

> *Schools and teachers are being affected more and more by the demands and contingencies of an increasingly complex and fast-paced, post-modern world. Yet their response is often inapropriate or ineffective - leaving intact the systems and structures of the present, or retreating to comforting myths of the past.*

From the above stances and views it is apparent that the context for learning and teaching is changing and therefore the role of the teacher too. This implies new ways of teacher preparation and professional development if the teacher is to cope with the ever changing educational mosaic. In Namibia, the transformation of teacher education was seen to be absolutely essential in order to guide and direct the transformation of the rest of the education system. This in essence, placed the preparation of teachers in an even more central position. In its attempts to address the issues of access, equity, quality, efficiency and democratic participation, and to effectively implement the

reform, one of the major thrusts of the reformed teacher education programme in Namibia is the development of reflectiveness and reflection among teacher educators, student teachers and serving teachers through critical inquiry. This clearly goes beyond the mere passing on of approved methods and conforming to approved ideas of professional purpose, content and method. Teachers in the nineties and beyond are faced with so many complex challenges and must therefore think out their own answers (within a consensual and agreed framework) and establish their own orientation to their profession and their work. Stenhouse (1979:11) in his lecture on Research as Basis for Teaching said:

> *Teaching is not to be regarded as a static accomplishment like riding a bicycle or keeping a ledger; it is, like all arts of high ambition, a strategy in the face of an impossible task.*

Reconceptualisation of Teaching

The way in which we see teaching and learning has a very significant impact on the way we see teachers and as a result on the way in which we prepare teachers for their task. Calderhead and Shorrock (1997:1-2) state in this respect:

> *How we conceptualize the work of teachers inevitably influences how we think about their professional preparation, and ultimately shapes suggestions for the further improvement of teacher education.*

They go on to describe orientations to teacher education in the United States which have been influential, at different points, in shaping the nature of initial teacher education courses. These are:

1) academic orientation which emphasises teachers' subject expertise with a liberal arts education as the crucial ingredient of teacher preparation;

2) practical orientation which emphasises the artistry and classroom technique, viewing the teacher as a

craftsperson;

3) technical orientation which emphasises the knowledge and behavioural skills that teachers require;

4) personal orientation which emphasises the importance of interpersonal relationships in the classroom; and

5) critical inquiry orientation emphasising the role of schools in promoting democratic values and reducing social inequities and therefore aims at enabling prospective teachers to become aware of the social context of schools and of the social consequences of their own actions as teachers.

This chapter attempts to demonstrate that the BETD programme incorporated some aspects from all these orientations, but was primarily influenced by the critical inquiry orientation. Little (1993:129) argues that the most promising forms of professional development engage teachers in the pursuit of genuine problems, questions, and curiosities, over time, in ways that leave a mark on perspectives, policy, and practice. They communicate a view of teachers not only as classroom experts, but also as productive and responsible members of a broader professional community. Consistent with Little's views it was the intention of the Ministry to have teachers engaged in the 'pursuit of genuine problems, questions, and curiosities' and to change their beliefs and perspectives in order for them to take up their roles as agents and implementers of change.

The German philosopher Heidegger's definition of teaching is framed in the following way:

> *Teaching is more difficult than learning because what teaching calls for is this: to let learn. The real teacher, in fact, lets nothing else be learned than - learning. His conduct, therefore, often produces the impression that we properly learn nothing from him, if by 'learning' we now suddenly understand merely the procurement of useful information. The teacher is ahead of his students in this alone, that he still has far more to learn*

than they - he has to learn to let them learn. (From Rogers and Freiberg,1994:34).

This view of teaching implies that a teacher is a lifelong learner consistent with Dalin's and Rust's view that "if teachers are to help others to learn, they themselves must continuously be engaged in learning" (1996:153). The reformed education system in Namibia has the principle of lifelong learning as one of its important pillars to support change, innovation, and renewal. In this regard the Development Brief (MEC, 1993:11&15) states:

> *In the process of rethinking our philosophy it is important to recognize that we are all learners. Learning is a lifelong activity - a process not an event. It is not something that happens once and then is over. It is something we do, not something we receive.*

and

> *It is important to stress again that we must all understand that learning continues throughout our lives. Our educators must design and refine strategies that make that both possible and satisfying.*

The colonial laws and regulations in Namibia had been phrased in the language of democracy, but at the same time had excluded the majority of Namibians from it. It is therefore necessary in the reformed education system that democracy becomes a central purpose of education at all levels:

> *In democratic education for a democratic society teachers must be active creators and managers of the learning environment and not its masters or caretakers. ... Just as education is a foundation for development., so is it a foundation for democracy. Building those foundations must be a conscious process in which all learners are engaged.* (MEC, 1993:42).

After independence the Ministry adopted new approaches and strategies consistent with its goals. The approach to teaching and learning is formulated in the following way:

> *Teaching begins with the interests of the learners, their level of maturity, their previous experiences, and the nature of the subject being taught. Our emphasis must be on the quality and meaningfulness*

> *of learning. ... Our teaching methods must allow for the active involvement and participation of learners in the learning process.*
> (Ibid, 60)

From the statements quoted from the Development Brief and from the historical background provided in chapter 2, it is clear that the way in which teaching and learning in independent Namibia is conceptualised and framed, is very different from what it had been before independence. This shift has had a major impact on the way in which the role and the task of the teacher was perceived in post-independent Namibia. It also provided the rationale for the policy of developing reflective practitioners through teacher education programmes.

Rationale for the Development of Reflective Practice in Namibia

In this chapter and for the purpose of this study 'reflection' and 'reflective practice' is discussed and explored in the light of the literature reviewed. The discussion aims to provide the context for the use and understanding of the terms and to define what these have come to mean in the Namibian situation.

The enthusiasm for reflective teaching in recent years and at present in many countries may be partly explained in terms of an attempt to understand more fully what is distinctive about teachers' professional development and to come to terms with its complexity. Notions of reflection have become popular in recent discussions on teacher education. What reflection actually amounts to, however, is less clear. Several notions of reflection are identifiable in the literature: reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action (Schön,1983 and 1987); deliberate reflection (Pollard, 1996); reflection-on-practice, reflection-in-practice, and reflection-for-practice (Brubacher et al,1994). Attempts to generate more reflection amongst student teachers and teachers have taken many forms, e.g. reflective journals, action research/critical practitioner inquiry, and the use of theory and research evidence as analytical frameworks.

Cole (1997:12) argues that although the concept of reflection is by no means new in education, the terms *'reflection'* and *'reflective practice'* have become over-used to the point of saturation in the last two decades. According to her, " 'Reflection', in its many and varied articulations, might very well be one of the most frequently used (and misused) words in the teacher education vernacular." She also argues that the term has become ill-defined through over-use and as a result many authors have tried to define, clarify and understand the many interpretations and uses of reflection and reflective teaching (e.g. Handal and Lauvas, 1987; Clift et al., 1990; Russell and Munby, 1992; Valli, 1992; Calderhead and Gates, 1993; Zeichner, 1994).

Zeichner (1996:200) holds the following view on the reflective practice movement:

> *Although those who have embraced the slogan of reflective practice appear to share certain goals about the active role of teachers in school reform, in reality one cannot tell very much about an approach to teaching or teacher education from an expressed commitment to the idea of teachers as reflective practitioners. Underlying the apparent similarity among those who have embraced the slogan of reflective practice are vast differences in perspectives about teaching, learning, schooling, and the social order. It has come to the point now that the whole range of such beliefs have become incorporated into the discourse about reflective practice. It seems that everyone, regardless of ideological orientation, has jumped on the bandwagon at this point...*

Zeichner (1996) goes on to argue that reflective teacher education has done very little to foster genuine teacher development and to enhance teachers' roles in educational reform. He maintains that instead an *'illusion of teacher development'* has often been created which has kept teachers in a subservient position. In order to overcome this situation, he argues that reflective practice in teacher education should be seen within the broader context of equity and social justice in schooling and the larger society. It is within this broader view that reflective practice in teacher education in Namibia has its foundation.

This will be discussed in more detail when the findings of the study are presented.

However, regardless of how the concept is defined and interpreted, reflection is generally considered to be a desirable attitude and practice to foster among educators. At a time when teachers are more and more being portrayed and seen in educational policy as technicians and/or deliverers of the curriculum, reflective teaching offers promise of an alternative conceptualisation that appropriately recognises the thoughtful and professional aspects of teachers' work (Calderhead and Gates, 1993). Bennett (1995) maintains that the work of education cannot simply be reduced to mere technical concerns, but that teachers must engage with important moral issues and therefore they need to reflect on their activities. Reflective teaching in some countries has also been associated with a call for teacher empowerment and emancipation, enabling teachers to examine ideologies critically and to consider the value basis of their own practice (Zeichner, 1996).

It is believed, and this is supported by the work of Schön (1987), that reflective practice supports growth in professional knowledge as reflective practitioners become more aware of their own actions; become more skilled in the use of evidence; more knowledgeable both in teaching and about teaching; and more able to identify and analyse the consequences of their actions. Reflective practice therefore incorporates the development of problem-solving and reflecting on events to improve decision-making and judgements. Teaching as a profession requires the teacher to go beyond the exercise of craft skills to diagnose problems, evaluate possible responses and adopt a chosen course of action (Bennett, 1995). Nowadays, more than ever, teaching involves dealing constantly with a range of problems, deciding what to do about them and correcting and adapting plans according to new situations and emerging contexts. This notion of reflective practice is in line with Dewey's teaching that the aim of education is to

teach students **how** to think, not **what** to think. This is also supported by Schön (1987) who claims:

> *The problems of real-world practice do not present themselves to practitioners as well-formed structures. They present themselves as messy, indeterminate situations.*

The notion of reflective teaching stems from Dewey (1933:17) who contrasted 'routine action' with 'reflective action'. According to his theory, routine action is guided by such factors as tradition, habit, and authority and by institutional definitions and expectations. It is therefore relatively static and thus unresponsive to changing priorities and circumstances. Reflective action, on the other hand, involves a willingness to engage in constant self-appraisal and development which implies flexibility, rigorous analysis and social awareness.

The Context of Reflective Practice in Namibia

The South African colonial regime directed, created and imposed a segregated educational system on the people of Namibia, denying them control over the education and socialisation of their own children. The colonial system prevented the notion of a unified Namibian people by emphasising ethnic differences. Among other reasons for embarking on the transformation of the educational system, was the desire to stop the loss of children's minds to a foreign philosophy with foreign goals, which attempted to alienate rather than to reconcile.

The strategy of the South African colonial rule was that it tended to exaggerate and aggravate ethnic differences, with the result that the impact of education could be said to have been disintegrative rather than integrative. What applied to South African Blacks in terms of educational policy and provision, were also made applicable to the indigenous peoples of Namibia.

The very explicit intention of Bantu Education was that Blacks should be restricted to the lowest grades, with their ambitions restricted to a tribal context. The majority of them attended schools which were in deep disarray and poorly managed; with little in terms of established routines; and very little by way of a shared sense of the significance of systematic learning. This resulted in a legacy of widespread cynicism about the value of learning, while at the same time fostering idealistic views in aspiring to the same ideals of White education (Avenstrup and Swarts, 1992).

When Namibia attained independence in 1990 there was a dramatic reversal of this policy, with the emphasis on the equality of educational opportunity and provision for the individual child. The teacher was as a result perceived to be a crucial factor in educational reform. Diesterweg said the following in this regard in 1865 which still holds true today:

> *The school is worth precisely what the teacher is worth and for this reason any improvement in teacher education is a first step in any educational reform.* (From Goodings et al, 1982:121).

Through transforming the education system in Namibia, learning was intended to become active, purposeful and goal-oriented. The emphasis therefore, in teacher education, is now on both content and on how student teachers think about content, as well as on digesting ideas and finding meaning in what they have to learn through their own thinking, not the textbook's or the teacher educator's. Intrinsic in the fostering of critical and reflective practice is that there can be multiple views on and solutions to problems.

The new challenges and demands for schools and teachers emerge from new and heightened expectations of schools; advances in research on teaching and learning; and the need to manage classrooms which are increasingly diverse in terms of ethnic, linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Organisation for the Economic Cooperation and

Development,1994). These new challenges and demands require new capacities, new knowledge and new ways of looking at practice on the part of teachers. Schools in many countries and also in Namibia, are now being organised in different ways, in terms of both the tasks and the responsibilities assigned to teachers. In such an environment teachers must be able to accommodate continuing changes - in the content of what is to be taught and how it can be taught best. Schools in the modern world, of which Namibia is part, need to facilitate both social continuity and social change (Craft, 1996). The professional development of teachers therefore aims, in the Namibian context, to something that goes far beyond the passing on of approved methods, or just conforming to approved ideas of professional purpose, content and method. In this respect the Development Brief (MEC, 1993:80-1) states:

> *The central focus of Basic Education is on the learner's needs, potential, and abilities. Learner-centred education presupposes that teachers have a holistic view of the learner, valuing the learner's life experience as a starting point for their studies. Teachers must therefore have sufficient knowledge and skills to be able to interpret syllabi and subject content in terms of the aims and objectives of Basic Education and to relate these to the learner. Teachers should be able to select content and methods on the basis of a shared analysis of the learner's needs, use local and natural resources as an alternative or supplement to ready-made study materials, and thus develop their own and the learner's creativity.*

Pollard (1985) explains that in complex and rapidly changing societies the dilemmas in education are numerous. These include, among others:

- lack of stable, coherent and generally acceptable specification of educational aims;

- commitments, opinions and priorities among teachers and other educationists take many forms;

- socially and politically sensitiveness of educational issues; and

- diffuse and ill-defined role of teachers subject to particular types of pressures at particular times. Kutz and Roskelly (1991) describe the situation that teachers generally found themselves in before the practices pertaining to teacher development were changed. The practices included, among others, the following:

- active teachers met passive learners;

- right answers were sorted out from wrong ones;

- knowledge was seen as static and quantifiable, rather than fluid and dynamic, something to be passed down but not made;

- knowledge was dispensed like a pill and learners swallowed it to get an education;

- answers were learned and the process of inquiry was neglected;

- teachers were not trained to ask questions about their own learning or about the classroom settings they created;

- teachers were consumers of educational theory and classroom methods; and

- learners were consumers of predigested skills.

The situation sketched above, could just as easily have been utilised to describe the Namibian educational system just emerging from the legacies of the colonial regime.

In a multicultural and multilingual society like the Namibian society, it was realised by policy makers after independence that if teachers were to become the agents, facilitators and implementers of change, then they should be prepared for reasoning within multiple points of view; raising root questions; dealing rationally with controversy; learning to distinguish between substantiated and unsubstantiated

opinion; making evaluations based on fairness, flexibility and mutually agreed upon standards; and exploring and questioning personal beliefs. Memorisation and association therefore have to play small roles as the process of critical thinking is the only way to digest content and unless content and practice are reflected upon and internalised, they go unlearned. On the basis of this theory the transformation of teacher education in Namibia incorporated the development of critical thinking and reflective practice as very important aspects. In this regard the rationale for a new teacher education programme includes the following:

> *The BETD is based on a democratic pedagogy, a methodology which promotes learning through understanding, and practice directed towards empowerment to shape the conditions of one's own life. As such it relates closely to the curriculum intentions of Basic Education, and to the context of the school in society.*
> (MBEC AND MHEVTST, 1998:2).

This rationale is consistent with what Darling-Hammond, Ancess and Falk (1995:254) refer to as

> *This kind of professional development takes teachers out of the role of passive receivers of information and places them instead in the position of collaboratively and actively constructing knowledge about teaching.*

The aims of the BETD include inter alia the following:

> *Basic Teacher Education will strive to develop a reflective attitude and creative, analytical and critical thinking*
>
> and
>
> *develop the ability to create learning opportunities which will enable learners to explore different ways of knowing, and develop the whole range of their thinking abilities.*
> (ibid:4-5).

From the above it follows logically that in order for the teachers to enable learners to explore different ways of knowing and to develop the whole range of the learners' thinking abilities, the teachers themselves must have been enabled to experience and to explore different ways

of knowing, must be lifelong learners and must be able themselves to think in different and new ways. These are among the reasons why the Ministry embarked on the policy to develop reflective practice among prospective and serving teachers.

What is Reflective Practice?

As was already indicated at the beginning of the chapter, the meaning of the notion of reflection and reflective practice is not being dealt with consistently in the literature on professional development and teacher education. Leat (1995) states that reflection or reflective practice is a popular slogan in both teacher education and professional development. These terms disguise a large number of conceptual variations and therefore there is no single adequate definition which is comprehensive enough to embrace all the features potentially relevant to reflective teaching. However, what does become clear from the review of literature on reflection is that it is not a linear process. According to Pollard (1997) reflective teaching is applied in a cyclical or spiralling process in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously. It is therefore a dynamic process, intended to lead through successive cycles towards higher quality teaching. Pollard also argues that reflection is a fundamental necessity for professional teachers because there are no simple prescriptions concerning what 'best' educational practice might be.

Over the last decade reflection has come to be widely recognised as an important and even crucial element in the professional development and growth of teachers. Reflective terminology such as *'reflective teaching'*, *'inquiry-oriented teacher education'*, *'teacher as researcher'* and *'reflective practitioner'* are being used in various ways and are informed by diverse theoretical frameworks (Calderhead and Gates, 1993). The reflective approach draws on Schön's (1983, 1987) and Dewey's (1933) works. Dewey's distinction between

action based on reflection and action which is impulsive, and his emphasis on the need to have certain attitudes of openmindedness and skills of thinking and reasoning in order to reflect, have shaped the thinking of many researchers and teacher educators on reflective teaching. Dewey's notion of reflective practice embodies six key characteristics which are:

1) reflective teaching implies an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency;
2) reflective teaching is applied in a cyclical or spiralling process, in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously;
3) reflective teaching requires competence in methods of classroom enquiry, to support the development of teaching competence;
4) reflective teaching requires attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness;
5) it is based on teacher judgement, which is informed partly by self-reflection and partly by insights from educational disciplines; and
6) reflective teaching, professional learning and personal fulfillment are enhanced through collaboration and dialogue with colleagues.

Dewey also recognised that it is possible to 'reflect' on many things in the sense of merely 'thinking about' them; however, logical or analytical reflection can take place only when there is a real problem to be solved. Schön (1983,1987) developed the notion of *'reflection-in-action'* - i.e. the idea that professionals engage in reflective conversations with practical situations, where they constantly frame and reframe a problem as they work on it, testing out their interpretations and solutions. Educators therefore need to realise that their actions as teachers take place in a context of meanings in which other participants (e.g. parents, learners, other teachers) have different interpretations, understandings and maybe even different constructions of reality. The reflective educator

thus needs to take into account the different interpretations, understandings and construction of reality in order to embark on 'reflective conversations'. In this way Schön's work has stimulated considerable thought about the importance of increasing professionals', including teachers', awareness of the causes and consequences of their action through research on their own situation (Carr and Kemmis, 1986) at a time when the emphasis in teacher education was shifting from a 'theory into practice' model into the experiential one where relevant theory develops side by side with practice.

Grimmet et al(1990) use the term 'deliberative reflection' in a similar way as McCarthy et al (1989) use the term 'strategic reflection' in which knowledge about teaching is relativistic, dependent on context, and is used to inform, not to direct, practice. Problems in teaching are examined from several practical and philosophical perspectives before a decision is reached on a particular course of action. Externally-derived knowledge about teaching is less important. Reflection is more personally grounded and is used to apprehend and transform experience.

LaBoskey (1993) holds the view that both cognitive ability and conducive beliefs, values, attitudes and emotions are necessary for reflective teaching. The individual, according to LaBoskey's study, needs to be willing and able to suspend judgement while actively searching for supporting and conflicting evidence and, when reaching a conclusion, to do so with temperance and a consideration of the potential short and long term consequences. The individual must also be able to describe and analyse the structural features of an educational situation, issue or problem; must be able to gather and evaluate information as to the possible sources of the dilemma under consideration in order to generate multiple alternative solutions; and must be able to integrate all of the information into a considered conclusion about or solution for the problem identified. Reflective teachers therefore reflect in order to learn to

improve their understanding of, feelings about, and responses to the world of teaching. The primary outcome is a new comprehension and a new perspective.

McIntyre (1993:43) agrees that reflection is " systematic inquiry into one's own practice to improve practice and to deepen one's understanding of it." He therefore argues that reflection "is a much more central means of learning for experienced practitioners, than it can or need be for novices". The reasons he uses to support his argument are:

1) experienced teachers are able to learn much more through reflection on their experience as they have extensive repertoires of past experiences on which they can draw to illuminate problems; and

2) experienced teachers are less well placed to use and gain access to ideas from others than novices.

However, he does not dispute that novices can gain better understanding and therefore can improve practice as a result of reflecting on their actions. Novices, through reflection on their own teaching, can be helped to see the need for ideas from other sources and to gain access to useful ideas from various other sources. He also states that reflection has only a limited importance as a means to learning for the student teacher, but learning to reflect should be an important goal for student teachers, since "it is through reflection on their own teaching that they will increasingly with experience be able to continue learning" (McIntyre, 1993:44).

Tann (1993:57) suggests that "reflective practice requires the practitioner to elicit and identify their personal theories, to explore these by examining their rationale, by problematizing and looking for alternative analyses, then to compare these with peers and with public theories before attempting to reformulate the theory and test it against further practice". Reflection can thus allow the individual

to free him/herself of habitual ways of thinking, to transform perspectives and to establish belief on a firm base of evidence and rationality.

It is Russell's (1993:145) view that the environment plays an important role in the development and sustaining of reflective practice as " most teachers would be reflective most of the time in an appropriate and supportive school environment". In many settings teachers are not in general encouraged to achieve new understanding that result from making changes in their teaching, as the belief is still that new and improved knowledge is gained from external sources and 'experts', rather than from personal experience and by listening, rather than by acting. According to Russell, being reflective serves little purpose if it does not involve, in central and essential ways, changes to teaching, as well as development of thinking about teaching. This view is supported by Richert (1995:1) who believes that learning, for all teachers, must be centrally aligned with teaching. Richert further states:

> *Learning is continuous as reflective teachers engage in the work of thinking and doing in classrooms. In this way learning is central to teaching.* (Richert, 1995:2)

Clark (1992:76) states that the maturing professional teacher is "one who has taken some steps toward making explicit his or her implicit theories and beliefs about learners, curriculum, subject matter, and the teacher's role". He or she has developed a style of planning for teaching and learning that includes several interrelated types of planning that continue to grow and change with professional experience. They reflect on and analyse the results of their teaching and become researchers on their own teaching effectiveness. Clark therefore argues that teachers, individually and collectively, should take charge of their own professional development, which he calls 'self-directed professional development'. This is based on the position that teachers are in general knowledgeable, skilful and creative enough, active enough and more diverse and unique

than homogeneous. They thus need to be involved in their own professional development in terms of providing direction and making certain choices.

In Grant's (1984) view reflective teaching occurs when teachers question and clarify why they have chosen their classroom methods, procedures and content. He states that reflective teaching includes studying the school environment in relation to their choices to determine how the environment encourages or hinders reflective practice. Reflective teaching is therefore an on-going process that involves careful re-examination of what has been done, and the social context in which it was done in order to improve practice. It is thinking analytically about goals, teaching actions and the teaching environment, and using those thoughts to improve future teaching.

Brubacher et al (1994:19) suggest that concerns with reflective practice are closely linked to efforts to empower teachers. Fosnot (Brubacher, 1994:19) notes in this regard that an empowered teacher is a reflective decision maker who finds joy in learning and in investigating the teaching/ learning process - one who views learning as construction and teaching as a facilitating process to enhance and enrich development.

