

DIFFERENTIATION IN THE SCHOOL SYSTEM FOR THE COLOURED IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

by

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wife Georgina, my two sons Phenyo and Lesedi and my daughter Keoagile.

It is specially dedicated to my loving mother. I thank God for keeping her alive and healthy. May God shower on her blessings and provide her with more days in life.

Special dedication goes to my ever encouraging friend Neo Raikane. His endless support and encouragement has helped me throughout this task. May God bless him and his loving family.

Finally this work is also dedicated to my sisters Mary, Welheminah, Rose, Pauline and my two brothers Amos and Peter.

S B M NTSIMANE

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"A TSOTLHE DI DIRWE GO RORISA LEINA LA GAGWE"

S B M NTSIMANE

SUMMARY

Chapter 1 looks into the following issues:

* *Problem of research*

How does the school system for Coloureds in the RSA provide for the different abilities, aptitudes and interests of the pupils?

The sub-problems of the research are:

What is the theory of differentiation in the school system for coloureds in the RSA?

How did the school system for Coloureds provide for differentiation up to 1963?

What provision for differentiation is made at present in pre-primary, primary, and secondary phases in schools for Coloureds in the RSA.

* *Aim of research*

The purpose of this study is to ascertain through research how the school system for Coloureds in the RSA provides for different abilities, aptitudes and interests of the pupils.

The sub-aims of research are:

- to describe the theory of differentiation in the school system for Coloureds
- to describe how the school system for Coloureds catered for differentiation up to 1963, and
- to ascertain and evaluate the provision of differentiation for Coloureds at present in pre-primary, primary, and

secondary education.

* *Methods of research*

The following methods of research were used: literature study interviews and scientific formulation of findings.

* *Demarcation of the field of study*

This study is confined to the school system for Coloureds in the RSA. The national and independent states have been excluded.

The theoretical basis for differentiation and the historical perspectives on the school system for Coloureds in the RSA have been discussed in Chapter 2 as well as the theoretical model for evaluation of differentiation.

* The definition as well as the components of an education system are given in this chapter. *The theoretical basis for differentiation includes:*

- views on differentiated education and differentiated teaching
- the meaning of educational planning for differentiated education
- techniques for differentiation
- anthropological grounds for differentiation and differentiated schools
- types of differentiation
- historical background of differentiation in the schools for Coloureds.

The availability of differentiation in pre-primary and primary education for Coloureds at present in the RSA is discussed in Chapter 3.

The following are the main issues:

- Types of pre-primary and primary schools
- Control and organisation of education for Coloureds in RSA
- Curricula for pre-primary and primary education for Coloureds
- Number of students
- Examination and standards
- School guidance

Chapter 4 of this study will look into the availability of differentiation in secondary schools for Coloureds in the RSA.

The following are the main issues:

- * Types of Secondary Schools
- * Phases
- * Curriculum for secondary education
- * Special education
- * Schools of industry and reform schools
- * Training of agriculture
- * Artisans
- * Seamen

Chapter 5 summarises all issues discussed and after there findings and recommendations are made.

OPSOMMING

In *hoofstuk 1* word aandag gegee aan die volgende aspekte:

* *Navorsingsprobleem*

Hoe voorsien die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge in die RSA vir die verskillende vermoëns, aanleg en belangstelling van leerlinge?

Die probleem kan soos volg verdeel word:

Hoe sien die teorie van differensiasie in die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge in die RSA daar uit?

Hoe het die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge voorsiening gemaak vir differensiasie tot 1963?

Watter voorsiening vir differensiasie word tans in pre-primêre, primêre en sekondêre skole vir Kleurlinge in die RSA gemaak?

* *Die doel van die ondersoek*

Die doel van hierdie ondersoek is om deur middel van navorsing vas te stel hoe die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge in die RSA voorsiening maak vir die verskillende vermoëns, aanleg en belangstelling van leerlinge.