Zeichner (1994:10-1) holds the view that reflection "signifies a recognition that the generation of knowledge about good teaching is not the exclusive property of colleges, universities, and research and development centres". It recognises that teachers can and should play active roles in formulating the "purposes and end of their work" and that teaching and educational reform need to be put in the hands of teachers.

At the time when the policy for the development of reflective practice through the BETD programme was devised, much of the literature reviewed in this chapter had not been consulted by either the policy makers or the implementers of the policy. The guidance for the development of the policy was

derived from the Namibian Constitution and the goals of equity, access, quality and democratic participation. However, the thinking underlying the policy seems to be in line with developments in teacher education as described in the literature reviewed. The policy seems to reflect a combination of the various elements described in the literature as desirable for the development of reflective practice. Only a few of these are discussed now to illustrate this point.

Consistent with Zeichner's views on reflection, the Namibian Ministry recognised the central role that teachers had to play in the reform. Also consistent with Zeichner's view was that teachers themselves, in order to improve the quality of education in Namibia, must contribute to "a codified knowledge base for teaching". In this way they will gain a deeper understanding of their contexts and their practices and will bring this understanding to bear on the improvement of their own teaching. In the pre-independence Namibian context wisdom and knowledge was to be derived entirely from the experience of others and from 'experts'. The Ministry recognised, as is described in the literature for other settings (e.g. Wade, 1994:231), that student teachers "tend to have images of teaching as telling and controlling and of learning as absorbing and conforming" and that they " tend to accept existing classroom practices as essentially unalterable and beyond criticism". Therefore, also consistent with what is reflected in the recent literature on teacher development, the Ministry embarked on a policy and its concomitant processes to change the traditional views on learning and teaching that students have acquired through twelve years and more of schooling by making it a necessary component of the BETD programme for student teachers to reflect on and critically analyse their prior experiences, assumptions, and methodolgies and approaches they believed to be suitable.

Given the situation the education system found itself in after independence, and in recognition of the fast changing technologies and their impact on society, but above all to free the Namibian teachers from the apartheid shackles

which left decision-making only to the higher levels in the system, the Ministry pursued the development of reflective practice. The Ministry embarked on this development for teachers to become independent thinkers and reflective decision makers (Fosnot, from Brubacher, 1994). They were also to to become aware of the social conditions of their practice in order to foster equity and social justice (Zeichner, 1994); In addition they were to acquire the perspective of learning as construction and teaching as a facilitating process for optimal learning. These principles are contained in the philosophy of learner-centred education adopted by the Ministry and are reflected in the goals of education and the aims of the BETD.

In the light of the discussion of reflection and reflective practice in the literature reviewed, it would be appropriate to attempt a definition of reflective practice in the context of the study.

Definition of Reflective Practice

Reflection and reflective practice is an emergent and constantly changing mosaic as developments take their course. The definition of reflective practice derives from what has been gleaned from the literature as desirable and acceptable, but above all from the researcher's understanding of historical forces, cultural context and political and educational developments in Namibia. It would be counterproductive to attempt to define reflective practice in Namibia in terms of theories developed in other educational settings and for other contexts, thus the definition draws on those which are found to be appropriate for the Namibian situation. It is therefore not going to be a definition *per se*, but an extrapolation of elements which can be applied in any setting. These elements could be adapted, modified and used in whatever combination is required for the specific setting. The definition of elements constituting reflective practice in Namibia does not imply that all these elements have already clearly emerged in the daily practices of student and serving teachers. However, the seeds have been

planted and the idea is that these elements are desirable and therefore ought to be nurtured to deal with situations which Schön (1987) refers to as unique cases. He goes on to say that problems of real-world practice do not present themselves to practitioners as well-formed structures, but as messy, indeterminate situations which call for a kind of improvisation, and inventing and testing of strategies.

From the literature examined, it has become clear that teachers engage in reflective teaching when they "can describe what they do, explain the meaning of what they do, understand how they came to be like they are, and identify what they might do differently" (Smyth, quoted from Etheridge, 1989:311). Reflection therefore is the process through which teachers find meaning in what they do and why they do it. However, this (finding meaning in what they do and why they do it) can vary considerably depending on the orientation, ideology and/or context in which reflection was carried out or investigated. Since reflective practice for teachers is directed primarily towards the improvement of classroom practice in order to optimise learning and thereby make it possible for every learner to reach her/his potential, reflective practice should contain some of the following elements:

- conscious and careful consideration and examination of own beliefs in order to question and evaluate assumptions;

- attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility, dedication and commitment, as reflection requires looking at alternatives and compromises, and the willingness to do more;

- awareness of the social context as ideological and institutional forces may impact upon or constrain freedom of action;

- analytical and critical thinking about goals, action, and environment and the best possible way(s) in which to achieve the goals in a specific environment;

- careful consideration of consequences of action as no action is carried out in a vacuum ;

- questioning and clarification of choice of methods, procedures and content which requires competence in and understanding of content and methods;

- deliberate and systematic inquiry into own practice, based on competence in methods of classroom inquiry;

- exchange of ideas and support between colleagues (collaboration and sharing of experiences as classroom dynamics are becoming increasingly unpredictable and more complex);

- skills of monitoring, analysing, evaluating and responding effectively and appropriately to new situations and demands as they occur;

- problem solving skills as reflection can take place only when there is a real problem to be solved;

- generation of new knowledge and deeper understanding of the situation;

- willingness to engage in constant self-appraisal and development;

- valuing of the principle of lifelong learning which is a continuous and dynamic process.

The elements listed are not meant to be exhaustive, but an attempt to describe what could be expected from an educator engaging in reflective practice. While, as can be seen from the above and from the multiple notions and interpretations of reflection and reflective practice, it is neither possible nor feasible to construct a single definition for reflection or reflective practice, It is clear that for these terms to acquire any meaning in a given context, it must include the above elements, if the aim is to improve practice and to support professional development.

Reflective Practice in the BETD

According to Fullan (1991 b:170) students are rarely thought of as participants in a process of change and organisational life. He further states (1991 b:326):

> *The teacher as learner is central to transcending the dependency now faced by teachers as they attempt to cope with streams of innovations and reforms constantly coming at them. Educational reform will never amount to anything until teachers become simultaneously and seamlessly inquiry oriented, skilled, reflective, and collaborative professionals. This is the core agenda for teacher education, and the key to bringing about meaningful, effective reform.*

As discussed in chapters 2 and 3 the Namibian educational reform is primarily concerned with achieving the post-independence goals of education. In the transformation of teacher education one of the major elements brought into play was to develop reflective teachers who would be able to cope with the system in transition and the demands of Education for All. In the effort to improve the quality of the post-independence educational system and to facilitate the transformation of the system, Namibian policy makers and educationists compared the effects of instruction that emphasised technical skills and principles to the effects of instruction that emphasised reflective and constructive processes. Before independence the technical approach was favoured, based on a prescriptive orientation that portrayed learning as acquiring principles and techniques. This came about as a result of the colonial rule and the imposed educational system.

The Ministry of Education and Culture after independence opted for the reflective approach in teacher development as it stresses the construction of concepts and principles in learners using the conceptual structures they already have and drawing upon their experiences. This approach is supportive of the philosophy of learner-centred education,

which became one of the pillars in the transformation of the system. In the context of the transformation of teacher education in Namibia, the training-and-coaching model which focused on expanding an individual repertoire of well-defined classroom practice was deemed to be inadequate to achieve the goals of the reform agenda. A new model, embodying assumptions about teacher learning and the transformation of schooling that would be more " compatible with the complex demands of reform and the equally complex contexts of teaching" had to be developed (Little, 1993). This model, which provides the underlying principles of the Basic Education Teacher Diploma, aims at helping student teachers and serving teachers become more aware of their existing knowledge and to take greater responsibility for their own learning. The policy makers realised that "any approach to teacher education which does not encourage teachers to reflect critically on generators of knowledge as well as consumers of knowledge. They have to learn to be inquirers, asking real questions about themselves as learners, questions about their learners and questions about the social factors that affect learning in their classrooms. Teachers who have been educated in this way will ensure that the reform agenda and the innovations will be carried into the classroom and will not just remain popular slogans. If real change is to occur in the Namibian system, reflective thinking must become a taken-for-granted lens through which teacher educators, serving teachers and student teachers conceptualise their practice. The challenge for Namibian teacher educators is to nurture students' confidence in the worth of their ideas, while at the same time, encouraging them to reflect on and to re-think their views on the basis of new experiences.

In the BETD programme the focus is on the kinds of reflection-in-action through which practitioners can make new sense of uncertain, unique or conflicted situations of practice. The underlying assumptions are that existing professional knowledge does not fit every case and neither does every problem have a right answer. Therefore the students must be

guided to devise new methods of reasoning, construct and test new categories of understanding, strategies of action and ways of framing problems (Schön, 1987). In this regard the practicum of the BETD (referred to as school-based studies) plays a central role as one of the mechanisms of fostering and developing reflective practice. According to Schön, the practicum is a virtual world: relatively free of the pressures, risks and distractions of the real one, to which, nevertheless it refers. It stands in an intermediate space between the 'virtual' world, the 'lay' world of ordinary life and the esoteric world of the academy. The practicum of the BETD seeks to represent essential features of practice to be learned, while enabling students to experiment at low risk; to vary the pace and focus of the work; and to go back and do things over when it seems necessary to do so. The role of teacher educators in this respect is thus a crucial element to the success of a reflective practicum. A reflective practicum is an experience of high interpersonal intensity. The learning situation, the student's vulnerability and the behavioural worlds created by teacher educators and students critically influence learning outcomes. In coherent professional development a reflective practicum is at the centre as a bridge between the worlds of the academy (college/ university) and the classroom.

The BETD paradigm also includes the concept of the teacher as researcher. According to Kutz and Roskelly (1991) a new image of the teacher as a researcher has begun to emerge, reflecting a deepening awareness of the importance of teachers' questions in the making of pedagogical theory. It is therefore necessary for students to learn to see their questions as the beginning of an inquiry that will lead them to new understandings. They need to learn to look at their learners and ask questions about how they learn and then create a theory to guide their learners' learning. Hoover (1994:83) supports the notion of the teacher as researcher and suggests that

> *reflection moves [teachers] away from a competency-based evaluation toward an emerging philosophy that stresses the extent to which teachers can accurately*

> *monitor their teaching behavior, the ways in which teaching behavior affects the behavior of students, and the unique concerns of diverse teaching contexts.*

Critical inquiry recognises that practice takes place in contexts and the teacher as researcher must make these contexts clear. Reflection, which incorporates the notion of inquiry, is the attempt to grasp the essential meaning of something and that meaning is multi-dimensional and multi-layered. Elliott (1991a:313) underscores this issue when he states:

> *Learning to be a reflective practitioner is learning to reflect about one's experience of complex human situations holistically. It is always a form of experiential learning.*

He also argues (1991b:15) that the

> *institutionalization of 'action research' and 'teachers as researchers' as approaches to teacher education within academic institutions raises a number of critical issues for tutors and supervisors to reflect about. If we are to facilitate reflective practice as a form of educational inquiry in schools, then we must treat teacher education as a reflective practice also.*

Teacher education as a reflective practice embodies a form of mutual professional learning which requires a transformation of both school (practice) and academic (theoretical) cultures.

Teachers often feel threatened by 'theory' - it is produced by outsiders so teachers feel that they have no control over it, and they perceive it as the product of power exercised through the mastery of a specialised body of techniques. This points towards the dilemma that theory is often wrongly seen as the opposite of practice. But theories are only ways of thinking about the world and making sense of it, trying to explain as much as one can in a coherent way. In the view of Bennett (1995) the reflective approach can resolve this dilemma as it expects the reflective practitioner to look for ideas which may help to generate strategies for dealing with the problem, and to explore the realms of theory as well as others' practice in order to analyse the situation.

Mechanisms to Promote Reflective Practice in the BETD

The mechanisms through which the BETD programme attempts to develop reflective practice include, among others, the following:

- opportunities and situations which enable students to question and analyse their assumptions about teaching and learning;

- building of relations of trust between students and teacher educators;

- reconciliation of the traditional relationships of teacher educators, teachers and student teachers by creating a greater sense of equality of responsibility, status, experience, trust and confidence through the participative engagement in critical analysis and reflection (e.g. all of them participated extensively and critically in the appraisal of the BETD curriculum and the evaluation of the programme);

- school-based studies for the pre-service groups which provide student teachers with the opportunity to experiment in a safe environment with new ideas, insights and strategies;

- practice-based inquiry for the in-service teachers which enable them to test new categories of understanding and strategies of action, and thereby acquire new insights which can guide different methods of reasoning;

- opportunities for students and teachers, through action research projects, to acquire the skills and attitudes for critical inquiry;

- engagement in reflective writing through diaries and journals;

- opportunities for collaborative and team work;

- integration of theory and practice.

These mechanisms, in various combinations, seem to have been guided by Van Manen's taxonomy of reflectivity. According to Van Manen (from Brubacher et al, 1994:20) three levels exist in progressing to critical or emancipatory thinking. The first level is concerned with the effective application of skills and technical knowledge for the attainment of specified goals. This level is associated with the student teachers' engagement within the classroom and school, during the course of which they are exposed to and begin to build up a repertoire of skills. While engaged at this level, student teachers are required through the BETD programme to observe and record the social and learning processes in the school and the classroom. These skills of observation are in preparation for the activities in the next level. The second level involves reflection about the assumptions underlying specific classroom practice, as well as about the consequences of particular strategies and actions. In this regard they are assisted by their observations and their reflection on the observations through diary writing and journals. The third level, sometimes called critical reflection entails the questioning of moral, ethical and normative criteria directly and indirectly related to the classroom. At this level students are required to theorise their experiences and to make judgements and decisions.

Factors Influencing the Development of Reflective Practice

A few factors which can influence the development of reflective practice are discussed in this section. The examples listed are by no means intended to be exhaustive, but are employed to illustrate some of the shifts which will have to take place to create a conducive environment for reflective practice in any setting. The examples are drawn from the American context, but are to a large extent appropriate and relevant for the Namibian situation as Namibia, like other countries, is experiencing reform, innovation, and change in its educational system and therefore

in the way teaching and learning is conceptualised.

According to Falk (1996:28-9) teachers need to develop the skills and capacities that are required to take charge of their own thinking and their own learning. She further argues that

> *Just as students learn through active inquiry, social interaction, and personal reflection, teachers learn to teach in a constructivist manner by experiencing constructivist learning themselves. As they apply these learnings with their students, they learn even more about teaching because the very process of constructivist teaching provides numerous opportunities to gain new knowledge...*

She goes on to say that new forms of teaching need to be developed that are solidly based on emerging understandings of how human beings engage in learning. These understandings call for changes in the processes, contexts, and content of teacher education and professional development programmes. Teachers need to become learners themselves who continually investigate the learning process; who become more conscious and responsive to the ways in which differences impact on the learning process; and who communicate their methods for learner support and development clearly. This in turn implies that if teachers are to acquire these skills, knowledge and attitudes, they need to experience opportunities which will enable the acquisition of these attributes. The college environment needs to provide the opportunities and enabling conditions for this to happen. Teacher educators are therefore required, through their own practice, to act as role models for student teachers.

Teachers are willing and eager to participate in activities that challenge them and promote professional development (Lieberman and McLaughlin, 1996:72). Such activities can be initiated through collaborative and collegial networks providing opportunities for professional growth and social interaction. Networks can create discourse communities that encourage exchange amongst members and can provide leadership opportunities. They therefore can provide teachers and students with the motivation to challenge existing practices

and to grow professionally as a result.

Szabo (1996:77) expresses the view that new structures and practices "without mechanisms for building clarity and commitment to the new purposes and goals of reform, will result in little impact on improving learning". According to her changing formal structures is not the same as changing norms, habits, skills and beliefs. A process of reculturing alongside the process of restructuring is necessary to ensure deep and lasting change which will facilitate habits of reflection and inquiry.

According to Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1996:93) what is missing from the knowledge base for teaching "are the voices of teachers themselves, the questions teachers ask, the ways teachers use writing and intentional talk in their work lives, and the interpretive frames teachers use to understand and improve their own classroom practices". Teacher research can provide rich data about classroom life, reveal what teachers regard as important issues about learning and teaching and influence teachers' decision making.

Lieberman (1996:187) is of the opinion that too many in-service programmes are unattached to what happens in the classroom and are often a melange of abstract ideas paying little attention to ongoing support for continuous learning and changed practices. A move to practices that involve learning in school as well as learning out of school/ college is necessary. According to her it is of critical importance that professional development be seen as an integral part of school life and school development.

A departure from old norms and models of teacher training to new images of what, when, and how teachers learn, is necessary for professional development which will support reflective practice (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1996:203). The new images imply a shift from policies that seek to control or direct the work of teachers, to strategies intended to "develop the capacity of schools and teachers to be

responsible for student learning".

Like their learners, teachers learn by doing, reading, and reflecting; collaborating with other teachers; looking closely at learners and their work; and sharing with others what they discover. This kind of learning, according to Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1996:204) enables teachers to make the leap from theory to practice. However, to understand deeply, "teachers must learn about, see, and experience successful learning-centred and learner-centred teaching practices".

According to Zeichner and Liston (1987) reflective practice requires a supportive environment in which it can be fostered. Cole (1997:13) argues that "given the conditions and values of today's schools, the paradigm of the reflective teacher may be destined to become the Edsel of education - a concept ahead of its time and inappropriate for its intended context" and as a result "while the concepts of reflection and reflective practice have become mainstream in the academic and educational research community, professional contexts do not encourage or support reflective practice or reflective practitioners" (ibid:7). The question which arises in relation to the above is whether school systems, in fact, want and can accommodate reflective teachers, since education managers may find it easier to work with teachers who do not question and who prescribe to a pedagogy of answers rather than a pedagogy of questions.

In Namibia the process of developing reflective practitioners has just started with the introduction of the BETD programme. Since the underlying principles and the ethos and dispositions required for reflective practice need to be understood and internalised by teacher educators and student teachers alike over a period of time, only a working definition, describing what the ideal situation should be, is attempted. In the Namibian context the ideal profile for reflective practitioners would include the following:

- to "know in action" (to have the necessary understandings

and foundation for theory and practice to mutually support each other);

- to care for the individual learner and to make it possible for every learner to reach her/his potential;

- to be aware of the fundamental principles of democracy, equity and social justice and within the context of their daily work to find ways and means to foster these;

- to work actively towards achieving the aims and objectives of the educational system which place the learner at the heart of the educational enterprise;

- to appreciate the challenges faced by the educational system;

- to acquire the attitudes and dispositions to cope with the constantly changing and evolving educational environment;

- to try to overcome the constraints by creative and innovative strategies; and

- to become lifelong learners.

The realities and constraints which make it difficult for teachers to become reflective practitioners are:

- day-to-day institutional demands

- lack of time for reflection

- pressures to cover the required curriculum

- large class sizes

- diverse groups of learners

- lack of resources and support
- numerous and persistent outside interferences
- pressure to comply and conform to the prevalent culture of the institution
- educational managers who do not share the same model of reflection
- slow adaptation of teacher educators to new practices
- discrepancy between how the concept of reflective practice is understood and practiced in the academic community and how it is understood and practiced in the professional community.

In the Namibian context, since the new teacher education programme has been constructed around the concept of developing reflective teachers to achieve the reform agenda and the goals of education, the questions which need to be considered carefully are:

- How can the right ethos be created at colleges of education to foster the development of reflective practitioners?
- What elements in the programme will enhance reflection?
- What conditions are necessary for teachers to engage in reflection on their practice?
- How can reflective contexts be created and sustained?
- Are the aims of reflective teaching programmes too ambitious and do they set targets which are virtually impossible to achieve with the majority of students?

Some of these issues will be illuminated by the methodology selected and the data gathered through the field work which will be discussed in the next chapters.

In Namibia, as in other settings as illustrated by the literature reviewed, the notion of teacher development is

very dependent on the attitudes and skills of the teacher educators and the environment in which they operate as 'street-level bureaucrats'. Traditionally in teacher education, teacher educators have served a gatekeeping function, guarding entry and ensuring quality control in the production of teachers (Calderhead and Gates, 1993). Teacher educators in Namibia found it difficult to reconcile their new role as facilitator of learning to their examining role of the previous dispensation. Students have also found it difficult to marry the two roles as a result of their assumptions about and conceptualisation of teaching and learning. The Ministry therefore devoted a substantial effort to the professional and attitudinal development of teacher educators and to the development of supportive environments in which reflection could be fostered. Some examples in this respect are: the Reform Facilitators based at each college to work alongside teacher educators on their daily tasks and to create new opportunities of learning for them; the establishment of Educational Development Units at each college to provide the necessary physical and material resources to support inquiry; and regular opportunities for intra- and inter-college activities.

The Namibian experience is beginning to point towards a model of reflection which has as a pre-condition appropriate attitudes and skills in teacher educators; student teachers and serving teachers taking more responsibility for their professional development; a responsive and receptive environment to new ideas and strategies at both college and school level; and policies, procedures and structures which support reflection. This perception will be discussed in chapters 8 and 9.

CHAPTER 7

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

> *The faithful witness ... is at his* (her) *best when he* (she) *concentrates on questioning and avoids the specialist's obsession with solutions.*
> (Saul, Voltaire's Bastards, 1992, quoted from Fullan, 1993:1)

In this chapter the study's research design and methodology is discussed. The study explores the educational system in transition and attempts to map and chart developments as they occur in the evolving scenario of educational reform. At the same time it tries to explain and to interpret the developments and processes. It also endeavours to evaluate the perceptions and actions of those involved in the study in the context of the transformation of the educational system, and in particular in the context of teacher education reform. The researcher has taken a systems view in conducting the research, as the reform of teacher education is integral to the larger transformation of the educational system. The system referred to in the study includes learners, student teachers, teachers, teacher educators, administrators, policy makers, and the larger community, but also curriculum materials, policy documents and other resources. In combination, they form a network of relationships, resources actions, and reactions that are closely interdependent. The research design and the methodology and instruments selected, endeavour to capture the essence of the processes of the reform, the nuances of the relationships and the context for actions and reactions, in order to explore and explain the principles and policies underlying the reform.

Research Design

Qualitative research methodology was mainly chosen as the study aims to elicit the views, beliefs and experiences of the different participants in the process; to interpret the

intentions of the policies; and to explore to what extent the policies have been implemented and what the consequences are. According to Locke et al (in Creswell, 1994:161) "the intent of qualitative research is to understand a particular social situation, event, role, group, or interaction". Hitchcock and Hughes(1995:25) state that a "qualitative research orientation places individual actors at its centre, it will focus upon context, meaning, culture, history and biography". Hitchcock and Hughes(1995:26) further state:

> *Applied to educational contexts qualitative or naturalistic research recognizes that what goes on in our schools* (and colleges) *and classrooms is made up of complex layers of meanings, interpretations, values and attitudes. Schools, classrooms and their participants have histories and careers, teachers and pupils have their own educational and life histories, departmental members engage in interpersonal relations, conflicts and alliances emerge, responses to innovation and institutionalization ensure that schools and classrooms have cultures and an ethos. A firm understanding of these variables and the ways in which they interact to create the politics and dynamics of educational change requires a qualitative appreciation of these factors. That is, qualification of actions, ideas, values and meanings through the eyes of participants rather than quantification through the eyes of an outside observer.*

In order to solicit how the various participants in the reform process experienced the reform and "constructed the world around them" a number of instruments were employed to collect data at various stages during the study. This was in part necessary to get as holistic a view as possible of the processes(Creswell, 1994) and to provide a "thick description of the people, places,and conversations"(Denzin,1989), but also for triangulation purposes to verify findings and thus to enhance validity and reliability (Denzin, 1970). Denzin (1978) advocates triangulation, i.e. a combination of methodologies and data to provide cross-data validity checks and to provide multiple perspectives. Triangulation techniques in the social sciences attempt to describe more fully the complexity, diversity and richness of human behaviour and human interaction, by studying it from more than one perspective and by making

use of both quantitative and qualitative data. Cohen and Manion, (1994:233)quote Lin as stating

> *Exclusive reliance on one method, therefore, may bias or distort the researcher's picture of the particular slice of reality she is investigating. She needs to be confident that the data generated are not simply artefacts of one specific method of collection.*

The research instruments utilised were: questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and a case study. These instruments were selected because of their multi-purposeness and flexibility. Hakim (1992:61) states that the use of a variety of data collection techniques and methods "allows a more rounded, holistic, study than with any other design". At the time when this study was conducted, the researcher was also involved in other studies for teacher education reform, e.g. monitoring of the implementation of the BETD at the colleges, and the formative evaluation of the programme. Data collected for these studies has also been examined and where applicable, are being referred to in this study in order to further illuminate some of the findings. The instruments utilised for these exercises were questionnaires, interviews, classroom observation, and reflective writing, e.g. diaries.

Decisions made about the chosen methodology and the development of instruments were based on the developmental nature of the study and the reflective practice model aspired to in Ministry policy. The study in itself is intended to be a piece of reflective practice, and the methodology is "qualitative-naturalistic-formative" (i.e. trying to elicit meanings as they develop in their natural situation) as it is " especially appropriate for developing, innovative, or changing programs where the focus is on program improvement, facilitating more effective implementation, and exploring a variety of effects on participants"(Patton, 1990).

The research strategies and procedures employed for the study therefore encompass more than a series of techniques carried out in compartmentalised stages (Vulliamy et al, 1990). Burgess (1984:2) points out that:

Recent developments in research methodology indicate that 'methodology' involves a consideration of research design, data collection, data analysis, and theorizing together with the social, ethical and political concerns of the social researcher. In short, research is no longer viewed as a linear model but as a social process.

Aims and Rationale of the Study

As indicated in chapter 1 the research is concerned with the study of the process of transforming teacher education in Namibia, from policies and practices which prepared teachers for a content-based curriculum for a few in a segregated system, to a learner-centred curriculum for all in a unified and integrated basic education system.

The areas to be explored, investigated and analysed are:

1) the process of change as manifested in the stated goals and policies for educational development with particular reference to teacher education;

2) the construction of contrasting models of professional practice from the pre-independence content-based teacher education modes to the post- independence emphasis on developing reflective practice;

3) the outcome of the new teacher education policy as shown in the development of reflective practice in the three groups of student teachers.

As the study has as one of its aims the construction or improvement of models and policies for teacher education, it was deemed necessary to understand and describe the dynamic interactions and their holistic effects on the participants so as to provide information for programme improvement (Patton, 1990).

In order to understand the dynamic processes, the methodological approach adopted for this study attempts to

elicit information on the world views of chosen participants and attempts to view the world from their perspective. This provides for a broader perspective necessary for logical, understandable and valid explanations and descriptions for actions, processes and trends against the backdrop of human behaviour (Sherman et al, 1990). This in turn leads to findings which will be grounded in specific contexts and thus the theories and/or models that may result from the findings will be grounded in real-world patterns.

The Researcher' Role

The researcher, was at the commencement of the study Chief Education Officer(CEO) for Teacher Education, and later Director of the National Institute for Educational Development, and was intimately involved in the conceptualisation, design and implementation of the BETD programme at the colleges (for pre-service) and through the Teachers' Resource Centres (in-service). This involvement came about as a result of the National Institute having being given the mission to spearhead and coordinate the reform of the educational system through innovative curriculum and language development; research; and professional development. The researcher, as a result of the intimate involvement in the developments and processes, recognises that her perceptions, interpretation and understanding of the developments, trends and processes may have been shaped by her personal experiences and involvement, and therefore she may bring a certain bias to this study. All research has such problems of research involvement to a greater or lesser extent. As indicated by Creswell (1994:147) qualitative research is interpretative research. However, in recognition of this, the methodology and instruments were carefully selected to minimise bias. Through triangulation attempts were made to verify data and to enhance validity and reliability, e.g. the data gathered through the questionnaires was verified through the semi-structured interviews. Cooley and Bickel (1991:42) contend that "no one method is inherently the 'best one', most questions addressed by decision-oriented researchers can

be answered more effectively if the same phenomenon is examined from multiple methodological perspectives".

The study was supported by the then Ministry of Education and Culture and the present Ministries of Basic Education and Culture and Higher Education on the basis that it could contribute to a better understanding of the teacher education practices and policy models required for a system in transition in the developing world, and especially in the African context.

In view of her position within the Ministry, the researcher has had access to the Colleges and Teachers' Resource Centres and to the participants in the study as well as to a variety of documentation relevant to the study. Her position enabled her to bring knowledge of both the structures of the Ministry and Colleges and the relationships and power bases within such structures into the study (Creswell,1994:164). Therefore the researcher's view and understanding of the data collected and her interpretation of her experiences might be shaped by the biases she might bring to the study. However, being aware of this, every effort has been made to minimise bias. Since sensitive information was involved, the researcher obtained permission for the research from the Ministry hierarchy and obtained permission from the participants for their role in the study. The participants were informed of the purpose of the study, the methodology, their rights, and the expected outcomes. As far as possible, participant anonymity in the reporting of the data was observed.

Research Questions

In order to explain the process of transforming teacher education in Namibia and the areas explored, investigated and analysed as indicated on page 10,the primary research questions identified were:

1) What education and training do student teachers receive at the four colleges (pre-service) and serving teachers at the Teachers' Resource Centres (in-service) as a

result of the reform?

2) What is the context in which this education and training is obtained?

3) How do the participants in the BETD programme conceptualise learning and teaching?

4) To what extent has the teacher education policy been understood and implemented?

5) What model of reflective professional development is relevant and meaningful to the demands of the Namibian educational system?

Methodology

Data

Data has been collected through self-completion questionnaires; semi-structured individúal and group interviews; participant observation; and document analysis. In addition, data from other studies mentioned earlier in the chapter, was utilised in the description and analysis of the findings. Such data includes diaries, classroom observations and interviews with student teachers and teacher educators. For the case study participant observation strategies and semi-structured interviews with policy makers have been utilised. The interviews and continual and ongoing participant observation of the events and processes enabled the researcher in her attempts to capture as holistic a picture of how student teachers, teachers and managers describe and structure their world (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1996). Multi-faceted data collection allows a picture to be drawn of the complexities that characterise teachers' and students' actions within teaching and learning settings.

The data collection strategies were geared towards eliciting information on (1) the preconditions for the development of reflection; (2) the levels of reflectivity to be found

among the student teachers; (3) the understanding of the concept of reflective practice among student teachers and teacher educators; and (4) the rationale for the development of the policy of reflective practice in order to find answers to the research questions as mentioned on page ..

Data has been collected in stages, e.g. for the pre-service cohort in the first trimester of their third and final year; for the in-service cohort at the beginning of their third year of study (for comparative purposes with the pre-service cohort); and with policy makers towards the end of the study. The data utilised from the monitoring and evaluation exercises has been collected in all the three years of study for the pre-service cohort, as well as during their first year of teaching.

Following the three prerequisites specified by Cohen and Manion (1994) for data collection, i.e. the specification of the exact purpose of the study; the target population; and the resources available, the instruments were developed, piloted, refined and utilised. Samples of each instrument are given in Appendices D,E,F and G.

Sampling Procedures

The target population for the study was the 405 third year student teachers in the BETD pre-service programme who enrolled in 1993 and the 489 student teachers engaged in the pilot in-service BETD programme who enrolled in 1994. The 120 teacher educators employed at the colleges were indirectly involved in the study because of the way in which they could influence the learning of student teachers. For the case study the target group was the different levels of policy makers, i.e. political leadership in the Ministry, senior officials involved in the design and development of teacher education, members of the Task Force on Teacher Education, and College management.

For the questionnaire in the pre-service programme a random sample of 105 out of the total population of 405 student

teachers was chosen. The sample was divided into class groups of 30 each at the Windhoek and Ongwediva Colleges and the entire classes at Rundu and Caprivi Colleges. Rundu and Caprivi Colleges only have one class each, so for these two colleges it is a 100% representative sample. The sample for Windhoek College represents 25% and for Ongwediva College 12,5%. For the in-service BETD, a sample of 120 out of a total population of 489 was chosen, representing 24,5% of the total in-service population.

At the Windhoek and Ongwediva Colleges where there were several third year classes, the selection of the respective classes were left to the discretion of the colleges themselves, subject to the guidance given by the researcher. This was done so as not to disrupt other college arrangements, e.g. school-based studies. The sample drawn from these two colleges can be described as availability sampling. However, depending on the arrangements at the time, each class had an equal chance of being selected, thus it was also a form of random sampling. At the other two colleges the total third year student population were taken. The in-service cohort was randomly selected from the three sites to ensure that the independent variables of gender, age, experience, and academic qualifications were represented.

Before the questionnaire was administered to the participants, it was piloted with a second year group (to be the third years for whom the instrument was intended) at the Windhoek College. This is consistent with Johnson's (1994:39) view that a pilot study tries out the research tool on respondents who would be eligible to take part in the main study. Minor adjustments were made after the pilot, e.g. leaving more space for open-ended questions, providing more clarity in some areas through simpler language, and allowing for more time for the completion of the questionnaire.

A total of 120 questionnaires were prepared for the pre-service cohort at the four colleges on the assumption that class groups would complete them. This assumption was based

on the policy that no class group was to have more than 30 or fewer than 15 students. For reasons which will be explained under methodological constraints, the Ongwediva group yielded only 13 completed questionnaires. Windhoek College returned 27 questionnaires, Rundu yielded 17 from a group of 20, and Caprivi 41 from 49. The Caprivi College yielded more since the class group was in excess of 30 owing to staff constraints. From the in-service sites 18 questionnaires were returned from a total of 30 expected. The overall return for the pre-service cohort was 76%. The 18 returned questionnaires represent a 60% return rate. Out of a target population of 405 BETD III students the sample of 120 pre-service students represents 29.6%. For the in-service cohort the sample of 30 represents 6.13% out of a total population of 489. However, since the study does not aim to generalise across the population, but as an exploratory and explanatory study which strives to clarify and understand the process, the findings will be utilised in terms of relatibility to similar settings. Table 4 illustrates the sample of participants in the study

Table 4: Participants in the study.

Position	Male	Female	Total
Policy makers	5	1	6
Student Teachers	58	40	98
Serving Teachers	5	13	18
TOTAL	68	54	122

The two groups in the pre-service BETD programme studied are:

(1) student teachers with teaching experience but no professional qualifications participating in the pre-service programme; and

(2) student teachers with no experience and no professional qualifications.

The in-service group consists of teachers with teaching experience but no professional qualifications.

The age range in the three groups varies from 18 years to 42. Students for the pre-service programme are required to be 18 years or older, unless it is a special case. For participation in the in-service programme a ceiling age of 40 had been established, but again provision was made for special cases. The proportion of male to female is not significantly different at 0.05 level on the binomial test. Academic qualifications range from grade 10 (end of Junior Secondary, after ten years of education) plus teaching experience (for equivalence purposes), to grade 12 (after twelve years of education) for the pre-service groups; while it may range from below grade 10 plus experience to grade 12, for the in-service group. The Windhoek College cohort is more heterogeneous in terms of ethnic and/or language groups (e.g. Nama-Damara, 'White', 'Coloured', Herero) while the cohorts at the other colleges are more homogeneous in terms of ethnic groups and language.

Subsets of the samples for the three groups ranging from 5 to 7 had been selected on a random basis for the individual and group interviews. For the pre-service subset group interviews were administered with 7 student teachers in a group. The groups were composed to be representative of the class groups in terms of gender, ethnic group (where applicable), age, and qualifications. Individual interviews with 5 serving teachers, 2 of whom were female, had been conducted. The interviews for the case study were administered individually with a political office bearer, a senior Ministry official, a member of the Task Force and 3 members of College management. Only one member of the latter group was female.

Instruments

For the purpose of practical situational responsiveness (Patton, 1990), i.e. to provide valuable baseline data and to allow for quantitative and qualitative data to be collected from more respondents, different instruments as described on pages 175 and 176 appropriate for different situations were chosen, i.e. self-completion questionnaires, semi-structured individual and group interviews with student teachers and serving teachers to follow up on the complex issues which could not be addressed by the questionnaires as " questionnaires show what people say, not what they do or are" (Nisbet and Entwistle, 1970:53).

Questionnaires:

The questionnaire is divided into 2 sections: Section A which deals with background details, asks for factual information and consists of 16 questions. Section B on thinking about teaching also consists of 16 questions (17-32), some of which are subdivided. Open-ended questions in this section are included to allow respondents to express their own thoughts and opinions (Nisbet and Entwistle, 1970). A copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix D.

The questionnaires for the pre-service groups were handed out by the researcher herself for in situ completion. Questionnaires for the in-service sites were sent to respondents to be completed during contact sessions.

Interviews

Based on the information and insights acquired from the statistical and content analyses of the questionnaires, semi-structured individual and group interviews were undertaken to follow up on issues that have surfaced from the statistical and content analyses. Sherman and Webb (1990) indicate that the interview can help the researcher to see situations through the eyes of the participants. The

interview further enables the researcher to differentiate between "espoused theories" and "theories-in-use" (Patton, 1990). The interview also offers a flexible and accessible research tool which provides the means for collecting information about people's knowledge, beliefs and attitudes (Powney and Watts, 1987).

The individual interviews provided the opportunity to find out more about the people: how they think and what they think. Cohen and Manion(1994) and Spradley (1980) indicate that the interview makes it possible to measure what a person knows, what he/she likes or dislikes and what his/her attitudes and beliefs are. The semi-structured interview, according to Hitchcock and Hughes (1995:157) is the one which "tends to be most favoured by educational researchers since it allows depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the respondent's responses". The individual interview data from student teachers and teacher educators was gathered through the evaluation exercise, while individual interviews were conducted with the serving teachers in the in-service programme. They were interviewed individually since they were more widely dispersed across the country and it was difficult to get them together in groups, except during contact sessions which were very tightly scheduled.

Group interviews were conducted with student teachers in order to gauge the interactional processes and group dynamics. Hitchcock and Hughes(1995:161) state that the strength of group interviews lies in the insights that they can provide into the dynamic effects of interaction between people and the way that this can affect how views are formed and changed. Attempts were made to compose heterogeneous groups, e.g. to have more or less equal representation in groups of both genders on a random sampling basis to provide quality control and verification of data collected through the individual interviews and to assess the extent to which there was a relatively consistent, shared view of the programme among the interviewees or to point out the contradictions that might exist. However, for the reasons already mentioned under sampling procedures, the researcher

had to rely on availability sampling as and when the student teachers were available during their busy programmes. All the group interviews with student teachers and the individual interviews with the in-service teachers were tape recorded with the consent of the persons concerned. The sequence of questions during the interviews was determined by the interviewees' willingness and readiness to respond to probes and issues arising from their responses. Group interviews lasted between one and a half to two hours, while individual interviews lasted between three quarters of an hour to an hour. See Appendices E and F for the semi-structured interview schedules for pre-service and in-service students respectively.

Six semi-structured interviews were conducted with officials ranging from the political level (for articulation and aggregation purposes as described in chapter 5) to the formulation and administrative level (for aggregation, interpretation, allocation and regulation purposes) and the 'street-level' (for implementation purposes).One office bearer at the political level, two at the formulation and administrative level, and three at the 'street level' were interviewed. The division into levels does not imply that the individuals in the different levels were excluded from participation at other levels. It only indicates more involvement of a representative during a particular stage. The interview schedule for the case study is appended as Appendix G.

Diaries

The diaries of student teachers and teacher educators through which data was collected for the evaluation of the BETD, were consulted to verify and clarify information obtained through the other instruments; to obtain new information and to gain insight into student teachers' and teacher educators' views, beliefs and attitudes concerning issues like change, learner-centred education and reflective practice. As described by Ashcroft(1997:18) diaries can capture the immediate responses of participants and also allow the researcher to explore phenomena in as natural a

setting as possible. Johnson (1994:65) explains that the strength of diaries as a research tool lies in the fact that the investigator is invisible in the situations being recorded and therefore does not disturb them. Furthermore, diaries can produce descriptive findings tied closely to the "fine detail of daily activities"(ibid).

The diaries were kept for a period of two weeks per year throughout the three study years of the first BETD cohort. For the purposes of this study the data from the diaries kept in the third year was the primary source of information in order to verify the information obtained through the other instruments and to establish any development/change in the thinking of student teachers.

Case study

The case study method was utilised to explore the policy process consistent with what Ashcroft (1997:19) describes as an attempt to establish "what is going on in a particular situation or with a particular group of people". She goes on to say that case studies are especially useful with the kind of insider research that is trying to get to a complex issue as they enable the researcher to use a variety of data collection techniques to look at a variety of viewpoints. Creswell (1994:12) describes a case study as a technique through which a researcher examines or explores

> *a single entity or phenomenon" ('the case') bounded by time and activity (a program, event, process, institution, or social group) and collects detailed information by using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time*

Yin (1994:13) states that a "case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident". Snow and Anderson (1991) have outlined amongst the characteristics of case studies that it is possible to focus on one or two issues or processes that are fundamental to understand the system being studied; and that they can facilitate the

possibility of capturing and analysing events and happenings, interactions and relationships, and groups and institutions as they emerge and evolve across time. These were among the reasons why the case study approach was chosen for the policy part of the study. The case study on the policy process attempted to explore diversity of practice (Johnson, 1994: 107) i.e. from the political level to the implementation level.

The techniques employed for the case study were semi-structured interviews with a political office bearer of the then Ministry of Education and Culture; a senior official involved in the design and development of the BETD programme; a member of the Task Force on Pre-Service Teacher Education; and the three members of college management who were in post at the time when the programme was first implemented. They were selected on account of the positions they hold, their involvement in the process, and the influence they could exert in terms of the policy. Different methods for data collection were utilised for the case study, e.g. interviews, participant observation and document analysis, for triangulation purposes and to provide "múltiple sources of evidence" (Yin, 1994:34).

The question which had been investigated through the case study method was: To what extent has the teacher education policy to develop reflective practitioners been understood and implemented?

Participant observation

The researcher acted as a participant observer in view of her position and role within the process of policy making and implementation. However, she was not merely a passive observer in the construction of the case study, but assumed "a variety of roles" within the case study situation and actually participated "in the events being studied" (Yin, 1994:87). This provided her with the opportunity to view reality from the viewpoint of someone 'inside' the case study rather than external to it. This role of participant observer was not confined to the case study alone, but was part and parcel of the whole study as the researcher planned the study as a reflective inquiry in itself, since she would, as participant observer, reflect on her personal

experiences throughout the process and throughout the study. The researcher, in recognising the ethical dilemma in presenting data gathered through personal reflections and participant observation, utilised the literature on transformation, reform, policy formation and reflective inquiry as a guiding framework to shape perceptions in relation to what was happening in the Ministry during the period of the study. The researcher also tried not to depict personalities of individuals, but to depict behaviours as it is a study of the process of the implementation of the reform and not a study analysing people.

Borg and Gall(1989:391) contend that the "participant observer, by virtue of being actively involved in the situation observed, often gains insights and develops interpersonal relationships that are virtually impossible to achieve through any other method". For the purposes of this study, the researcher's role as participant observer was kept open in the sense that the participants were aware of her position and function within the Ministry and that she was engaged in the study as participant-as-observer (Bogdan and Biklen,1992; Fraenkel and Wallen, 1996). The researcher tried to operate in such a way to keep her observational activities as unobtrusive as possible in order to allow spontaneous interactions and to take advantage of the many special situations that arise during a process of change and reform. Participant observation was especially relevant for the study, since the researcher had broad access to the people and institutions involved in the reform.

The major problem the researcher experienced as participant observer was to minimise bias as much as possible since she was one of the key agents in the process of reform and policy formation. However, for the purpose of investigating the policy process, the case study approach was found to be the most appropriate technique for collecting data. The researcher continuously strove to minimise bias through the creation of conceptual frameworks for the issues to be investigated and by utilising multiple sources of evidence for triangulation purposes (Yin, 1994:91).

The data as participant observer was collected through meetings; formal and informal discussions with various stakeholders; and documents. For analysis of her participant

observer role the researcher used the explanation-building strategy (Yin, 1994:110) in the narrative form to explore and explain the policy formation process. This approach was chosen to develop an understanding of the process and to diaries (kept by student teachers and teacher educators); and documents. Tape recording of the semi-structured interviews provided the researcher with the opportunity to concentrate on the discussions rather than having to concentrate to try and write every response down. Tape recorded data was transcribed as soon as possible after the interview sessions when the responses were still fresh in the mind of the researcher. Field note taking and tape recording were used to supplement and complement each other and to secure validity and reliability through maintaining a high degree of accuracy and detail.

In the study, the analysis of data was an on-going process from the time the questionnaires were returned, in order to identify themes which served as guidelines for the formulation of questions for the interviews. Merriam(1988) and Marshall and Rossman(1989) contend that data collection and data analysis must be a simultaneous process in qualitative research as the data must be organised categorically and chronologically, reviewed repeatedly and coded continually. Data from the different sources were compared in order to establish patterns, if any, and to determine similarities and/or contradictions. The data was also analysed in relation to the research questions the study was attempting to explore, describe and explain within the general policy framework and context of teacher education reform and the transformation of the education system, as discussed in previous chapters.

The data collected through the various instruments was compared and contrasted to provide a check on the validity. Cross-checking was done between the questionnaire, individual and group interviews, and diaries. Cross-checking was also done between what Denscombe (1983:117) calls 'role-partners', in this instance between student teachers themselves and student teachers and teacher educators. In this way the content of accounts can be checked on the grounds of:

1) falsification: where relevant and necessary actions to support an account are missing,

2) inconsistency: where role-partners express different views about what the other claims to have been doing, and

3) discrepancy: where role partners identify discrepancies between the other's professed values and actual behaviour.

Questionnaires

The questionnaires were coded according to an encoding sheet (Appendix H) in order to categorise responses and to identify patterns. Responses were given numbers e.g. female:1; male:2 (question 2) or 'like to teach at that level':1; 'shortage of teachers':2; 'taught in grade(s) before':3 (question 16.a). This enabled the researcher to quantify the data and to create the histograms as shown in chapter 8. In order to preserve anonymity and to protect confidentiality, all the returned questionnaires were given a number according to the institution they are associated with e.g. the colleges were each given a specific range of numbers. The variables obtained from the questionnaires i.e. age of respondents; gender; college attended; academic qualifications; and teaching experience were entered quantitatively through the Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) programme which enabled the researcher to pull out data and to reassemble it into new configurations. Codes can be changed, added or deleted with SAS. Variables were treated in combination e.g. age and experience, gender and academic qualification. Histograms were created from the data entered in different combinations. These are used in chapter 8 to illustrate relationships between variables and to test interactional sources of variation as these could provide knowledge on which to base the improvement of educational practice.

In the section on thinking about teaching, some responses were clustered in terms of containing the same idea and

were then numbered, e.g. for question 17 the responses were clustered into the categories of 'goood teacher':1; 'prepared':2; 'example':3; and 'good relationship':4. For the open-ended responses e.g. question 18, the key words were categorised into 'reflective':1; 'non-reflective':2. Because there were a number of non-responses to some of the open-ended questions the category of 'no response' was added in some cases, e.g. question 18.