Die nuwe-doelstellings van die ondersoek is:

- om die teorie van differensiasie in die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge te beskryf;
- om te beskryf hoe die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge voorsiening gemaak het vir differensiasie tot 1963, en
- om die huidige voorsiening van differensiasie vir Kleurlinge in pre-primêre, primêre en sekondêre skole vas te stel en te

evaluer.

* *Metode van ondersoek*

Die metodologie van hierdie ondersoek sien soos volg daar uit:

'n toepaslike literatuurstudie, onderhoudvoering met betrokke persone en wetenskaplike formulering van die bevindings is gemaak.

* *Afbakening van die studie*

Hierdie studie is beperk tot die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge in die RSA. Die nasionale en onafhanklike state is uitgesluit.

In hoofstuk 2 word die beredenering van die teoretiese grondslag van differensiasie en die geskiedkundige perspektiewe aangaande die skoolstelsel vir Kleurlinge, in die RSA, behandel en word die teoretiese model verskaf vir die evaluering van die differensiasie wat verskaf word.

* Die definisie sowel as die komponente van die onderwysstelsel word in hierdie hoofstuk behandel. Die teoretiese grondslag van differensiasie behels:

- sienings van gedifferensieerde onderwys en gedifferensieerde opleiding
- die betekenis van onderwys-beplanning vir gedifferensieerde onderwys
- tegnieke vir differensiasie
- antropologiese grondslag van differensiasie en gedifferensieerde skole
- tipes differensiasie

- historiese agtergrond van differensiasie in die skole vir Kleurlinge.

In *Hoofstuk 3* word die beskikbaarheid van differensiasie in pre-primêre en primêre onderwys vir die Kleurling in die RSA bespreek.

Die volgende is die belangrikste aspekte daarvan:

- Soorte pre-primêre en primêre skole;
- Die beheer en organisering van onderwys vir Kleurlinge in die RSA
- Kurrikulums van pre-primêre en primêre onderwys vir Kleurlinge
- Aantal studente
- Eksaminering en standaarde
- Skoolvoorligting

In *hoofstuk 4* word aandag gegee aan die bestaan van differensiasie in sekondêre skole vir Kleurlinge in die RSA.

Die volgende belangrike aspekte word bespreek:

- Soorte sekondêre skole
- Skoolfases
- Sekondêre onderwyskurrikulum
- Buitengewone onderwys
- Nywerheids- en verbeteringskole
- Opleiding in landbou
- Ambagsmanne
- Matrose

Hoofstuk 5 is 'n samevatting van al die idees wat in die vorige hoofstukke behandel is en aan die einde word bevindinge gegee en aanbevelings uit die navorsingsgewens gemaak.

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CHAPTER 1

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introductory remarks and research problem

In education like in all other social sciences, essential innovations have taken place. These have brought about changes in the aims of the education of the child. The time has long passed when the main aim of education was to acquaint the child with certain field of knowledge, the mastery of which was for various reasons successful citizenship. Each pupil is today regarded as possessing valuable intellectual, physical, ethical, social and religious potentialities and it is the task of the school to create favourable opportunities to provide necessary guidance that the individual pupils may actualise his or her potential to the optimum level (Jooste, 1973b: 28).

This view of the child calls for the introduction of differentiated education, that is a special kind of education system in accordance with which the abilities, aptitude and interest of each child is taken into account including the needs of the country. This implies that proper guidance is given so as each pupil is enabled to develop to the maximum of his or her potential (Theron, 1980: 28).

The need of differentiation have an important bearing on the education system. It emphasises the importance of a well developed differentiated education system by which specific qualities of a learner are unfolded. It further demands that the specific qualities and abilities of every learner, as a unique person, must be discovered and optimally developed in view of his specific future occupational mandate as for example, an engineer, a teacher, an industrialist, economist or an artist (Van Schalkwyk, 1986: 280).