Interviews

In order to ensure that nothing that the interviewees said would be traceable back to an individual respondent, interview data, when presented and discussed, is given a code and a number, e.g. ST5 for student teacher number 5 in a group; T for a serving teacher; and R1 for management at College 1. The interview transcripts and field notes were analysed by means of a content analysis to establish patterns; and to compare the responses from the questionnaires to those from the interviews in order to verify and clarify some responses to questions in the questionnaire. The content analysis was done through the categorising of key words in relation to the themes of the study, i.e. transformation/change; policy implementation as seen through perceptions and expectations; and reflectiveness.

Diaries

Student teachers' and teacher educators' diaries were analysed through the content analysis technique to establish cross checks with data collected through other techniques. Diaries were not specifically kept for this study, but diaries were available for analysis as they were being kept by student teachers and teacher educators for the formative evaluation of the BETD.

Methodological Difficulties Encountered

The major challenges were to make sense of the enormous amount of data, to distill the information, to identify significant patterns and to construct a framework for

communicating the essence of what the data revealed. Some of these were met through statistical analyses while content analysis and inductive analysis techniques were employed for the identification, coding and categorising of primary patterns and themes. As individual differences e.g. between student teachers; teacher educators; modes of delivery; are of prime importance for this study, the correlational method has been used to discover and clarify relationships and differences between variables. The correlational method permits analysis of a large number of variables in a single study and allows the researcher to analyse how several variables, either singly or in combination, might affect a particular pattern of behaviour (Borg & Gall, 1989).

As mentioned earlier in the chapter, in order not to disrupt college activities and plans, as colleges were, to a large extent overloaded or perceived themselves to be overloaded by the reform initiatives, the researcher, not wanting to add to this overload by requesting too much from them, had to rely on what class groups the two larger colleges could make available. In the case of the Ongwediva College it was the group specialising in Upper Primary Mathematics and Science. In addition, since there was confused communication from the college management and the class group about the time and place for the completion of the questionnaires, a smaller group than expected actually completed the questionnaire. This, to a certain extent, has had some implications for the results and the findings of the study, e.g. in terms of grade level specialisation and subject area specialisation and in terms of a smaller number of respondents. However, the implications are not necessarily negative in nature, as that situation opened up the study for other issues to emerge. These will be extrapolated in the next chapters dealing with results and findings.

A smaller group of in-service teachers returned the questionnaires than was anticipated. This came about as a result of the tight programme of the teachers during contact sessions, which made it impossible for some of them to complete the questionnaires on site. Those who took the questionnaires to their homes in the rural areas might have

found it difficult to mail them to the researcher. Group interviews could also not be conducted with the in-service cohort, for the same reasons mentioned above. However, instead of group interviews, individual interviews with selected teachers were conducted since the purpose of the interviews was to follow up on issues arising from the questionnaires and not necessarily to obtain new information. In addition, as a result of the mode of delivery for the in-service teachers (primarily distance education with short and very intensive contact periods), they did not have much opportunity to discuss issues in a group situation and could therefore not respond as a cohesive group. This situation to some extent inhibited responses as contrary to a group situation, there is no one to 'ignite' a new line of thought. The ignition of new thoughts by what another respondent said was observed in the group interviews. Since they had fewer opportunities for discussions and less interaction with fellow students, they had to be prompted more than the pre-service groups. However,the individual interviews provided positive opportunities as well, as the researcher could spend more time with an individual and could probe more than would have been the case in a group interview situation.

One of the rectors was appointed only after the first pre-service cohort had already completed their studies. The researcher therefore decided not to interview him with regards to the case study, as the aim of the case study is to explore the thinking behind the teacher education policy as well as the implementation of the policy. The researcher also did not deem it appropriate to interview his deputy (vice-rector), as the vice-rector has different responsibilities.

The researcher's own position as researcher, insider and observer has had some significance with regards to possible bias as mentioned earlier in the chapter. However, being aware of and sensitive to this possibility, the researcher, through triangulation of methods and multiple techniques, tried to minimise such bias. Cross-checking and comparison of data were other techniques utilised to minimise imposing

own views and experiences. In the instances where respondents provided answers they thought the researcher would want to hear, the data was checked through triangulation.

Timetable

The data was collected in stages over a period of three years, starting with the first trimester of the final year of the pre-service cohort in 1995 and ending in February 1998 with the managers and policy makers. Data collection commenced with the self-completion questionnares for the pre-service cohort. This was followed by the semi-structured group interviews. In the first trimester of the third year of study for the in-service group (1997) the questionnaires were administered, followed by individual interviews. Through participant observation techniques data was collected from the commencement of the study in 1994. The interviews with policy makers were conducted in February 1998 and concluded the data collection. As mentioned earlier in the chapter, the data was analysed on an ongoing basis throughout the study.

CHAPTER 8

STATEMENT OF RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study. The results are presented in relation to the main themes and the research questions of the study as identified in chapter 1. The main themes are: transformation, policy formation and implementation, and the development of reflective practice. The research questions derived from the themes mentioned on pages 4 and 5 are:

1) What education and training student teachers received through the pre-service and in-service BETD programmes

2) What is the context in which this education and training is obtained

3) How do the participants in the BETD programmes conceptualise learning and teaching

4) To what extent has the teacher education policy been understood and implemented and

5) What model of reflective professional development is relevant and meaningful to the demands of the emergent Namibian educational system.

This approach is consistent with the purpose of the study to explore and gain an understanding of the complex processes of transformation and policy formation and implementation. The native of the data lends itself essentially to qualitative analysis. Quantitative analysis is limited to the use of descriptive statistics for percentages and histograms/

> *A distinction in research is between that which is concerned with <u>verification</u> and that which is concerned with <u>discovery.</u>*
> (Gerardi and Turner, quoted in Pidgeon, 1996:75)

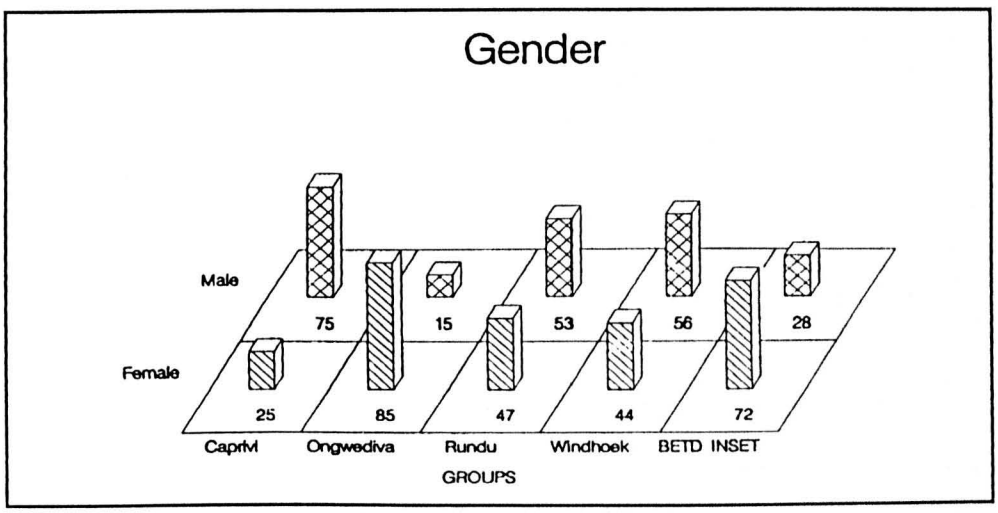
The study, through the choice of methods and the strategies

for analysing the data as discussed in chapter 7, tried to capture the creative and dynamic character of the research process. The study aimed, consistent with the quotation from Gerardi and Turner, to explore, interpret and explain the research questions, i.e. to 'discover' and understand the research questions in the Namibian educational setting of rapid change and innovation. In the presentation of the results, the researcher has sought to actively build her perspective of the evolving and developing process through analyses of the data instead of merely applying it to the data (Pidgeon, 1996:83).

In the presentation of the results the data obtained from the questionnaires; through the semi-structured interviews; participant observation; and document analysis have been utilised to explore and illuminate the research questions. The presentation of results commences with the background information obtained from the first section of the questionnaire which illuminates the context of the study through histograms.

Figure 6 shows the distribution of male and female respondents at the four colleges and at the three in-service sites:

Figure 6: Gender

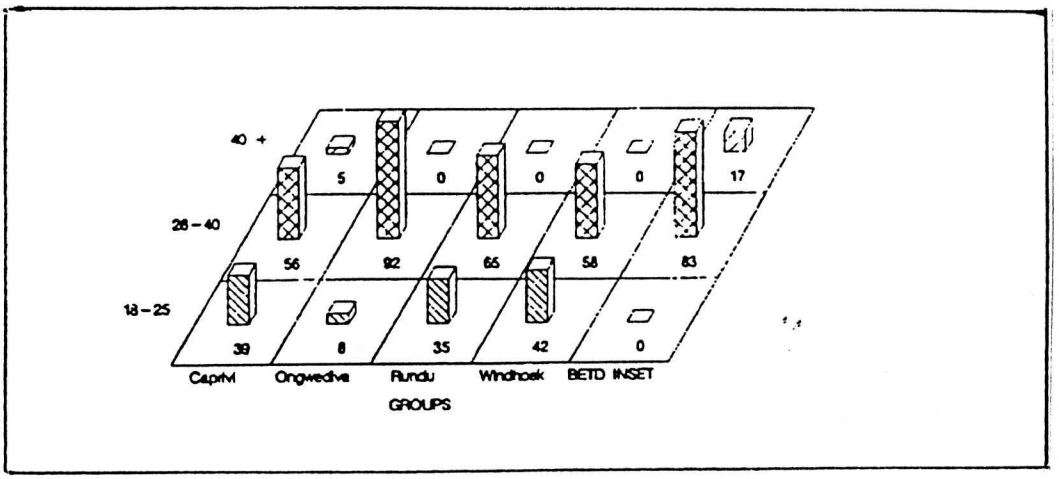


At Caprivi, Rundu and Windhoek Colleges the percentage of

male students is higher than the percentage of female students, with Caprivi showing the largest variance. At Ongwediva College and the in-service sites the percentage of female to male students are substantially higher. The issues arising from the ratios will be discussed in the next chapter.

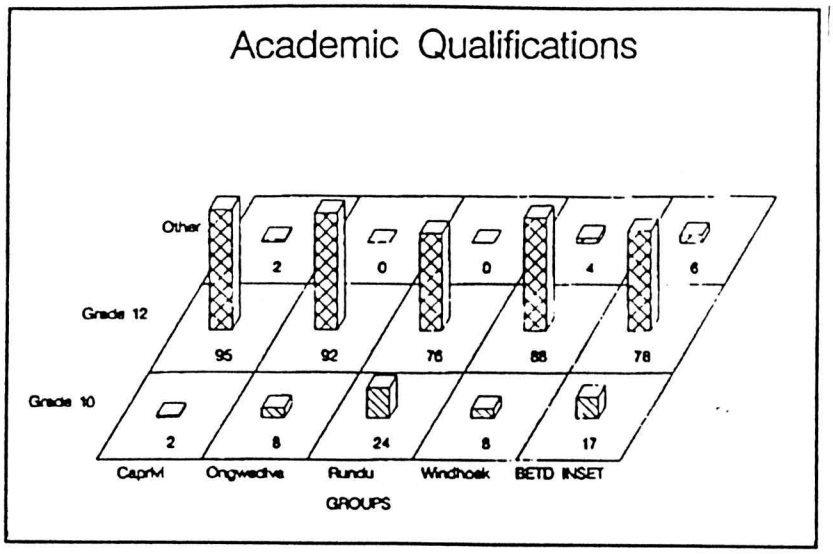
The responses to the question on the age of student teachers are reflected in Figure 7. The largest number of both pre-service and in-service student teachers lie in the age range of 26 - 40 years of age, with the largest numbers in this age range being found at Ongwediva College and the in-service sites.

Figure 7: Age



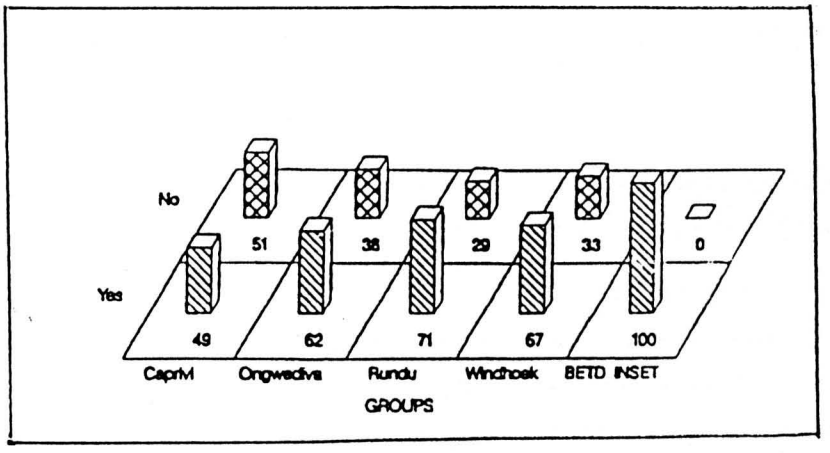
The data obtained on academic qualifications shows that the largest number of respondents have grade 12 and that the Rundu and in-service groups have the largest number of student teachers who gained entry on the basis of equivalence to grade 12 (i.e. grade 10 plus teaching experience or other competencies). This information is reflected in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Academic Qualifications



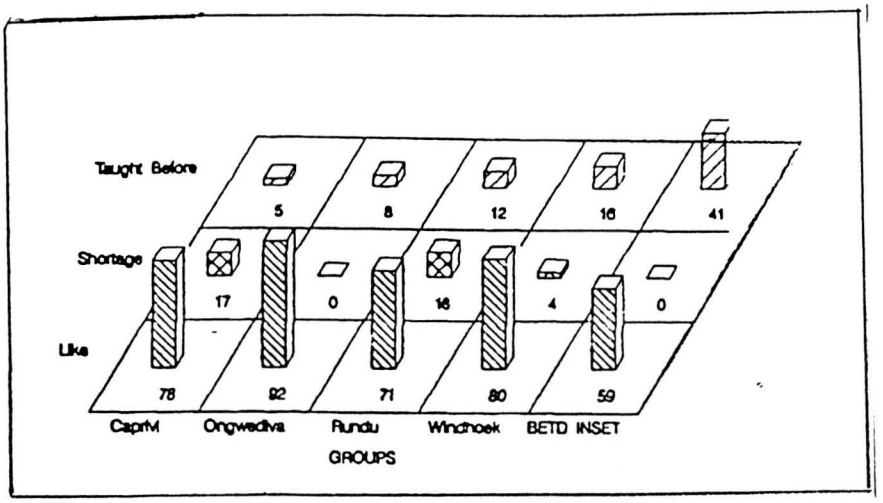
The figure on teaching experience indicates that there are student teachers at all sites with teaching experience, with the in-service group at 100% and Rundu College having the largest percentage of students with teaching experience amongst the pre-service groups. The 100% teaching experience rate at the in-service sites indicates that the policy to enroll only teachers with a number of years of teaching experience has been implemented consistently.

Figure 9: Teaching Experience



In response to question 16.a. of the questionnaire as to why the respondent has chosen his/her grade specialisation, the majority indicated that they did it because they liked to teach at that level. Figure 10 summarises the responses to question 16.a.

Figure 10: Choice of Grade Specialisation

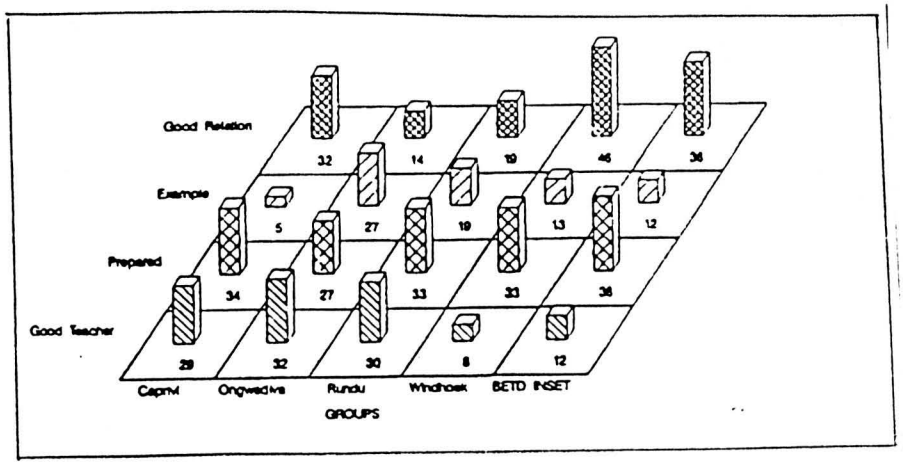


Thinking about Teaching

In the section on thinking about teaching not all the responses to questions could be summarised by figures, as some of them were open-ended questions analysed as described in the previous chapter. These were followed up and/or probed in the semi-structured interviews and will be cross-referenced in the chapter on the discussion of the data. Not all the responses summarised in figures are being utilised in the presentation of the results. Only those found to be appropriate for illumination and illustration of the research questions and specific issues have been included in this section.

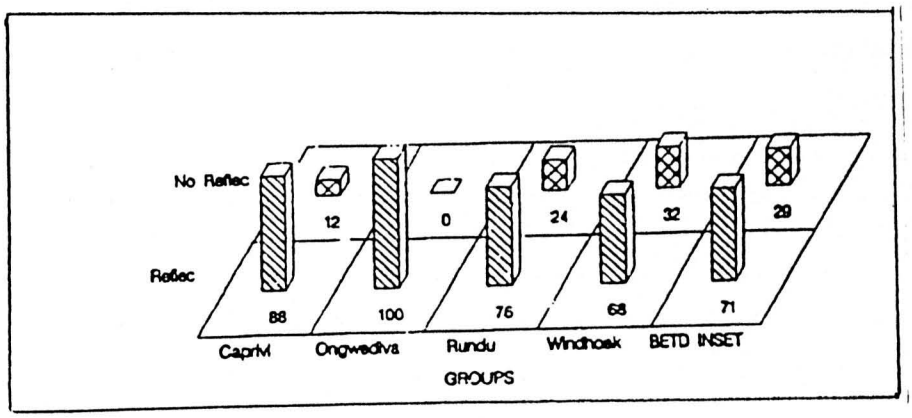
Figure 11 indicates the examples of student teachers' perceptions of what they would have liked learners to say about them if they had been their teachers. The responses were categorised in terms of being a 'good teacher'; 'being prepared for lessons'; 'setting an example'; and 'having good relationships with learners'. From the figure it appears as if 'being prepared' and 'having good relationships with learners' are regarded by most respondents as important.

Figure 11: Learners' Views



On the issue aiming to elicit examples from respondents as to why learners would say certain things about them (question 18), their perceptions have been categorised as reflective or non-reflective, based on an analysis of the words used or the way in which the response was phrased. The student could give several responses to why thought learners would say certain things about them. From the responses it appears as if the majority of the respondents show a leaning towards reflectivity. This aspect will be discussed further in terms of the interview responses and the research questions. The results are shown in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Learners' Views - Reasons



In order to establish to what extent the student teachers were exposed to opportunities to engage in reflective work during school-based studies, they were asked to list 3 skills (question 19) and to indicate which skill they considered to be more important (question 20). From figure 13 it appears that many of them regard listening and

communication as important skills, with Rundu and Windhoek Colleges also indicating that skills classified under 'other' (which included 'thinking'; 'discovery'; 'experimenting'; 'planning') are important. Some respondents, however, confused skills with approaches and methods, and listed learner-centred education as a skill.

Figure 13; Important Skill for SBS

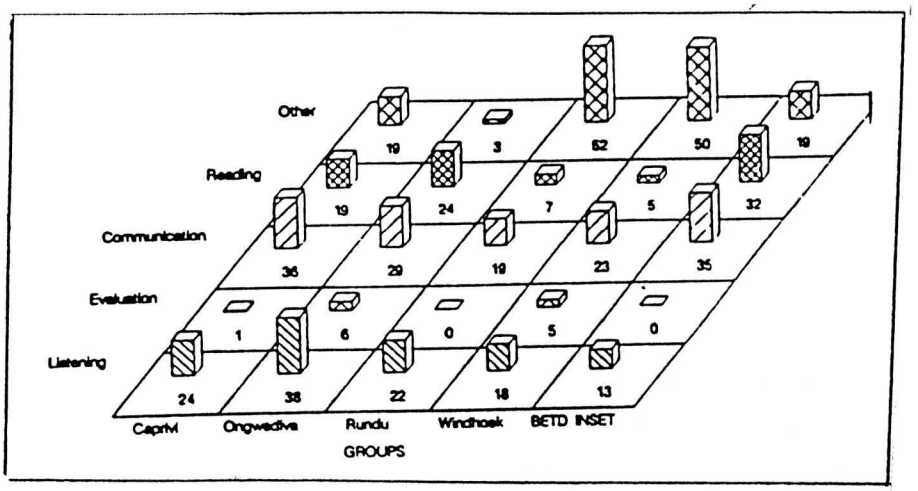
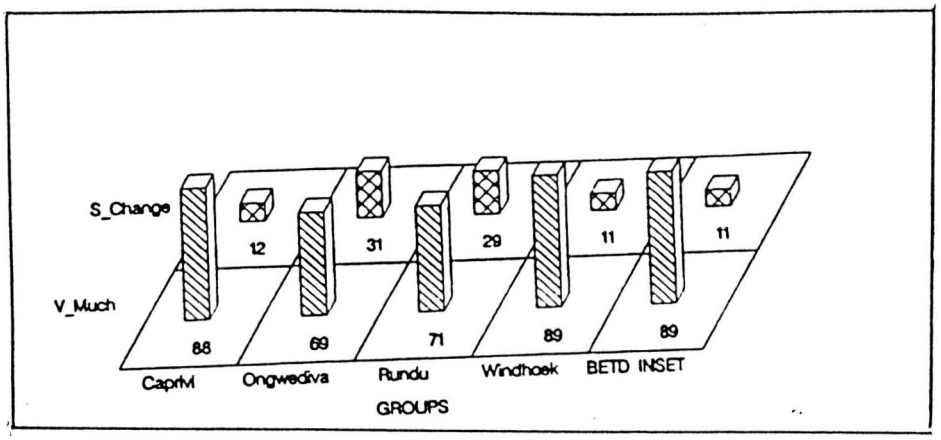


Figure 14 summarises the responses indicating whether or not the student teachers' understanding of teaching has changed during the 3 years of study (question 22). Respondents had to indicate 'very much'; 'some change'; 'not much'; or 'no change'. The majority indicated 'very much' change , while no one indicated 'not much' change or 'no change'.A Chi Square could have been carried out for the responses summarised in figure 14, but the data is self-evident and there is no significant difference between the colleges. These responses will be further discussed later in the chapter in relation to the research questions.

Figure 14: Change in Understanding of Teaching



The indications from the figure are illustrated by the reasons provided for why respondents think there has been much change or some change. The responses are presented as provided by the participants, i.e. no corrections have been made:

> *The methodology of teaching that I acquire now brought up this change*(ST:422).
>
> *My professional attitude towards the learners and staff* (ST:413).
>
> *If I compare the time when I was a relief teacher and know, there are lot of changes in myself. I can say I growth professionally, I can handle any situation or problem which occurs in my classroom* (ST:304).

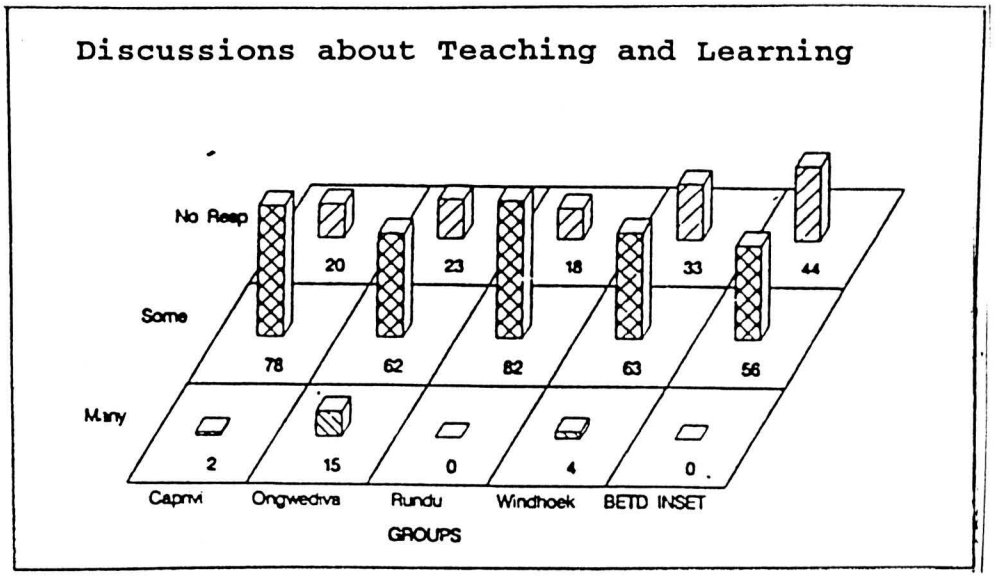
On the question as to why they think the change has taken place (question 23), responses were inter alia:

> *The change have taken place, because, we are practising to much the new method of teaching* (ST:307).
>
> *Because of the course I am following which emphases on classroom experience and learner centred approach* (ST:104).
>
> *Because I have known that the teacher have to share ideas with learners* (ST:112).
> *I know that learners will be more involved in teaching situation* (ST:504).
>
> *Because of L.C.E the learners come first with what they already know* (ST:503).

In response to question 24 as to what opportunities student teachers have had during the course to think about teaching

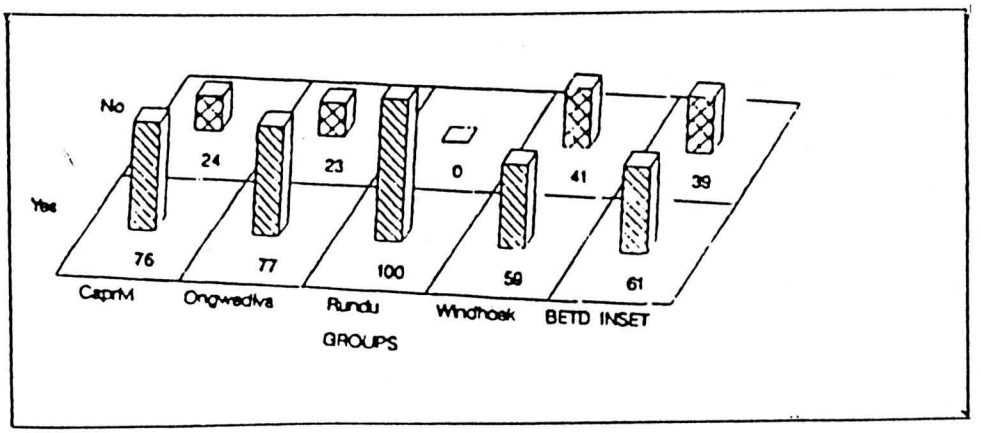
and to discuss teaching and learning, the majority indicated that they have had some time for these activities, as reflected in Figure 15.

Figure 15: Discussions about Teaching and Learning



Student teachers were asked as whether they have been keeping a diary as part of their study. Their responses are summarised in Figure 16 showing that all the Rundu respondents have been keeping diaries and that the Windhoek pre-service class group has a slightly lower rate of keeping diaries than the in-service respondents.

Figure 16: Diary



The aspects of keeping a diary student teachers found useful (question 26) are reflected by the following responses:

> *You reflect on what you observe and it makes me a very good observer* (ST:301).
> *Dates - remembering them* (ST:408).

To that I reflect on what it is being taught or happens in the past (ST:202).

We do reflect what we learn every day (ST:122).

The aspect like my assignment due dates and the submitting of my assignment to the TRC (ST:515).

The reflection I make contribute to my learning (ST:207).

It is clear from the above extracts that there was confusion among certain groups of students as to the diaries referred to. Some students clearly understood it as referring to the reflective writing part of the course, while others understood it to mean their calendar of activities for a specific period. This will be elaborated on in the next chapter when the research questions in relation to the results and findings will be discussed.

In response to question 31 which asked student teachers to put themselves into the position of the learners and to describe the best and worst thing in terms of their daily classroom experiences, the following range of responses were obtained:

Best Thing

Discuss, give cooperation, participate in the class (ST:416).

Full participation and good lesson preparation (ST:308).

Silence and cooperation (ST:201).

To be loved (ST:139).

Working in groups carried out experiments (ST:506).

Pay attention and ask where I dont understand (ST:207).

Worst Thing

The worst thing is the class is boring (ST:203).

Lesson to be more teacher centred (ST:506).

Listening to the only speaker (teacher), without any activity applied (ST:132).

To be humiliated (ST:139).

Destructiveness of fellow scholars (ST:418).

For the fellow learners to laugh at me whenever I made a mistake, either in communication etc. (ST:211).

On the question as to what they would do to improve the school if they had been the principal (question 32), the following responses and reasons among others were given:

Punctuality to all student and teacher in the school. Encouragement to all people when I give them a rules. When I discuss with my learner I try to motivate them in order to make relationship among the learner (ST:206).

Try to make learners involve them in most matters concerning their welfare at school. Learners will more or less find solutions for many matters of which they have to be impossible to trespass (ST:405).

Discipline the learners and encourage them to study (ST:409).

To inform my staff to every changing which take place in education. To read more books and to inform my staff and to involve the parents in school activities so that changing can take place (ST:312).

Organise parents' meetings and discuss ways of involving parents in their children's education. If parents should work together with teachers, I think by so doing the learning problems will be minimise (ST:516).

The data collection strategies were geared towards eliciting information on the research questions which include issues pertaining to pre-conditions for the development of reflection; the levels of reflectivity to be found among student teachers; and the understanding of the concept of reflective practice among student teachers and teacher educators. In the presentation of results, the areas highlighted are the pre-conditions for the development of reflection; the attitudes necessary to become reflective, and professional growth, as teacher reflection is a central component of the BETD programme. "Reflection is

conceptualised as the ability to critically examine the teaching and learning environment and exercise professional judgement over curriculum and teaching issues" (MBEC, 1998:4).

1. Pre-conditions for Reflection:

The first cohort of BETD students entered the profession at a time of tremendous opportunities as well as challenges. Nyambe (1996:94) holds the view that challenges and opportunities are embodied in the pedagogical strategies introduced after independence which "are supposed to enable students to learn to analyze and synthesize, to imagine and explore, to criticize and create, to understand and use".

From the responses to the questionnaire and the questions put to the pre-service groups in the semi-structured group interviews, a picture of how the Colleges create conditions and structure opportunities to provide an environment to develop reflective practice emerges. The following responses, which reflect the general thinking among students, were received from student teachers on the question as to what teaching methods employed by the college helped the students acquire certain skills:

> *The college told me not to identify problems which I can't manage, but problems I can manage during a specific time, because then you can do something on it and evaluate it* (ST: College 1).
>
> *The college, through letting us explore, managed in assisting us to know some of the aspects*(acquisition of skills) (ST: College 1).
>
> *The approach used by the lecturers is that they give a problem and then you do it. Then they give support* (ST: College 1).
>
> *At the college I was introduced to learner-centred methods* (ST: College 1).
>
> *I've gained from integration. I didn't know you can teach more subjects in one subject. The other thing is classroom management. I gained skills in that area. I also gained confidence* (ST: College 2).
>
> *I gained confidence. Did learn a lot; ... I really appreciate the ETP and the critical thinking skills, let me to think very much critical* (ST: College 2).

> *We did lots of projects in the main subject, ETP* (ST: College 4).
>
> *In group discussions, sharing ideas, learn* (from) *each other, and solving the problem if there's any* (ST: College 3).
>
> *You needed to do self-evaluation to see which were your successes and which your failures and then how you can improve your failures* (ST: College 1).
>
> *Mainly the learner-centred method and research done by the students...* (They) *present findings and teachers* (teacher educators) *later on assist us where we went wrong* (ST: College 3).

It is clear from the above statements by student teachers at the different colleges, that through the approaches and methodologies employed by teacher educators and/or the environment created by the colleges student teachers are encouraged to participate actively, to discover and to construct knowledge. These elements could lead to the development of critical inquiry or reflection. In the pre - independence the apartheid setting a critical awareness of the environment was discouraged as it was perceived to be a threat to the status quo. According to Nyambe (1996:92) students were therefore not given "the opportunity to create or discover themselves".

Just like the pre-service BETD programme, the in-service programme is based on learner-centred principle, central to which is the notion that knowledge is not a static amount of content, but is what the learner actively constructs and creates from experience within the social cultural context. This notion of knowledge as being actively constructed by learners is consistent with the view held by Brooks and Brooks (Henderson, 1996:6) that

> *Traditionally, learning has been thought to be a "mimetic" activity, a process that involves students repeating, or miming, newly presented information....Constructivist teaching practices, on the other hand, help learners to internalize and reshape, or transform, new information.*

The BETD, if implemented consistent with its intentions, could provide student teachers with learner-centred

experiences during their course of study. However, the creation of such experiences in the in-service programme is more problematic than in the pre-service programme because of the limited direct contact with tutors, the mode of delivery, and fewer opportunities for collaboration. The responses from serving teachers interviewed on the issue of whether the environment encourages the development of reflection indicate that in some cases the necessary pre-condition of support and encouragement to internalise, reshape and transform new information was present while in others not.

> *I don't really get support* (from my tutors). *I attend classes and discussions....Tutors must have contact throughout. As soon as I have finished an assignment, I must have a result. We wait too long for responses and results. They must give results soon so as to know where the problem is.*

The above view indicates that constructive criticism will be accepted and is expected. The next responses, from serving teachers, indicate that the teachers would like to collaborate with others in order to improve their practice. This is consistent with Henderson's (1996:187) view that in a collaborative situation "teachers with less experience may derive more immediate benefit than their more experienced counterparts". However, Henderson (1996) also believes that when more experienced teachers help their less experienced or qualified colleagues make sense of their teaching, they also gain deeper insight into their own work.

> *I have a school mentor who provides support. He is a senior teacher, qualified and experienced. He helps me with lesson preparation and teaching aids.*

and

> *My principal encourages me to continue with the course. As he has to evaluate me, he can help a lot. But I'm on my own* (no other BETD teacher at the school).*Those who are well-qualified if they can come to my classes to help me.*

2. Attitudinal Development:

In the BETD programme the development of certain attitudes,

e.g. "respect for human dignity and sensitivity and commitment to the needs of learners"; a sense of "social responsibility towards learners, colleagues, the community"; "awareness of the varying roles and functions of a teacher and commitment to the teaching profession"; and "a positive attitude towards individual differences" are regarded as important to encourage the development of reflective practitioners (MBEC, 1998). The following comments, representative of the students' responses and demonstrating the general attitudes of the student teachers interviewed, have been recorded during the interviews:

> *I came to know that the teacher must be like a parent, show love* (ST: College 1).
>
> *I discovered that I can easily socialise with teachers and with learners. I didn't expect it to be like that because of different attitudes and characteristics. It's because I used different ways to get past the behaviours* (ST: College 3).
> *It was easy for me to discipline the learners to stop making a noise. I gave them freedom to talk* (ST: College 3).
>
> *I think that when corporal punishment fell away, there were no alternatives. That the teachers were not aware of alternatives like positive reinforcement* (ST: College 4).

Serving teachers, from their responses, also seem to have changed their assumptions about learning and teaching and about the relationship that should exist between teacher and learner and learner and learner. Learners' ideas seem to be valued; there are improved relationships; learners want to participate; and learners can learn from each other:

> *The learner-centred approach is very interesting; learners have their own ideas and they enjoy it. When they are in groups they don't feel shy. There is an improved relationship.*
>
> *Learners' participation is now easier - in the past they were quiet, but now they want to give answers and they are eager to participate. Learners and teachers are friends, and also good relations with parents.*

The above responses seem to indicate a shift away from pedagogical approaches tailored to silence and oppress learners by "denying them active participation and involvement in deciding what was to be learnt and how it was to be learnt" (Nyambe, 1996:91).It can be deduced that this shift came about as a result of a new conceptualisation

of teaching and learning which has led to new insights and therefore to changed attitudes. There also seems to be a move towards a more caring attitude towards learners. Noddings (Henderson, 1996:159) states in this regard that to "care as a teacher is to be ethically bound to understand one's students".

Interviewees in general demonstrated an attitude of openness to advice and learning through the following comments:

> *I will need the principal's advice, so he must be open to me. When he see I'm not going in the right way, he must direct me* (ST: College 1).
>
> *I expected support especially when it comes to discipline because the subject teacher knows the learners better than I do and knows their behaviours and may have better strategies* (ST: College 1).
>
> *In the previous time I thought teaching to be just the teacher getting to the class giving the knowledge. Now I know teaching and learning must be linked, they must have a relationship* (ST: College 1).
>
> *You come into the class, you talk, but you give the learners also the chance to say what they know* (ST: College 2).
>
> *To accept me and to know that I can, also make mistakes and also learn from them* (other teachers) (ST: College 4).

On the issue of lifelong learning, the following observations reflect in general the attitudes of participating students:

> *I've learned that learning is a process that continues and teaching is that we learn from each other - even* (from) *a child* (ST: College 2).
>
> *It is not like that that you can only learn at school - even at home you can learn. Even an old person can learn. Teaching also, I thought it was only the teacher who know everything* (ST: College 2).

The above responses seem to point towards another shift, i.e. that learning does not terminate once the initial study period is over. They also seem to indicate that learning from others (even children) and at places outside the classroom is acceptable.

Student teachers have also shown that in other areas they

have acquired different perspectives on previously held beliefs, as shown by the following representative comments:

> *The main aim is not only to give them* (the learners) *that knowledge, but also to change the thinking of the learners* (ST: College 1).
>
> *I'm very much concerned about the involvement of the community* (ST: College 2).
>
> *Attention must be given first to the work which is being done in the schools* (ST: College 4).
>
> *I would give more emphasis to methodology as through learner-centred education learners are given the chance to explore* (ST: College 1).
>
> *I would also put much emphasis on the early childhood education because that is the foundation of education* (ST: College 1).

The change in perceptions and attitudes as reflected by the above comments, are supported by the findings of the BETD evaluation, from which the following responses were taken on the issue of approaches (MBEC, 1997:12):

> *He/she* (the teacher) *needs to be a facilitator not a dictator.*
>
> and
>
> *He/she should use materials and remember to let learners practise. Especially girls, because most of them are too shy, so they don't like to participate while boys are present.*

3. Professional and Personal Growth:

The BETD programme is designed to enable student teachers to grow and develop continually during the course of the programme and will therefore increasingly become more aware of the needs of learners, their own needs and the relationship between teaching and learning. As a result of the reconceptualisation of teaching and learning and the resultant change in attitudes, student teachers and serving teachers seem to demonstrate both new personal and professional insights. In this regard the following representative views are extracted from the responses:

> *I'm going to provide a kind of freedom to come up with his own plan. then from his own plan I'll try to help him in a constructive manner* (ST: College

2). (On the question as to how, if they were support teachers, they would assist student teachers placed with them).

I'll be more supportive than critical. We'll work and plan together rather than judging him (ST: College 2).

Before I was the only source of information....It was really needed to make a change in education: (ST: College 1).

I was really careful with group work. I only did group work with experiments, otherwise I avoided it. Learners saw they could escape from my control, especially when it is something not challenging them. They want something like experiments where they can see results (ST: College 4).

It was a great surprise to see that children really like group work and the lots of information that come out of the children. Once you bring the content down to earth, to every day life, they understand it very well (ST: College 4).

I have come to learn that learners come to school already having knowledge on certain issues. Teachers have only to build on what the child knows (ST: College 3).

I also changed a lot. My understanding has changed. I always thought that children don't know anything - that if you teach them they will get to know something (ST: College 4).

I was just limited to the way I was taught to give information back (at school). *Teaching is to think in a diverse manner. I have acquired the skill of an enquiring mind - now I can search for information* (ST: College 1).

These responses from both the questionnaires and the interviews are consistent with and supportive of one another. In addition, these findings are supported by the findings of the evaluation of the BETD which state that the "most impressive aspect about the teachers' responses on this question is the fact that most, if not all of them, define a good teacher in terms of his/her relationship with learners, their knowledge and understanding" (MBEC,1997:11).

Presentation of Case Study Results

As described in the methodology chapter, the case study

method was utilised to explore the policy process for the development of reflective practice. The results of the case study method are being presented as responses to critical issues.

1. Why Reform?

The political office bearer (CS 1) indicated that there was 'no written down blueprint' for the transformation of the educational system and therefore for the reform of teacher education as part of the process. The Ministry was guided in its actions by practical considerations; information available through various publications; and the problems which needed to be addressed after independence. These problems were prioritised and to "start with teachers was one of the major priorities". According to the respondent, the rationale and terms of reference for the transformation were found in the Constitution of independent Namibia , the social pressures especially through student organisations, and the SWAPO Manifesto. These reasons are consistent with what is described in the literature as legitimising reform. Evans (1994;6) states that change in education requires public consensus and political acceptability to a degree not needed in other sectors.

Responses from the other interviewees indicate a consensus that reform was necessary. The consensus indicates that the policy adhered to the principle that a social learning process was created (Evans et al, 1995:18) so that key participants could come to understand the nature of the problem faced. Reasons put forward why the reform was necessary include:

- before independence there was little balance in the teacher education programmes in terms of professional and academic aspects, i.e. the focus was on content and on examinations to test content;
- unrealistic entry requirements before independence excluded candidates who might have been good teachers;
- different programmes were targetted towards different sections of the population;

- separation of theory and practice.

2. Why Reflective Practice?

The political office bearer emphasised that the culture and ethos of schooling in Namibia needed to be changed to bring about a change in the ways of teaching and therefore also in the ways in which learning and teaching are conceptualised. He regards reflective practice as taking "charge of one's own development and thinking" which is in sharp contrast to the pre-independence notion of "learning for learning's sake" and of memorisation. The policy to develop reflective practitioners has been built around the notion that in order to promote the goals of education teacher education reform should not just be college bound, but should "permeate the schools, the classrooms". The best way, according to his view, was to develop teachers who are independent thinkers; who are active, creative and improvisers; and who are able to make their own decisions based on their own analysis and judgement. This approach to reflective practice is congruent with the view of the teacher as a transformative intellectual in that the teacher examines both the socio-political context of teaching and the goals of teaching (Giroux and McLaren, 1987).These elements, as described in the chapter on reflective practice, contribute towards and enhance reflective practice.

Respondent CS 2 regards reflective practice as a "very valuable approach" as it is "good to look critically at what you're doing" as it is "the only way to understand the situation". His views are supported by CS 5 who describes reflective practice as thinking about improvement of interaction with students and the classroom situation. He further states that without reflection "I'll remain in the dark". CS 4 agrees with the other respondents, but emphasises the planning "to improve for the future".

3.What Constitutes Reflective Practice?

The responses seem to indicate that the generally understood

notion of reflective practice is one "underpinned by effectiveness and efficiency" (Nyambe, 1996:120) as demonstrated by the emphasis on 'improvement'. In this respect only CS 1 referred to reflective practice in terms of ethical and political justifiability. These notions informed the respondents' ideas as to what constitutes reflective practice.

CS 1 regards the role of teacher educators as very important in the development of reflective practitioners as networks and links between the colleges and schools and also been pre-service and in-service programmes should be established to ensure "that the notions and ethos of reflective practice become part of educational practice". He described the indicators of reflective practice by saying that there are signs that the culture of schooling is gradually changing as learners are more exposed to opportunities and more democratic practices are being implemented since much of the initial resistance against the reform had been overcome. He however cautions that the process is by no means over as the system still needs to develop, more capacity needs to be built and programmes need to be reviewed and consolidated.

CS 3 describes one aspect of reflective practice as being able to provide "constructive criticism". CS 4 linked it to critical practitioner inquiry and action research. CS 5 indicated "open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness" as the important elements constituting reflective practice. He also mentioned being involved in action research and looking critically at the curriculum as essential aspects for the development of reflective practice.

4. To What Extent has the Policy been Implemented?

All respondents agreed that progress was made with the development of reflective practice, but in some colleges it was more difficult because of resistance and a negative approach towards the reform and innovation. There was agreement that by utilising the services of advisors, including the Reform Facilitators, an awareness was created of developments in teacher education in other countries and

a buffer was created between Namibians of different ideologies which allowed for negotiation. In retrospect CS 2 indicated that teacher educators should have been involved more as that would have facilitated greater ownership and less resistance.

CS 4 expressed the view that because of the inexperience of many teacher educators, the policy was not implemented to the extent it should have been. This view is supported by CS 5 who ascribed the fact that the policy was not fully implemented to the fact that it was difficult for many teacher educators to accept change. He stated that they were not exposed to the "new concept" and "new philosophy".

CS 2 expressed concern about the understanding of the notion of democracy among some student teachers whose political motivations mitigate against reflective practice as they are not really in the interest of teacher education. Although the respondents all agreed that the indicators are there that more reflective practitioners are gradually being developed, the concern was also raised that it was too early to measure the extent to which success was achieved since it is a complicated process which takes time. Another concern expressed by CS 1 was that the changes had not been consolidated and that more bureaucratic procedures were instituted because of financial constraints. According to him these would inhibit the further development of reflective practice. This last aspect may, on the grounds that the goal of democracy was misunderstood or misinterpreted or distorted because of over-compliance, lead to unintended consequences e.g. competent staff questioning practices and procedures were seen to be working against the reform and were therefore forced out of their positions by the actions of some students. Respondents also identified the excessive workload of teacher educators at some colleges as a factor constraining reflective practice among teacher educators. The fact that new concepts such as learner-centred education and reflective practice take time to be fully understood and implemented, was also cited as a constraining factor by CS 5.

Presentation of Participant Observation Data

The study, as stated in the policy chapter, seeks to examine the teacher education policy in terms of its aspirations, pressures, needs, intentions, interventions, implementation strategies and outcomes. The findings of the participant observation are presented in terms of the above issues.

1. Aspirations, Intentions and Pressures:

Consistent with the perceptions of the respondents, the researcher, as participant observer, found that the teacher education policy aspired to redress the disparities of the previous dispensation and to implement the principles of the Constitution. This is evident from the policy directives and annual reports issued since 1990 e.g. Change with Continuity; Education and Culture in Namibia: The Way Forward to 1996; Language Policy for Schools 1992 - 1996 , as well as from the statements made by various stakeholders in meetings. The pressures for the reform arose from the new goals of education which created new aspirations and expectations. These pressures were translated into a policy to create a national and common teacher education programme closely aligned to the needs and demands of the new basic education system as described in chapter 5.

Since education, according to Melber (1997:68) "is a component and mirror image of social realities", the pressures for transformation of the entire society after the attainment of independence, were exerted to a considerable extent on the education sector. As in other countries, education was perceived as a vehicle to bring about social change. The reform of teacher education was largely shaped "by the broader socio-political changes taking place as part of the liberation of the Namibian people" (Nyambe, 1996:139). Nyambe further states :

Furthermore, the pedagogical strategies in the

program such as; "learner-centred pedagogy", "democracy", "close relation between student teachers and teacher educators", and "the whole philosophy of the program" are part and parcel of the whole context of transformation from a colonial to a free Namibia.

(Ibid, 139-140).

However, as will be further elaborated on in the next chapter, the aspirations, interventions and pressures had to be dealt with within circumstances created by and through colonialism and could not be removed overnight with the arrival of formal independence.

2. Needs:

The needs of the basic education system were articulated by politicians and professionals alike - even by those who were resistant to the reform - at various fora and through various documents. It was recognised by most Namibians that the system was inequitable, lacking in quality and did not prepare learners for the world of work or for life in Namibia. This was clearly articulated already in 1985 when the report of the Education Committee appointed by the interim government was released. At independence the educational goals and needs, as expressed by the population at large through the Constitution, were defined and then articulated in the policy statement of the Ministry, Towards Education for All: A Development Brief for Education, Culture and Training (MEC, 1993). Since the needs were evident it was not difficult for the government to form a broad-based coalition of support for the policy proposal and to obtain the mandate to reform the system (as described in the aggregation stage in chapter 5).

3. Interventions:

The researcher observed and experienced, consistent with what is described in the literature (Mitchell, 1988; Barrett and Fudge, 1981; Madsen, 1994), that unless deliberate interventions are made to ensure that change takes place, not much will happen as those who wish to change an existing

system are set up for failure by their colleagues who wish to maintain the status quo. In addition, as pointed out by Miller and Miller (1998:24)

> *the direct and indirect impacts of new innovations upon ongoing operations need to be carefully considered. Could they result in the loss of some positions and the creation of others, and if so, how could those shrinking positions be reinvented and eliminated employees be re-educated?*

In the case of teacher education reform in Namibia, the Ministry intervened deliberately by utilising the services of projects, advisors and consultants and by creating parallel but powerful structures to minimise bureaucratic resistance and delays. The Ministry also provided staff development opportunities and actively encouraged and supported staff at the colleges to become involved in staff development programmes.

4. Implementation Strategies:

The researcher observed, experienced and also found evidence in documents e.g. evaluation reports, as well as in the responses from interviewees and other stakeholders, that the Ministry attempted a number of strategies to facilitate implementation. Stakeholders at various levels and at various stages were involved in the conceptualisation; articulation; interpretation; regulation; and implementation of the policy, in support of the principle of democracy (cf the policy chain in chapter 5). The values of equity, justice and democracy as embedded in the Constitution were clearly articulated in policy documents e.g. Toward Education for All (MEC, 1993) in order to build an understanding for these values and to foster them. The necessary infrastructure was created by upgrading college facilities; separating the Rundu and Caprivi Colleges from the secondary schools and erecting custom-built facilities; by staff development opportunities for teacher educators through the TERP, English Language Teacher Development Programme (ELTDP) and University of Alberta Projects; by establishing Educational Development Units (EDUs) at each college; and by placing Reform Facilitators at each college to assist teacher educators

and students in reform related activities during the transitional period. The role of the Reform Facilitators was viewed in a positive light by the college management interviewed and the monitoring reports also reflect this positive view. One respondent described their role as "an enlightening one" as they were providing information, materials and new perspectives and encouraged teacher educators to venture into new areas and to participate in the staff development programme. The researcher's observation supports the view, but in addition she observed that they also acted as catalysts in the process, because to some extent they were seen as neutral. In addition, dialogue and education, consistent with the stages in policy formation as described in chapter 5, were utilised in the implementation of the teacher education policy in Namibia.

Resource Centres (TRC's) were established to support the implementation of the in-service programmes. Through the field supervision of participating teachers was coordinated.

5. Outcomes:

The researcher observed and gleaned from documents e.g. monitoring reports, workshop and seminar reports and capacity building exercises, that the 'street-level bureaucrats' were involved from the onset of the process. In some instances they were not involved as much as they perhaps could have been e.g. in the initial curriculum development process as pointed out by one respondent, which created unintended outcomes of resistance or a lack of understanding of the process. In other instances their involvement bordered on over-compliance, which also had unanticipated outcomes, e.g. in terms of not disciplining students because of the way in which they interpreted the goal of democracy in the reform. In other cases they did not evaluate students on a regular basis, because students were expected to do self-evaluation.

These unintended outcomes point towards a deficiency in the policy formation process which could have been caused by several factors, two of which have already been mentioned.

The other factors will be discussed in the next chapter in terms of the policy stages and the issues leading to policy deficiency as described in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

The research questions mentioned in chapters 1, 7, and 9 attempted to explore and to elicit information on what education and training student teachers receive at the four colleges and through the in-service teacher education mode; to elicit the contexts of education and training of student teachers through the pre-service and in-service modes; to attempt to understand and clarify their ways of thinking about learning and teaching which form part of their individual and collective experiences; and to analyse the national teacher education policy in relation to issues of implementation and delivery. The discussion of the findings will therefore concentrate on these questions in relation to the methods used.

What Education and Training do Student Teachers Receive?

Pre-conditions for Reflection

The findings suggest that the BETD programme (both pre-service and in-service modes) has promising potential to fulfill the intentions of the programme, but that there are some areas where additional emphasis or improvements are needed. From the data it is clear that the colleges and the in-service sites are trying to establish an environment conducive to professional development, which includes the development of reflective practice. They are doing this through the upgrading of their own staff by participation in inter- and intra-college workshops, seminars and staff development programmes. College management in their responses to the interview question as to what facilitates reflective practice, named staff development as a priority. The policy makers in their responses also indicated that capacity building among college staff would continue to be a major aspect of the reform process. This is seen to be important

as the values, assumptions and beliefs held by staff influence the way in which the programme is delivered. Teacher educators can act as guardians of old knowledge and can perpetuate the authoritarian nature of schooling (Harber, 1997:4). One respondent named "open-mindedness and responsibility" as key attitudes to be fostered among staff and students. These are consistent with Dewey's principles for reflection mentioned in chapter 6.

The in-service programme through its system of tutors, mentors, supervisors and field observation attempts to provide a supportive environment, but because of a lack of capacity at both central and regional level, the system has not been functioning well in all areas. This is articulated in the following way by one respondent:

> *I don't really get support* (from my tutors); *I attend classes and discussions.... Tutors must have contact throughout. As soon as I have finished an assignment, I must have a result. We wait too long for responses and results. They must give results soon as to know where the problem is.*

One of the guiding principles of the BETD programme is that of "reflective teaching and learning". Many of the respondents when questioned as to the teaching methods employed by the college, described them in terms of "solving problems"; the development of "critical thinking skills"; fostering of "self-evaluation"; letting students "explore"; "learner-centred methods"; "sharing ideas"; and "giving support". These responses are consistent with the elements identified in chapter 6 as important features for reflective practice as extrapolated from the literature reviewed. They are, among others: exchange of ideas and support between colleagues; skills of analysing and evaluating; problem solving skills; analytical and critical thinking about goals and actions; and attitudes of open-mindedness.

At the colleges where the student teachers understood diaries to be reflective journals, e.g. Rundu, Caprivi and Ongwediva, the diaries were utilised as tools to stimulate reflection as shown by their responses. One student indicated: "We do reflect [on] what we learn every day". This is consistent

with how journal writing is viewed in the literature (e.g. Brubacher et al, 1994).

> *Pre-service teachers are often asked to write down their experiences at the end of a day of teaching, reflect upon them, draw conclusions from them, and share their insights about the day's events with their cooperating teacher as well as their university supervisor (Brubacher et al, 1994: 131).*

The researcher established through the interviews and observations that the responses to the question on diaries as summarised in figure 16 on page 188, are a true indication that at three of the four colleges reflective writing was used to stimulate critical thinking. At one of the colleges and at the in-service sites it was understood to refer to calendars. This seems to suggest that the teacher educators at Rundu, Caprivi and Ongwediva had been more willing to utilise the technique of journal writing to stimulate reflection. The serving teachers' misinterpretation of the question can be ascribed to the fact that they have had fewer opportunities to engage in "reflective conversation" (Schön, 1987) since they only meet with their tutors briefly and periodically. This assumption is supported by figure 15 on page 188 which indicates that the serving teachers had fewer opportunities to discuss teaching and learning.

Russell(1993), as described in chapter 6, holds the view that the environment plays an important role in the development of reflective practice. From the responses of student teachers it is evident that the colleges, through the methods employed, tried to create the pre-conditions for such an environment. However, it was not possible to assess as to what depth the colleges have succeeded in this endeavour, as it was only possible through the study to elicit the students' views on reflective practice through their "development of thinking about teaching" (Russell, 1993:145). To establish whether there are "changes to teaching" (ibid,145) they need to be observed in their own classrooms.

The way in which the programme is delivered also shows that

there are attempts to implement the goals and the principles underlying the philosophy of education in post-independent Namibia. This is evident from the questionnaire data which indicates more balanced intakes in terms of disadvantaged groups (especially women). Figure 6 in the previous chapter shows that the gender balance at the Caprivi College is consistent with the profile of the region i.e. a much higher proportion of males to females (3:1), but that at the other sites a more balanced gender profile has emerged. The high ratio of females to males at the Ongwediva College can be ascribed to the fact that of those who completed the questionnaires there were more females. In addition, the Ongwediva College, as a result of the neglect of Blacks and especially of black females in the vital subjects of Mathematics and Science in the colonial period, tried to redress the past imbalance by encouraging more females to take the Mathematics and Science specialisation. This is an indication of a tendency towards more equity which is a fundamental principle in the Constitution and a principal goal in the transformation of society. Figure 7 on age distribution also indicates that more people who had been excluded from higher education opportunities before, were now given the chance to improve their qualifications. Figure 8 showing the academic qualifications (which reflect the entry levels) demonstrates the same principle, as students with a grade 12 equivalent, i.e. grade 10 + teaching experience or other competencies, are allowed to enter and to be brought up to full qualification through a three year programme provided that they meet the expected exit competencies.

From the responses obtained from serving teachers through the interviews and participant observation, it appears that in some instances there is a supportive environment since school mentors, i.e. experienced and qualified teachers in more senior positions, "help with lesson preparation and teaching aids". In other instances, they do not receive the support they need. Such variation can be ascribed to the understanding of the tutors and mentors of their roles and responsibilities and to the fact that tutors and mentors are on a full time basis engaged in other jobs and only

perform duties in the in-service programme on a part-time basis. However, the policy makers and designers of the programme should have made alternative arrangements to ensure that these deficiencies were catered for in a way that would provide a supportive environment. This becomes an issue of particular concern since the in-service programme, just like the pre-service one, subscribes to the same aims including in particular the development of reflective practitioners. While the in-service programme attempts to encourage teachers to examine problems in teaching from both practical and philosophical perspectives (Grimmet et al, 1990; McCarthy et al, 1989) through practice-based inquiry, it does not seem able to provide collaboration and dialogue with colleagues which can enhance reflective teaching, professional learning and personal fulfilment (Dewey, 1933).

The evidence gathered also seems to indicate that the serving teachers and to some extent the student teachers may 'reflect' in the sense of what Dewey described as merely 'thinking about' issues. This can in part be based on the fact that the mode of in-service delivery currently employed does not lend itself optimally to the development of reflective practice. This is in contrast with the literature (McIntyre, 1993; Calderhead and Gates, 1993; Zeichner and Liston, 1987) that reflection could be a central means of learning for experienced practitioners. In the case of the student teachers it may be ascribed to the fact that the policy has not been fully implemented, partly because the belief still exists in the colleges that new and improved knowledge is gained from external sources and 'experts' rather than from personal experience, and by listening, rather than by acting (Russell, 1993). Since student teachers have more opportunities to gain access to ideas from other sources (McIntyre, 1993) reflection seems to be a less central means of learning for them. However, learning to reflect is an important goal of the pre-service programme since as described in chapter 6 "it is through reflection on their own teaching that they (student teachers) will increasingly with experience be able to continue learning"(McIntyre, 1993:44).

Attitudinal Development

The majority of respondents, through the questionnaires, interviews, diary writing and observation carried out for the evaluation, indicated that they have changed their understanding of teaching and learning. This is an indication of an attitudinal change brought about by the paradigm shift and its supporting methodologies. These methodologies include: reflective writing/diaries group discussions; project work, observation; and critical inquiry. Such methodologies provide students with opportunities to change their understanding of the process of education through what Little (1993) terms as the pursuit of genuine problems, questions, and curiosities. One student teacher made the following statement in this regard:

> *I would like to add on that in the BETD I have learned reflective skills....That skill has really developed me into a realistic teacher. I consider when I do my lesson plan I should think of the learners* (ST: College 3).

A serving teacher echoed the above in the following way.

> *[You] start with learners' experiences, what they already know. [You] put difficult questions so they can think for themselves. Give them things to research.*

These students' views seem to match the intention of reconceptualising of teaching as articulated in the Ministry's Development Brief (MEC, 1993:60) that teaching "begins with the interests of the learners". This model involves what Lawton (1996:5) describes as the 'process' approach of selecting certain kinds of knowledge and experience because "they open up new experiences, new kinds of knowledge, new methods of learning".

While the BETD programme is intended to incorporate aspects of the various orientations to teacher education and in particular the critical inquiry orientation as described in chapter 6, the analysis of the data indicates that the

academic, practical and technical orientations seem to be emphasised more by the serving teachers than the personal and critical inquiry ones. These orientations manifest themselves in the importance given to issues of not enough resources, outdated resources, over-crowded classrooms or discipline, as responses by the serving teachers to the question of which aspects of teaching they find difficult. This emphasis is illustrated by the following responses:

> *The government is still slow to send textbooks to school. We don't have enough textbooks and only old textbooks.*
>
> *Only with discipline sometimes. They [the learners] do not pay much attention to behaviour; don't listen; know they can't be beaten.*
>
> *The thing I found difficult is lesson plans without teaching aids. I don't know how to create teaching aids for a specific topic.*

However, the pre-service students, while also mentioning aspects related to the above, placed more emphasis on the personal and critical inquiry orientations. These findings are consistent with the finding that the college groups have more opportunity to discuss with teacher educators and fellow students and therefore are more exposed to new ideas, methodologies and practices. They also receive more support. The following responses show their orientation:

> *One of them was involving the learners themselves. [However] I was very much confident with the knowledge I had. I was able to link any topic to a specific method.*
>
> *Communication with some of the teachers - it was so difficult for me. It was not a language problem, or not because they were shy.*
>
> *The learner-centred approach. The learners are not yet used to it - they are used to the teacher-centred approach. Even when I ask questions they think it is just a discussion not really a lesson. The teachers also look at you because they think the children are going to fail. Group work was also a bit difficult because they are not used to it and the classes are not arranged for group work.*

What is important to note from the above is that the personal (the importance of interpersonal relationships) and critical inquiry orientations are encouraged and implemented, albeit

not with the emphasis they deserve in the programme. This is in contrast with the pre-independence emphasis on the academic, the practical and the technical orientations only. However, the implementation of the orientations varies from site to site with some colleges placing more emphasis on the 'content' and 'objectives' approach and others more on the 'process' approach (Lawton, 1996:5-7).

Consistent with the above findings the data reveals that the context for teaching and learning has changed at all the sites, in line with the policy intention to change the 'nature of schooling', to promote 'learning with understanding' and to foster democracy and participation. All the respondents, through the questionnaires, interviews, case study and evaluation, indicated the change both in context and content from the pre-independence to the post-independence situation. One interviewee said that in the old system education was teacher-centred with the teacher doing all the work and all the talking, but now learners are involved and can give their ideas. In the pre-independence scenario the teacher was looked upon as the one who knew everything and the learners were supposed to memorise the given information. On the other hand, respondents described the situation after independence as more flexible and more open, leading to more freedom and improved relationships between teacher and learner. One respondent described the situation in the following way:

> *Learner-centred approach* (is) *very interesting, learners have their own ideas and they enjoy it. When they are in groups they don't feel shy. Improved relationship.* (T:2).

Another respondent described the change in context thus:

> *I was just teaching the way I was taught. I was limited to the way I was taught to give information back.* (But now) *Teaching is to think in a diverse manner. I have acquired the skill of an enquiring mind - now I can search for information.* (ST: College 3).

One teacher educator described the new context in which experimenting is encouraged as

> *Not to be scared to use a new teaching method, try it out, see if it is a success. If not, why not?* (From diaries for evaluation).

In general, the changed context and content were experienced in a more positive way by the student teachers than by the teacher educators, because more was expected from the teacher educators in terms of changing their practice and some of them were resistant to the changes as in the past the system worked well for them. In this regard Machiavelli (quoted from Bennett, 1996:44) stated already in 1513:

> *There is nothing more difficult to carry out nor more doubtful of success, nor more dangerous to handle, than to initiate a new order of things. For the reformer has enemies in all who profit by the old order and only lukewarm defenders in all those who would profit from the new order.*

In addition, organisations, in this case the colleges, are "dynamically conservative " (ibid:44),i.e. experiencing a mixture of trepidation about the unknown while acknowledging that change is necessary. One teacher educator made the statement that

> *In general, programme standards need to be more demanding and that examinations are needed at the end of each year.*(From National Evaluation data).

This statement points towards the principle of positive achievement which focuses on what students can do and know, in contrast to catching them out in what they do not know or cannot do. The principle of positive achievement was perceived by some, especially the previously privileged teacher educators, as a practice which would make 'standards' drop. Furthermore, continuous assessment was seen to be an inferior mode of assessment in comparison to examinations.

Professional and Personal Growth

Spence (1996:82) states that while many changes in the field of in-service teacher education have taken place, what has not changed is the need to balance personal and professional development. He further contends:

> *Another need which is by no means new, but which has been thrown into sharper relief as a consequence of recent educational reforms, is the development and sustenance by appropriate INSET strategies of reflective practitioners tentatively defined for the present as teachers who, as an outcome of varying modes of personal and professional development, are enabled to adopt an analytical and critical approach to teaching and learning, to take a dispassionate view of their own and others' part in the process, and who are able to see their roles in a wider institutional management context.*

The above definition of reflective practitioners can also be applied to student teachers and not only to serving teachers.

The data reveals that student teachers in the programme display a positive disposition towards the new paradigm of schooling and they have acquired, in varying degrees, the attitudes, skills and knowledge to become inquisitive and life-long learners. The National Evaluation Report (MBEC, 1997:51) states that reflecting on the process of teaching and learning and factors influencing those processes is important for the teachers and their ongoing professional development. The respondents, including the policy makers, agreed that there was a change in the way student teachers and teacher educators conceptualise teaching and learning as opposed to the pre-independence notion. The response from one interviewee summarises this consensus:

> *I thought learning and teaching they are two different concepts but I realised that these two concepts go hand in hand . Teachers can only be there if they have learners. In the past teachers would come into the class only expecting learners to memorise. So, compared to now, learners are very much involved and at least they are gaining something.*(ST: College 1).

However, while student teachers exhibit a "consciousness" of their own thinking and seem to have acquired the habits of mind which will enable them to continuously question their practice, to seek new understandings and new solutions (MBEC, 1997:51), for the most part their primary focus was on the immediate and technical aspects of teaching. This

may be acceptable from a developmental point of view, since the notion and ethos is new and still abstract - even to policy makers and teacher educators - and understanding has to be built gradually. This was acknowledged by one respondent who said that as a new concept it was abstract and that it would take time for awareness to grow and for people to feel comfortable with it. It was the researcher's observation and own experience as well, that because Namibian learners and educators experienced a very different system before independence, they feel uncomfortable with introspection and self-evaluation. Awareness about the benefits therefore has to grow over time and with experience. Nevertheless, there is the need to emphasise the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching, as opposed to the immediate and technical, and to challenge student teachers and teacher educators to be sensitive towards the broader social, economic and political forces which have an impact on teaching and learning (Zeichner, 1994).

Consistent with the principle of life-long learning (MEC, 1993) and the view espoused by the political office bearer that teachers should take charge of their own development and learning, respondents expressed interest in further studies and ongoing professional development, which is in contrast to the previously held notion that once a teacher obtained a qualification that was sufficient. A student teacher reflected on this aspect, i.e. what will happen after the attainment of the qualification, in the following manner:

> *To add on - I need to improve myself as learning is a process and the college has a lot of resources. I can also get support from the TRC* (ST: College 2).

The questionnaire and interview data, as well as the data from the diaries indicate that student teachers display an understanding of why their perceptions, assumptions and beliefs have changed, since they were able to explain their reasoning behind given actions. One respondent from the in-service group for example explained her reasons for changing her practice in the following way:

> *I try my best to apply everything I learned in the BETD because most things we learn are important. It*

helped me to improve lesson preparation. And I feel good in presenting the lessons (T:3).

In relation to the issue of changes in methodology, i.e. to a learner-centred approach, most respondents mentioned group work as the most commonly used method. However, they were able to articulate why group work was considered to be such an important tool for learning. They were therefore able to reflect both in terms of the process they were engaged in as well as on the outcomes of that process. These outcomes they presented in terms of the impact on the learners, e.g.

[The learners are]*Not shy to talk in groups, they can communicate well and report back.*

On the issue of reflecting on action, respondents in general agreed that it was an important aspect of the teaching and learning process. The following response from a student teacher reflects the general view:

Now I know teaching and learning must be linked, they must have a relationship. Our learning process was affected, now you can see that for you to evaluate the lesson you have taught, the actions of the learners will help you to reflect on the methods you have used. Then you can reorganise. For you to have an effective lesson your learners should be much involved (ST: College 1).

In exploring the development of reflective practice, the study touches also very much on aspects related to learner-centred education. From the responses provided by the participants in the study it might appear as if their view of learner-centred education is narrow and focused only on teaching techniques and methods, because of the consistent reference to group work by both student teachers and teacher educators. However, the study shows that taken holistically, respondents demonstrate awareness of other important concepts of learner/centred education , e.g. seeing the learner at the heart of the learning enterprise, a commitment to the learners and a commitment to improve on practice. The

following examples are representative of the above aspects:

> *Teachers have only to build on what the child knows* (ST: College 3).
>
> and
>
> *I have also learned how to appreciate children during my practice teaching. In the past when they did something wrong one would just punish them without finding out the background, the environment, how it influences the behaviour* (ST: College 4).
>
> *...and before I came here I didn't know there is a difference between teacher-centred and learner-centred. I thought the thing that matter is how best you can teach. I didn't know there are two different approaches and when I realised there is a big difference between the two, I started to realise why we struggled, why the traditional education failed to bring us up to standard.*

Implementation of the Teacher Education Policy

Constraining Factors

> *If a situation is at all complex and the range of options for action at all controversial...there will be costs to be borne; and different decisions are likely to lead to different patterns of 'winners' and 'losers'.*
> (Watson, quoted from Bennett, 1996:44).

The data gathered both from students and from policy makers and implementers, reveals that the scope, the urgency, and the pace of the teacher education reform were experienced by the respondents as daunting. In the complex situation of transformation and change in Namibia the options were indeed 'controversial' and depending on the ideology, some participants in the process of reform experienced what they perceived to be 'winning' and others experienced 'losing'. Such experiences and perceptions are consistent with the view expressed by Miller and Miller(1998:24) that

> *Resistance to change, then, is the stability side of change and as such should be viewed as an age-old instinct favouring the known. This understanding is essential to making progressive and meaningful changes...*

The different participants in the reform experienced

tremendous pressures of differing expectations and having to cope with the design, planning and implementation of the programme. This came as a result of the high priority and expectations placed on teacher education to lead the way in the transformation of the educational system. The policy makers consciously employed this strategy consistent with the view that teachers have a key role to play in any reform effort as described in the chapters 5 and 6. One respondent indicated that not enough suitably trained Namibian teacher educators and tutors were available for the implementation of the reform and as a result volunteers and expatriates had to be utilised. The researcher observed and experienced this situation as problematic in the sense that some volunteers did not subscribe to the goals and philosophy adopted by the Ministry. Another respondent expressed the view that the reform and the implementation of the programme happened too fast, while at the same time acknowledging that it was necessary to "move fast" because of the societal pressures for change and the leading role that teacher education had to play. An interviewee (from college management) expressed the concern that those involved in the implementation of the reform were overloaded and were therefore not in a position to reflect and to make improvements to their practice. This concern is reflected in the literature on change and innovation (Miller and Miller, 1998:24) and is expressed in the following way:

> *Effective timing requires several relational considerations and understandings, such as what will be the impacts of added human and material resources (time and money) required for the innovation; what impacts on other activities will the introduction of an innovation likely have; is the organisational climate favorable, neutral, or hostile to something new; or are there already too many "balls-in-the-air" to add one more at this time?*

The researcher experienced and observed that the impact of human and material resources were not adequately catered for, which, to a certain extent, inhibited the implementation of the reform and thus of the policy. A further complicating factor was that some staff members at the northern colleges were not appropriately placed as a result of these colleges

having being managed as 'glorified secondary schools'. These staff members had to be replaced, which was problematic since so many other opportunities at higher levels were opening up to persons with a good educational background and suitable replacements could not easily be found. The impact of the reform on other activities was taken into consideration, but it was difficult to determine exactly beforehand whether the organisational climate at the various sites would be 'favourable', 'neutral' or 'hostile' because of the heterogeneity of staff and the differing ideologies within the same college.

The factors which emerged from the study as constraining the implementation of the policy, seem to indicate that while there was consultation, it was not sufficient or to the extent desired by some participants in the process. It thus seems, consistent with what is described in the articulation stage of policy formation in chapter 5, that the policy problem had been articulated, but that the mechanisms for dealing with the problem had not been fully worked out. From the data it also appears as if there was insufficient negotiation about the process and its implications. In chapter 5 this aspect is described as a factor which could contribute to policy failure.

Some respondents, while acknowledging that the reform was necessary, expressed the concern that the timing was not appropriate and that more time should have been taken to plan for implementation and for the involvement of stakeholders:

> *Teacher educators should have right from the beginning been more involved, especially in the CCG....Then there would have been less resistance and more ownership. But the Ministry had to move fast and it is difficult to satisfy all* (CS 2).

This view indicates that the Ministry, while having tried to involve the implementers, may not have succeeded in the desired way and to the extent required. Timing has been cited in chapter 5 as a factor which could lead to policy failure. The view also hints at the fact that the distribution

of power from the central to the local level was unequal with the 'street-level', i.e. the teacher educators, having had less influence on the process. This may have led to 'bureaucratic subversion' which in chapter 5 is described as a factor inhibiting policy implementation. However, this does not seem to be an unusual situation in policy implementation since Clark (1996: 162) contends that

> *But a learning society as a political community is also concerned with the distribution of power. Finding the means by which power can be effectively and fairly managed for the common good is never an easy task.*

As a result of advisors having been utilised by the Ministry to expose stakeholders to more perspectives and new trends and developments in teacher education, the programme was perceived by some to have been driven by expatriates. However, a senior official expressed himself in the following manner on the influence of advisors:

> *The advisors created the awareness* [for the new programme] *and guided in policy development. The Ministry personnel gave* [the] *perspective of what we know of the practical situation. Provided realism.*

Another respondent holds the view that the reform could not take place overnight as "the damage done [by the apartheid regime] was too big to be remedied in a short period". He also recognises that not all participants in the process were favourable to the reform and further states:

> *The attitudes and thinking of people must be reoriented to respond to reform. Not all people were ready to change as they were expected to change. Training for people in key positions should have been given - some people are trainable, others find it difficult to adapt.*
> (CS 3).

Rationale for Reform

As mentioned before, all respondents, even those who had been advantaged by the previous disposition, agreed that there was a need for reform. They differed however on their perceptions as to what should have been reformed; how it should have been structured; and its scope, sequence and

pace. The resistance and hostile attitudes of some participants to the process arose from these aspects and also from an insufficient understanding of the rationale of the reform. Another factor contributing to resistance was that some participants felt unsupported, overloaded and having to keep too many 'balls-in-the-air'. These factors have been referred to in the allocation stage of policy formation in chapter 5. Barrett and Fudge (1981) contend that because stakeholders attempt to maximise their own interests and priorities through the allocation of values, resistance and hostility may ensue.

Reflective Practice

The majority of the respondents perceived critical inquiry and action research as vehicles for understanding their practice and to develop in the profession. This is regarded as an important aspect in the reform effort, since the rationale for the development of reflective practice in Namibia rests on the premises that teaching and learning have to be conceptualised differently from the way it had been before in order to accommodate léarner-centred education; that more effective teaching and learning was required to improve the quality of education; and that teachers should on an ongoing basis develop professionally. From the responses obtained it seems as if this intention of the policy is being implemented. In this regard some representative views are:

> *We did implement the policy through classroom analysis, social contact and behaviour, and reflect by writing in journals. Also through action research we involve both students and staff. also through staff development.*(CS 4)

> *We are now more practically orientated. We do research and so on. Even when you go to schools now you can see from the learners they start doing research on their own. But I didn't have an idea of doing research* (ST: College 4).

> *Classroom research , if you see some issues to improve which are very important* (ST: College 2).

> *The other thing - the teacher has to explore more. The teacher has to know the learners, e.g. this one has a problem* (ST: College 1).

> *I found research as the most important, because if there's a problem the information in a book will not help the reality, so then research or action research can help* (ST: College 1).

While student teachers and teacher educators seem to display a broader understanding of the concept of learner-centred education, they do not seem to apply this understanding as much as would be desirable. It would appear that both groups, but in particular the teacher educators as they have to create the necessary environment and establish the practice, need a 'richer repertoire of teaching methods' (MBEC, 1997). However, the student teachers recognise that they have a transformative role to play in terms of the implementation of learner-centred education. Nyambe (1996:108) states that the beliefs "by program participants regarding transformation as a challenge in their hands should also be seen as a positive achievement as this can ensure teacher participation in furthering the goals of the reform process". They also recognise that they may encounter resistance from the learners, teachers and principals in this regard as teacher-centred methodologies are still prevalent in many schools.

The policy makers, through their responses, seem to display an understanding of reflective practice more in line with the critical/transformative paradigm. This can be explained in view of their broader and more in-depth exposure to the literature and to teacher education specialists. In addition, since they consciously adopted the policy to develop reflective practitioners, they must have understood the principles underpinning the transformative paradigm. They regard reflective practice as "taking charge of own development and thinking"; "develop people who can think for themselves; act in a responsible way; analyse problems and come to meaningful decisions for implementation". There seems to be a need for further development in the students' use of teaching techniques, especially with regards to the question-and-answer technique which was reported as one used frequently in the colleges and in schools. From responses and from observation it became evident that most questions

were factual, did not call for elaboration and therefore were not challenging nor did they encourage reflection. In addition, the data seems to indicate that student teachers' understanding of reflection and reflective practice centres around the effectiveness and efficiency of lesson delivery and on improvement of what has not been done well. This view of reflective practice has been referred to as the 'technical rationality' approach (Giroux and McLaren, 1987) which concerns itself with the technical application of knowledge for the attainment of given ends. The intention of the policy to develop reflective practitioners does include this aspect, but in the transformative paradigm adopted by Namibia, reflective practice should move beyond this aspect to incorporate considerations of moral and ethical criteria such as social justice and equity. Within the transformative paradigm the student teacher should be enabled to achieve critical awareness of "the socio-political and economic structures which shape their lives as teachers and citizens, as well as the lives of their students and other citizens such as the oppressed masses" (Nyambe, 1996:122).

Democracy

One of the underlying principles of learner-centred education is democracy. An important element of democratic education is participation. Many respondents espoused the idea that they saw teaching and learning as a participatory process. They also include cooperation and sharing in their notion of democracy. From observation and their responses it is evident that they try to implement the principle as they have defined it:

> *So compared to now, learners are very much involved* (ST: College 3).
>
> *For you to have an effective lesson your learners should be much involved* (ST: College 1).
>
> *I understand that both learners' and teachers' opinions and suggestions should be taken into consideration* (ST: College 1).

The teacher and the learner are working together , they are sharing ideas (ST: College 3).

From the responses it is important to note however, that the notion of democracy is described in terms of involvement and sharing, which seems to be the prevalent notion to be found in the Namibian society at present as manifested in statements and actions. Involvement and sharing at this stage do not seem to be related to learners taking more responsibility for their learning and actively participating in the planning of lessons and learning content. The researcher observed that teachers also seem to interpret democracy and involvement of learners as a way of letting go of some of their own responsibility. However, contrary to this interpretation, a democratic classroom has to provide a safe environment where learners as members of a learning community can fully participate and share with others in producing new understandings and insights, and where both parties accept their responsibilities according to their abilities and level of maturity.

One policy maker linked the principle of democracy with the principle of reflective practice which indicates a deeper awareness of the interconnectedness of the goal and policies. He expressed his view on democracy not in terms of participation, but in terms of autonomy in the following way:

Through democracy we develop independent thinkers who make their own decisions based on their own judgement.
(CS 1).

Concluding Remarks

As might be expected, the data also reveals that the participants faced many challenges and difficulties which were articulated by the respondents. Some of these were alluded to earlier in the chapter and in other chapters: not enough preparation for the implementation; the fluidness of the situation which gave much scope for creativity but also created much uncertainty; the scope of the reform; and insufficient resources. However, in general the data shows that the respondents understand the rationale for the reform and are in general supportive of the reform, especially the student teachers. As pointed out by the Evaluation Report on Professional Issues (MBEC, 1997:61) it "might be that the introduction of educational reform in the context of

independence has paved the way for a preparedness among the BETD teachers for change and adopting new ways of teaching".

The data also indicates that a new conceptualisation of teaching and learning is beginning to emerge which will have an impact on the classroom, as was intended by the policy makers. This impact already seems to manifest itself in their approach to challenges e.g. hostility from teachers already in the field who do not understand the new paradigm; problems such as insufficient resources and support for especially the in-service group; and their espoused commitment towards involving learners and building on learners' experience and existing knowledge. The respondents indicated that one of the aims of the programme was to create self-reliant and resourceful teachers and therefore they were taught to expect challenges and constraints in the system.

Responses and observation indicate that there is an emergent understanding of the aspects of learner-centred education and reflective practice. The aim and scope of the study was not to establish to what extent BETD students are actually implementing this understanding, since this will have to be done once they have left the college environment. However, the need for learner-centred education and reflective practice seems to be understood and accepted. The responses also reflect awareness of learners' diversity and the fact that learners with special needs would require more assistance. The data from this study as well as the findings of the Evaluation Report indicate that the emphasis on the learner i.e. putting the learner at the centre of the learning and teaching process, is a cause for optimism.

While it is difficult at this stage to measure the success of the policy since the process is not complete yet, it is clear from the data that the policy is in general supported, that especially student teachers welcome the reform, and that efforts had been made at all levels to facilitate successful implementation. At the same time however, contradictions between the responses of the questionnaires, interviews and the case study on the one hand, and observation

on the other, also emerge. These contradictions point towards a need for more exposure of teacher educators and student teachers to learner-centred and reflective environments in which a range of activities and techniques are utilised to further develop attitudes and skills, and more support to teacher educators and student teachers in the implementation process itself. This is consistent with the finding in the Evaluation Report (MBEC, 1997:61) which states:

> *What is needed is to create an environment where teachers can experiment, where they can be creative, where they can apply their minds, where they can be free to think and find solutions to daily problems. The teachers themselves can help shape and create this environment but there is also need for more systematic support from the authorities.*

CHAPTER 10

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter presents some reflections based on the research questions in the form of a summary, and makes recommendations for further study. Based on the findings and therefore on the understandings and insights gained, and on the relevant literature, suggestions will be made to those who are concerned with the enhancement and improvement of educational provision.

Reflections on Research Questions

The study was a reflective inquiry into the following aspects of teacher education reform in Namibia as already mentioned in chapters 1, 7 and 8:

- the education and training of student teachers at the colleges and through the in-service mode;
- the contexts in which teacher education in Namibia takes place;
- student teachers' ways of thinking about teaching and learning; and
- the relationship between the national teacher education policy and issues of implementation and delivery.

In reflecting on the questions the researcher utilised the critical approach as described under the frame of reference in chapter 1. The assumption underlying this approach is that theory should relate to practice in a relevant way so that while new insights are gained and new theories are being generated, the products of the study can be of practical relevance and use - in this instance to identify the shortcomings and to provide some suggestions as to how they can be overcome or minimised.

1. Education and Training Received by Student Teachers

In Namibia. as has been described in previous chapters, teachers were products of a system which, in the main held learning to be the transmission of knowledge. However, the findings of this study reveal that given the tools, the space and the opportunity to inquire into their actions and to reflect on them, student teachers and serving teachers have begun to realise that that there are other ways of learning. The teacher education reform programme in Namibia moved away from the traditional and narrow organisation of pre-service and in-service programmes to an empowering programme. It aims to empower student teachers and serving teachers by providing them with the techniques, time, space and opportunities to engage in critical inquiry and action research activities. It strives to emphasise cross-curricular work through its acknowledgment and recognition of the importance of relationships and networks. These are extremely important to restore in the African setting where collectivism, mutual respect and consensus are key values (Tedla, 1996). The reform aims to establish partnerships at all levels and in particular among student teachers , teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and administrators. In the pre-service BETD programme the partnerships are beginning to emerge, but better coordination and clearer communication are still needed to ensure that strong and lasting partnerships are built. In the in-service BETD, while the programme attempts to root teacher learning in day-to-day classroom practices, it has not being able to set curriculum reform (in particular) in the context of the school, nor in the context of the whole school.

2. Context of Education and Training

Hargreaves (1989: 152) contends that in education, as in other walks of life, things go together. He states:

> *It is the interrelationship of changes that gives them a particular coherence, that gives them one particular thrust rather than another.*

This thrust is influenced by the policy paradigm and the policy context. As was previously discussed in the study, the policy paradigm was to move away from a system for elites, from a teacher-centred, content-based and examination-driven system to a learner-centred, equitable and democratic system for all. The data reveals that the shift is beginning to take place, but that there seems to be a more technical-rational approach to the changes rather than a deep and profound understanding of the implications and consequences of the changes envisaged. However, this is to be expected seen against the scope and pace of the reform which made it difficult to establish what was missing from the context, what was absent as well as present, and what was consistent with the policy agenda or not. Furthermore, as cited by Bruer (1993:295)the 'education problem' is complex and difficult to solve:

> *The education problem, in contrast, is an ill-structured problem - there is no standard solution path, no algorithm, no single best answer. Solving the problem is more like writing a convincing persuasive essay on a difficult topic.*

3. Ways of Thinking about Teaching and Learning

The espoused emphasis on the learner, which is evident from the data, is an indication of a new conceptualisation of teaching and learning. Respondents interpreted professional teaching as teachers knowing and understanding the learner and being able to adapt teaching approaches to suit the learners' needs.They have changed their representations of intelligence, learning, and teaching and as a result can change the interactions between themselves and their learners. While the genuineness of these interpretations could not be assessed by the study as this can only be done in the schools, the respondents have acquired a new lens through which to view their work, assumptions and practices. Given the appropriate support, these interpretations and insights can lead to the improvement of the learning environment.

The respondents are able to facilitate learner participation and to provide learners with support through building on

the learners' own knowledge and experiences. This has not only become evident from the data collected for this study, but also from the evaluation and moderation exercises. They see themselves as having to be organised, prepared, flexible, creative and supportive. They also realise that through critical inquiry they can examine their own practice with a view to improve, re-organise and re-direct their work in order to enable the learners to achieve at their optimal level. It does seem from the responses obtained through the questionnaires, interviews and observation, that the 'new learning' has shifted the emphasis from the teacher to learning processes and outcomes. However, as was pointed out when discussing the preceding questions, to what extent the re-conceptualisation has taken root in the day-to-day classroom activities, still has to be established.

The spirit of the re-conceptualisation of teaching and the teacher's role is summed up by the following response from a student teacher:

> *I appreciate teaching, that it should come from the heart* (ST: College 4).

4. Relationship between Policy and Implementation

Marope and Noonan (1995:31) state that the "greatest problems of implementation of reforms of educational methods come in the field". The perceptions of respondents as revealed in the data, as well as the researcher's own experience as participant observer, indicate that while the policy makers endeavoured to ensure legitimacy and democratic participation through the involvement of stakeholders at various levels; to maintain the level of commitment by trying to put in place the required resources; to facilitate the implementation by preparing teacher educators and college management for the change; and to provide support and assistance at the 'street-level' through the TERP Project and the system of Educational Development Units and Reform Facilitators, the reform experienced implementation problems.

These were partly caused by resistance as the change was perceived to be determined and guided more by socio-political pressures than by genuine pedagogical insight. As indicated earlier by Samoff in chapter 5, "education policy is always fashioned on contested terrain and always manifests the principal features of its political environment".

The resistance could also have come about as a result of what was perceived as 'overload' and as what was experienced by some highly qualified teacher educators as de-skilling. Some of them held Masters' degrees and experienced it as an insult to participate in reorientation programmes for the new paradigm. The urgency of the reform to some extent was responsible for some of the problems as not everything was fully worked out at the time when implementation started and this allowed the 'street-level bureaucrats' with flexibility and scope for innovation, but it also provided opportunity for manipulation and distortion. However, despite the problems experienced, in view of what the literature on policy formation indicate and in the light of the evidence gathered through this study and others, the indications are that the Namibian teacher education policy has been implemented reasonably successfully. The evidence also shows that the policy has the elements and characteristics of a 'strong' policy. It has clear goals, stakeholder involvement and authority.

The participants and the researcher experienced the implementation process as "a messy, fluid process" (Evans et al, 1995) which went through many loops and which provided new insights on an ongoing basis. To some extent the teacher education policy was also "precocious" (Crump:1992) since some of its intentions were not implementable at the time, but as the process developed and people grew with it, they became more receptive to the ideas. In this regard can be mentioned that a much closer relationship between pre-service and in-service modes is now being perceived more favourably than before. The researcher has observed and experienced the process as an overlapping, cyclical process, which, consistent with the

literature (e.g. Porter: 1995) "is not a highly coherent and rational process, with a beginning, a middle, and an end with each part leading logically and inexorably to each succeeding part".

Recommendations

In the foregoing presentation of data and the discussion thereof, it has emerged that the BETD programme has been a major official strategy to spearhead educational reform and development in post-independent Namibia. The BETD paradigm moved away from "education for elites" to "education for all". It was designed to achieve this both in terms of quantitative expansion, i.e. opening up of access to more candidates based on their suitability for the profession, and in providing quality education through "a person whose commitment and sense of responsibility, knowledge and skills will raise the quality of education in the entire country" (MBEC, 1998:2). Heightened awareness of environmental issues, gender issues and democratic principles seem to emerge. However, it is not clear whether these are uncritically accepted and supported because they are in the mainstream discussions in education in Namibia and actively promoted by projects and donor agencies, or whether the principles have really being reflected upon and have been internalised. Similarly, while respondents overwhelmingly expressed acceptance of and support to the development of reflective practice; use the discourse and espouse the views associated with reflective practice; and to some extent demonstrated some of the principles through their actions in the classroom, it is too early to know to what extent these principles have been internalised and will become part of the day to day practice of the teachers who have gone through the programme. The recommendations made through this study are therefore made within the frame of these new questions which have arisen from the study:

1. The BETD programme encapsulates a completely new ideology, philosophy and elements not previously espoused by teacher education programmes in Namibia. These include the goals of access; equity; social justice and social responsibility;

democracy ; and quality education for all . The ideology and philosophy are intended to be operationalised through learner-centred pedagogy; the development of reflective practitioners; integration of content with didactics; integration of theory and practice; cross-curricular themes; learning through production; cooperative and collaborative teaching and learning; partnership between colleges and schools; and continuous assessment of learning outcomes. Proper implementation of all these elements makes the programme very resource intensive, also in terms of intellectual and mental demands of staff involved. Further study of the programme will be needed to establish to what extent the ideology and philosophy, and as a result the elements, have been internalised or whether the "overload" experienced during the implementation have relegated some elements to the background or to the development of a narrow perspective of what is defined as the required philosophy and pedagogy. A longitudinal study employing both qualitative and quantitative methods will have to be undertaken in this regard.

2. As stated by Calderhead and Shorrock (1997:17) the "goals of reflective teaching are extremely ambitious". The question therefore arises as to what can reasonably be achieved in this regard during pre-service education and what can only be achieved in the longer term. A comprehensive study is needed on how the seeds for reflective practice planted in the teacher education institution can be nurtured and brought to maturity in schools. Such a study would entail identifying the prevalent conditions and ethos in schools; identifying supportive and collaborative processes, procedures and structures within schools and their environment which can be built upon to nurture reflection; and illuminating the possible constraints and challenges in order to neutralise /minimise them.

3. Learning to teach requires multiple forms of learning. Learning to become a teacher contrasts sharply in its demands from learning mathematics or learning history. The call for more content knowledge in the BETD may be as a result of this differentiation not being clear. A focused study on

how learning to teach differs from learning specific subjects would be helpful to illuminate the debate on more content.

4. This study concentrated on the rationale for the development of reflective practice, the policy process to implement reflective practice, and the resultant perceptions and practices shaped among student teachers. Further study will be needed on the role that teacher educators, tutors and supervisors play in the development of reflective practitioners as they are key players in the process of professional development.

5. This study and other studies on teacher education in Namibia have illuminated the fact that teacher educators and teachers seem to have a narrow conception of reflection and critical inquiry, focusing primarily on the immediate and technical aspects of teaching. A study focusing on the impact of the broader social, economic and political forces on teaching and learning is needed in order to explore the ethical and moral dimensions of teaching and learning.

6. Since most respondents cited research, áction research and critical inquiry as means to reflect on what they do and to improve problematic situations, it would be helpful to establish through a comparative study as to how these strategies are conceptualised at the different education institutions; to what extent they are actually being used to improve problematic situations; and to what extent students and staff collaborate in such ventures.

Final Remarks

In summary, the study has revealed that the reform has achieved a measure of success in terms of participants displaying positive and receptive attitudes towards the goals, philosophy and principles of teacher education reform in Namibia; that student teachers articulate and demonstrate conceptual changes as well as a broader repertoire of educational views and methods; and that they are supportive of ongoing professional development. At the same time it has revealed that institutions at all levels experienced an

overload of components aimed at operationalising the policy. Strategies need to be devised to help participants in the process cope with this overload. One way to do it would be to adopt a holistic approach, clearly articulating how the different components support and relate to one another. Another way would be to prioritise and focus on the most central elements of the reform, thereby limiting complexity without sacrificing essence.

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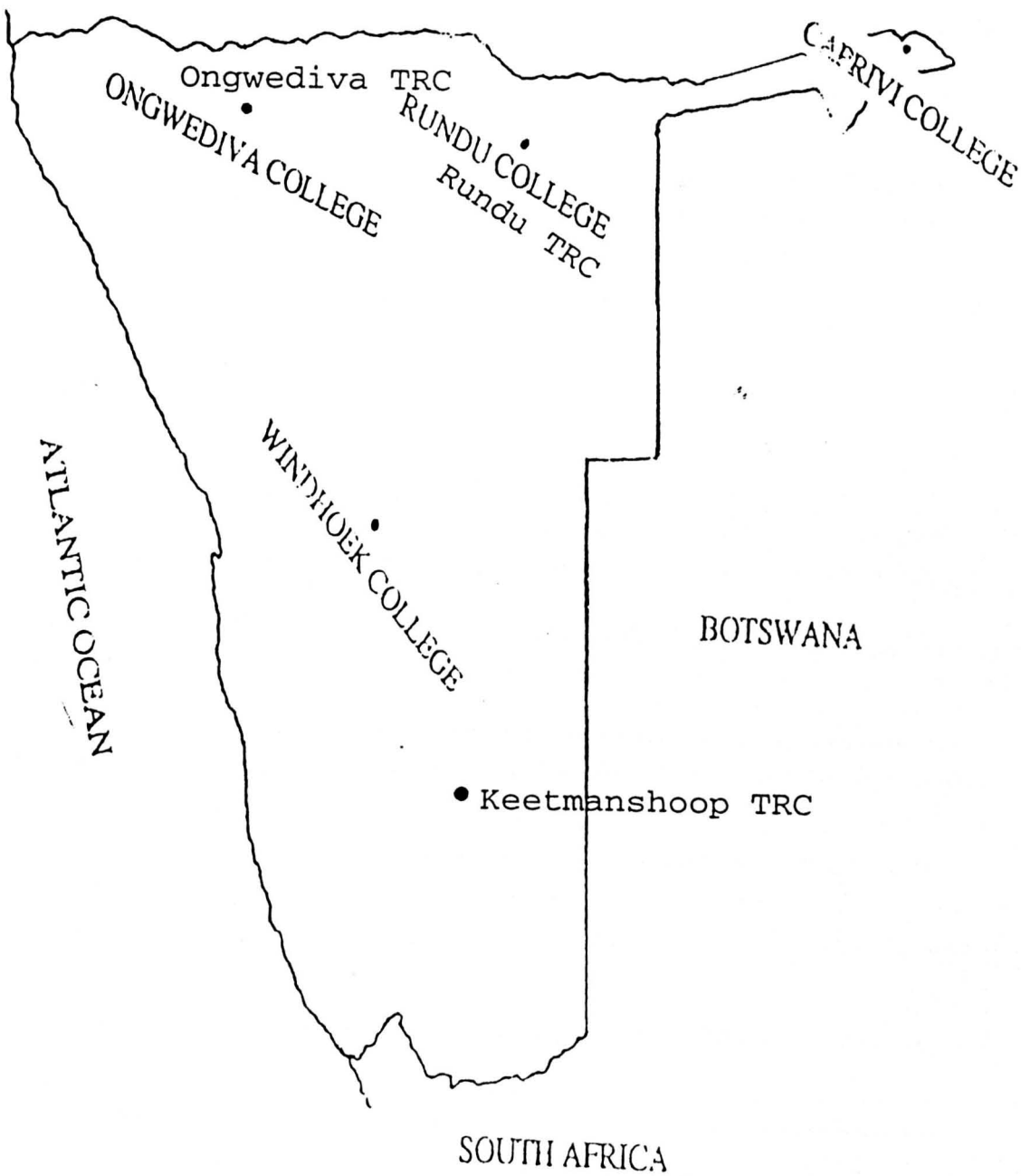
APPENDIX A

Map of Namibia:

Locations of College and TRC sites.



APPENDIX B

AIMS OF THE BETD PROGRAMMES

The goal is to create a national and common teacher education programme for Basic Education related to the needs of the nation, the local community, the school, the learner and the teacher.

1. The main aim of the programme is to develop the professional expertise which will enable the teacher to optimise the new Basic Education for the learners, and to promote change towards the goals of the educational reform in Namibia.

2. **Basic Teacher Education will strive to:**

2.1 develop a teacher who will respect and foster the values of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, contribute to nation building, and respond positively to the changing needs of Namibian Society.

2.2 develop understanding and respect for cultural values and beliefs, especially those of the Namibian people

2.3 enhance respect for human dignity, and sensitivity and commitment to the needs of learners

2.4 develop a reflective attitude and creative, analytical and critical thinking

2.5 develop the ability to actively participate in collaborative decision making

2.6 develop social responsibility towards learners, colleagues, the community and the nation as a whole

2.7 promote gender awareness and equity to enable all Namibians to participate fully in all spheres of society

2.8 enable the teacher to promote environmental awareness and sustainable management of natural resources in the school and community

2.9 develop awareness of the varying roles and functions of a teacher and commitment to the teaching profession

2.10 develop an understanding of learning as an interactive, shared and productive process

2.11 enable the teacher to meet the needs and abilities of the individual learner through organisation, management

and assessment of teaching and learning processes

2.12 prepare the teacher to strengthen the partnership between school and community

2.13 develop adequate command of English and another language of Namibia to be able to use them as media of instruction where needed

2.14 prepare the teacher to be able to develop and use the creative and expressive abilities and skills of the learners

2.15 develop the ability to create learning opportunities, which will enable learners to explore different ways of knowing, and develop the whole range of their thinking abilities both within and across subject areas of the whole curriculum

2.16 provide the students with sufficient breadth in curriculum content and depth in selected subject areas, to be able to identify and select basic knowledge content for learners, and to organise and sequence content and learning experiences appropriately

2.17 enable the teacher to understand and utilise current knowledge of children's intellectual, emotional, social, physical, aesthetic, moral and spiritual development

2.18 develop a positive attitude towards individual differences and enable teachers to utilise them to meet social and individual needs

2.19 enable teachers to take responsibility for their own learning, to be aware of ways to develop themselves professionally both through their own initiatives as well as through formal education opportunities.

(Summarised from the Broad Curriculum for the Basic Education Teacher Diploma, 1998).

APPENDIX C

COMPETENCIES FOR THE BETD IN-SERVICE PROGRAMME

Three broad competency areas for the BETD Inset Programme are derived from the aims. The BETD Inset Programme develops the competencies needed to teach Basic Education successfully. By a competency for the teaching profession is meant an observable performance which can for example be evaluated in the school situation. The many specific competencies which a teacher has to master, can be grouped under the three broad competency areas, which are given direction by the aims, as follows.

1. Teaching skills

   The Inset Teacher should be able to demonstrate the ability to teach the subject(s) through a learner-centred approach.

2. Professional attitudes

   The Inset Teacher should be able to demonstrate professional behaviour such as responsible citizenship and the ability to construct meaningful relationships in order to promote efficient teaching and learning.

3. Knowledge and understanding

   The Inset Teacher should be able to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the particular school phase and the subject area(s) in which he/she specialises. He/she should also develop an understanding of the learner-centred approach and the implications of this approach in all areas of teaching, e.g. planning, classroom work, assessment and discipline.

   Subject area curricula specify the particular competencies which are to be achieved on the basis of these three broad competencies, and the Inset Teachers

will be assessed on the basis of their performance in the competencies.

(Summarised from the Broad Curriculum for the Basic Education Teacher Diploma, In-Service Programme, 1997).

APPENDIX D

SELF-COMPLETION RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

BETD (PRE- AND IN-SERVICE)

NO. _____ _____

SECTION A - BACKGROUND DETAILS

1. NAME OF STUDENT:

.....

2. MALE/FEMALE:

.....

3. AGE: .....

4. NAME OF COLLEGE/CENTRE WHERE STUDYING:

.....

5. DATE OF ENTRY INTO BETD COURSE:

.....

6. DATE OF LEAVING SCHOOL:

.....

7. ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS: Please list passes obtained and grade of pass and date obtained

	Subject	Grade obtained	Date of pass
Grade 10			
Grade 12			
Other			

8. PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (IF ANY):

.....

9. TEACHING EXPERIENCE BEFORE ENTERING THE BETD COURSE

YES/NO

10. IF YES TO QUESTION 9, PLEASE STATE:

Date of commencement of teaching:

.....

Date of leaving:

.....

Grades and subjects taught:

.....

.....

11. IF YOU ARE ENROLLED IN THE BETD IN-SERVICE COURSE, PLEASE STATE THE NAME AND ADDRESS OF THE SCHOOL WHERE YOU TEACH

_____

_____

12. HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED IN ANY JOB BEFORE ENTERING THE BETD COURSE Yes/No

13. IF YOUR RESPONSE TO QUESTION 12 WAS 'YES', PLEASE GIVE DETAILS AND DATES OF ENTERING AND LEAVING

_____

_____

14. GIVE YOUR GRADE LEVEL, SPECIALISATION GRADES 1 - 4/GRADES 5 - 7/GRADES 8 - 10

_____

_____

15. STATE YOUR SUBJECT AREA SPECIALISATION

_____

16. WHY HAVE YOU CHOSEN YOUR

(a) GRADE SPECIALISATION?

_____

_____

(b) SUBJECT AREA SPECIALISATION?

_____

_____

SECTION B - THINKING ABOUT TEACHING

17. GIVE 2 EXAMPLES OF WHAT YOU WOULD LIKE A CLASS OF LEARNERS TO SAY ABOUT YOU IF YOU WERE THEIR TEACHER

(i)

_____

(ii)

_____

18. GIVE YOUR REASONS FOR EACH OF YOUR EXAMPLES

(i)

_____

_____

(ii)

_____

_____

19. LIST 3 SKILLS WHICH YOU USED DURING YOUR SCHOOL BASED STUDIES

(i)

_____

(ii)

_____

(iii)

_____

20. WHICH OF THE 3 SKILLS DID YOU THINK WAS THE MOST IMPORTANT?

_____

21. WHY DO YOU CONSIDER THIS SKILL TO HAVE BEEN THE MOST IMPORTANT?

22. ARE THERE ANY WAYS IN WHICH YOU THINK YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF TEACHING HAS CHANGED SINCE YOU ENTERED THE BETD COURSE? [MARK ONE]

VERY MUCH SOME CHANGE NOT MUCH NO CHANGE

GIVE REASONS FOR YOUR RESPONSE:

23. If 'VERY MUCH'/'SOME CHANGE' to Q 22

(i) WHY DO YOU THINK THE CHANGE HAS TAKEN PLACE?

24. (a) WHAT OPPORTUNITY OR TIME HAVE YOU HAD DURING THE COURSE FOR THINKING ABOUT YOUR TEACHING?

(b) WHAT OPPORTUNITIES HAVE YOU HAD FOR:

(i) DISCUSSIONS ABOUT TEACHING AND LEARNING?

_____

(ii) PRIVATE STUDY TIME?

_____

25. DO YOU KEEP A DIARY AS PART OF YOUR BETD STUDY?

YES/NO

26. IF YES TO QUESTION 25. WHAT ASPECTS DO YOU FIND USEFUL?

_____

_____

_____

27. STATE ANY TOPICS IN ETP WHICH YOU HAVE FOUND USEFUL

(i) In your school-based studies:

_____

(ii) In thinking about teaching:

_____

28. GIVE REASONS WHY YOU FOUND THE TOPIC/S USEFUL IN:

(i) Your school-based studies

(ii) Thinking about teaching

29. GIVE 1 EXAMPLE OF A PIECE OF TEACHING WHICH YOU CARRIED OUT IN YOUR SCHOOL-BASED STUDIES AND THE METHODS YOU USED

30. GIVE YOUR REASONS WHY YOU USED THESE METHODS

31. IF YOU WERE A **LEARNER** IN THE SCHOOL WHERE YOU CARRIED OUT YOUR SCHOOL BASED STUDIES, WHAT WOULD BE THE:

(i) best thing for you in the classroom?

(ii) worst thing for you in the classroom?

32. IF YOU WERE THE **PRINCIPAL** IN THAT SCHOOL, STATE 1 EXAMPLE OF WHAT YOU WOULD DO TO IMPROVE THE SCHOOL FOR THE LEARNERS.

Give your reasons

****

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW (Full time cohort)

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Code: _____

INTRODUCTION:

I am interested to find out more about the way you think about teaching and learning and the training you received in this regard. Some of the questions refer back to the questionnaire you filled out in the first trimester of 1995.

The information required from you is gathered for a study I am doing on the development of reflective practice among student teachers. The information provided by you will be treated in confidence and in the writing up and discussion of data, none of it will be traceable back to you. Thank you for your time, willingness and openness.

QUESTIONS:

1. Name the skills you have mastered during your three years as a student teacher at the college.

Listening Teaching Inquiring Thinking

Problem-solving Synthesizing Communicating Other (list)

[tick the chosen ones, list those under 'other']

2. Which teaching methods were used to help you master this/these skill(s)?

Lecture Experiment Project Problem-based

Group work Other

3. In what ways have your understanding of teaching and learning changed over the three years at college?

Acquisition of skills/Development of attitudes

Acquisition of knowledge/Acquisition of methodology and techniques

Understanding of theory/Understanding of practice

Other

4(a) In ETP you have explored certain topics and have done a number of projects. Which of these did you find most useful in relation to your role as a future teacher?

[list]

4(b) Why did you find these most useful?

5(a) When you carried out your SBS you were expected to behave like a teacher. Which aspects did you find easy?

Preparation Presentation Matching content and methodology

Assessing and evaluating/Discipline/Administration
Other

5(b) Why did you find this/these easy?

6(a) Which aspects did you find most difficult?

6(b) Why did you find this/these difficult?

---

7. Which of the methods and approaches you acquired at the college could you use during SBS?

---

8. What support did you need from your tutor/teacher educator during SBS?

9. What assistance did you need from your support teacher?

10. If you were the support teacher what assistance/advice would you have given to a student teacher?

11(a) What support/assistance will you need from the college (next year) during your first year as a teacher?

11(b) Why would you need this support?

12(a) What support/assistance will you need from the principal and staff at the school next year?

12(b) Why would you need this support?

13(a) Which areas concerning teaching and learning do you still feel uncertain about?

13(b) How will you overcome this uncertainty?

14(a) If you could plan the BETD programme, what would you give more emphasis to?

14(b) Why would you give this more emphasis?

15. Any other comments concerning the above topics or related ones?

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW (BETD INSET)

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Name the skills you have mastered since you enrolled in the programme.

2. What helped you to acquire these skills?

3. In what ways have your understanding of teaching and learning changed over the time you were enrolled in the programme?

4. (a) In ETP you have explored certain topics. Which of these did you find most useful in relation to you role as a teacher?

   (b) Why?

5. (a) Which aspects of teaching do you find most difficult?

   (b) Why?

6. (a) Which aspects of teaching do you find easy?

   (b) Why?

7. Which methods & approaches you learned about through the programme could you apply in your day to day teaching?

8. Which could you not apply?

9. What support do you need from your tutor during your study?

10. What support do you need from the principal and staff at your school?

11. Why do you need this support?

12. Which areas of teaching and learning do you feel uncertain about?

13. How can you overcome this uncertainty?

14. If you could plan the in-service BETD what would you

give more emphasis to?

15. Why would you give this more emphasis?

16. Do you have any further comments about the programme?

APPENDIX G

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: POLITICAL OFFICE BEARER

(FOR CASE STUDY ON POLICY DEVELOPMENT)

INTRODUCTION

I am interested to find out more about the way you decided on policy options with regard to the reform of teacher education after independence.

The information required from you is for the research I am doing on the transformation of teacher education in Namibia and the development of reflective practice. The information provided by you will be treated in confidence in such a way as to ensure that it will not have negative implications for you. Thank you for your time, willingness to respond to questions and for your openness.

Date of Interview:

Name of Interviewee:

Venue:

QUESTIONS

1. While you were in exile SWAPO developed a masterplan for the transformation of education in Namibia after independence. What was your role in the development of this plan?

2. What terms of reference were you given after independence?

3. Why, when devising policies and strategies for a new teacher education programme, did you decide on emphasising critical inquiry/reflective practice?

4. What, according to your view, are the elements of reflective practice?

5. How would these elements manifest themselves in the classroom?

6. Which factors, in your view, will facilitate the development of reflective practice among student teachers?

7. Which factors will inhibit the development of reflective

practice?

8. What role do teacher educators have to play in the development of reflective practitioners?

9. The 3rd BETD cohort have just completed their studies, so the process has been on-going for some time

   (i) what indicators, if at all, are there that through the policy reflective practitioners have been produced?

   (ii) are there any events you can describe as highlights in the process of development of reflective practice?

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: RECTORS

INTRODUCTION

I am interested to find out more about your views on and interpretations of policy options with regard to the reform of teacher education after independence.

The information required from you is for the research I am doing on the transformation of teacher education in Namibia and the development of reflective practice. The information provided by you will be treated in confidence in such a way as to ensure that it will not have negative implications for you. Thank you for your time, willingness to respond to questions and for your openness.

Date of Interview:

Name of Interviewee:

Venue:

QUESTION

1. Your background as teacher educators may have been quite different from what the reform of teacher education requires. One of the major shifts has been towards the development of reflective practice among student teachers. What, in your view, is reflective practice?

2. As instructional/pedagogical leader of the college you are expected to provide guidance to your staff in this regard. How will you define your role in the development of reflective practitioners?

3. What, in your view, are the factors facilitating the development of reflective practice at your college?

4. What are the factors constraining reflective practice? [time table, budget, separate subjects].

5. Can you briefly describe how the policy for the development of reflective practice was implemented at your college?

6. What, if any, changes of direction were necessary to suit your specific college/situation?

7. Did the interview in the selection of students in any way contribute to 'better candidates' for reflective practice? If yes, in what way

8. In the process of reforming teacher education Reform Facilitators were placed at your college. How do you perceive their role and functions as having contributed towards the development of reflective practice?

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: SENIOR MINISTRY OFFICIAL

INTRODUCTION

I am interested to find out more about your views on and interpretation of policy options with regard to the reform of teacher education after independence.

The information required from you is for the research I am doing on the transformation of teacher education in Namibia and the development of reflective practice. The information provided by you will be treated in confidence in such a way as to ensure that it will not have negative implications for you. Thank you for your time, willingness to respond to questions and for your openness.

Date of Interview:

Name of Interviewee:

Venue:

QUESTIONS

1. You have been involved with teacher education before and after independence.

   (i) What are the differences, if any, between teacher education programmes before and after independence?

   (ii) What are the similarities, if any?

2. Just after independence the MEC approved the NEC and NHEC for an interim period. What was your involvement in this decision/process?

3. What is your understanding of the term 'reflective practice'/'critical inquiry'?

4. You have, as a member of the CCG, been involved in the formulation of the policy as well as in its implementation. What is your evaluation of

   (i) the principles underpinning the policy and

   (ii) the implementation of the policy?

5. Was it necessary to adapt/modify the principles and implementation for the BETD INSET programme? If so, how?

6. How well does the in-service mode lend itself to the development of reflective practice?

7. What role did the different actors play in the development and implementation of the policy? (e.g. advisors, projects, MEC and college staff).

8. What could have been done to prepare the teacher educators for the implementation of the policy?

9. Could you please describe your vision of how the policy could be improved (if at all) for the INSET programme?

10. In your view, why did the MEC embark on the policy for the development of reflective practice?

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: TASK FORCE MEMBER

INTRODUCTION

I am interested to find out more about your views on and interpretation of policy options with regard to the reform of teacher education after independence.

The information required from you is for the research I am doing on the transformation of teacher education in Namibia and the development of reflective practice. The information provided by you will be treated in confidence in such a way as to ensure that it will not have negative implications for you. Thank you for your time, willingness to respond to questions and for your openness.

Date of Interview:

Name of Interviewee:

Venue:

QUESTIONS

1. In transforming teacher education, the MEC embarked on the policy to develop reflective practice among student teachers. What key literature sources are you aware of with regards to the development of reflective practice?

2. What is your own view on reflective practice?

3. The Faculty was represented on the Task Force for Pre-Service Teacher Education Reform. To what extent has the Faculty supported this policy and the process?

4. As a member of the Task Force, to what extent, in your view, has the Task Force supported the policy and the process?

5. The Task Force consisted of various stakeholders. In your opinion, to what extent have members understood the principles of reflective practice?

6. The 3rd BETD cohort have just completed their study. What structures exist between the Ministries and the Faculty for communication on developments in the BETD?

7. In your view, is it necessary to change/improve these?

8. From your evaluation of the process and events what is

the future direction to be taken for teacher education in Namibia?

APPENDIX H

QUESTIONNAIRE ENCODING SHEET

A. BACKGROUND DETAILS

1. Name of student

2. Gender: Female: 1; Male: 2

3. Age: 18 to 25 years: 1; 26 - 40 years: 2; Above 40: 3

4. Name of College/Centre where studying: College (Preset): 1; TRC (Inset): 2

5. Date of entry into BETD Course

6. Date of leaving school

7. Academic Qualifications: grade 10: 1; Grade 12: 2; Other: 3

8. Professional qualifications: Yes: 1; No: 2

9. Teaching experience before entering the BETD course:

   Yes: 1; No: 2

10. If yes to question 9, please state date of commencement of teaching, date of leaving, grades and subjects taught.

11. If your are enrolled in the BETD In-service course, state name and address of school where you teach.

    Urban: 1; Rural: 2

12. Have you been employed in any job before entering the BETD course?

    Yes: 1; No: 2

13. Details of employment

14. Give your grade level specialisation:

    Lower Primary: 1; Upper Primary: 2; Junior Secondary: 3.

15. State your subject area specialisation

Humanities: 1; Maths & Science: 2; Pre-Voc.: 3; Lower Primary: 4

16. Why have you chosen your (a) grade specialisation, (b) subject area specialisation?

    (a) Like to teach at that level 1; Shortage of teachers: 2; taught in grade(s) before: 3

    (b) Own interest: 1; shortage: 2; nature of subject: 3.

B. THINKING ABOUT TEACHING

17. Give 2 examples of what you would like a class of learners to say about you if you were their teacher. **[Cluster responses according to key words].**

18. Give your reasons for each of your examples. **[Cluster responses].**

19. List 3 skills which you used during your School-based studies. **[Cluster responses].**

20. Which of the 3 skills did you think was the most important? **[Cluster responses].**

21. Why? **[Cluster responses].**

22. Are there any ways in which you think your understanding of teaching has changed since you entered the BETD course?

    Very much: 1; Some change: 2; Not much: 3; No change: 4.

    Give reasons for your response. **[Cluster responses].**

23. If 'very much'/some change' to Question 22 why do you think the change has taken place?

24. (a) What opportunity or time have you had during the course for thinking about your teaching?

        No time: 1; Some time e.g. ETP: 2; Much time: 3; No response: 4.

    (b) What opportunities have you had for:

        (i) discussions about teaching and learning?

many: 1; some: 2; none: 3.

(ii)private study time?

some: 1; none: 2

25. Do you keep a diary as part of your BETD study?

Yes: 1; No: 2.

26. If yes, what aspects do you find useful?
[Cluster responses].

27. State any topics in ETP which you have found useful

(i) in your school-based studies

(ii) in thinking about teaching
[Cluster responses].

28. Give reasons why you found the topics useful in

(i) school-based studies

(ii) thinking about teaching

29. Give 1 example of a piece of teaching which you carried out during your school-based studies and the methods you used. **[Cluster responses].**

30. Give your reasons why you used these methods.
[Cluster responses].

31. If you were a learner in the school where you carried out your school-based studies, what would be the (i) best thing for you in the classroom, (ii) worst thing for you in the classroom? **[Cluster responses].**

32. If you were the principal in that school, state 1 example of what you would do to improve the school for learners? Give your reasons. **[Cluster responses].**