"Aangesien daar binne die onderwysstelsel gepoog word om elke afsonderlike kind vir sy roepingsvulling toe te rus, moet die

besondere behoefte van elke kind terdeë in ag geneem word. Die onderwysstelsel moet dus so ingerig wees dat daar aan elke individuele kind gedifferensieerde onderwysgeleenthede gebied word ten einde hom in staat te stel om volgens eie aanleg, vermoë en belangstelling tot volle roepingsvervulling te ontplooi" (Steyn, 1981: 1824).

Differentiated education can only be implemented once it has been authorised to provide all types of education for its pupils (Jooste, 1973: 141).

The implementation of differentiation in education in South Africa must be evaluated in the context that the South African education system consists of four different parts based on the policy of multinational development for the main cultural groups. The parts are aimed at the Whites, Blacks, Coloureds and Indians groups respectively (Vos & Brits, 1987: 56). Differentiated education as such in South Africa was made possible by the introduction of the Education Act, 1967 (Act no. 39 of 1967) (Jooste 1973b: 141). For the Coloureds, education was formally planned according to provinces but since the take-over of education control for the Coloureds from provincial control in 1963 to the Department of Coloured Affairs, differentiated education was introduced on national level for Coloureds. Thus the present planning of Coloured education programmes primarily involved devising an education system in which the potent abilities of each pupil would best be developed (Jooste, 1973b: 141).

The research problem can therefore be stated as follows:

- * How does the school system for Coloureds in the RSA provide for the different abilities, aptitudes and interests of the pupils?

This problem could be divided into the following sub-problems:

- * What is the theory of differentiation in education?
- * How did the school system for Coloureds provide for differentiation up to 1963?

- * What provision for differentiation is made at present in the pre-primary, primary and secondary education for Coloureds?

1.2 Aim of research

The aim of this research is to ascertain through research, how the school system for Coloured in the RSA provides for different abilities, aptitudes and interests of the pupils. In order to reach this aim the following sub-aims will be addressed:

- * to describe the theory of differentiation in education.
- * to describe how the school system for Coloureds has provided differentiated education for Coloureds up to 1963.
- * to ascertain and evaluate the current provision of differentiation for Coloureds in:
 - pre-primary education
 - primary education and
 - secondary education

1.3 Methods of research

1.3.1 *General*

In order to reach the aim of this study, different methods will be employed namely; literature study, interviews and scientific writing.

1.3.2 *Literature study*

The research will concentrate mainly on a study of literature in Comparative Education which is already available. This will serve and provide information on differentiation in the school system of the Republic of South Africa in general and in particular educational provision for the Coloureds school system. Both primary and secondary sources have been consulted, such as relevant books from libraries,

departmental annual reports, as well as other reports, on the education of Coloureds in the RSA, all of which are available from the Department of Education, House of Representatives.

1.3.3 *Interviews*

To verify the information on current educational matters derived from the literature, as well as to gather new information, interviews have been conducted. Officials with knowledge and experience in educational matters, especially in the education of the Coloureds have been interviewed.

1.3.4 *Scientific formulation of findings*

In the writing of this research study the whole project was undertaken on the basis of an objective evaluation of the data interpreted.

1.4 Demarcation of the field of study

1.4.1 *General*

The South African system of education consists of four parts, namely, Blacks, Whites, Coloureds and Indians. For the purposes of this research, attention has been focused on the education of Coloureds in the RSA, paying particular attention to differentiation in terms of the pupils abilities, aptitudes and interests.

The national and independent states have been excluded. There are other kinds of differentiation, such as cultural differences, which do not fall within the scope of this research. As such they will not be discussed in this study.

1.4.2 *Demarcation of the field of study in terms of words used in the title of this study*

1.4.2.1 The concept differentiation

According to the Cassell's Latin Dictionary in Van der Merwe (1973: 4) the Latin word "differo, differre" used transitively, in one sense means to separate violently, to disperse, to scatter and thus refers to separation, dispersion. Used intransitively the word 'means to differ; to be different.

In the context of the topic for research, differentiation means provision of education opportunities in line with individual difference, content or subject matter, educational methods, organisation and administration. This is necessitated by the fact that students should be prepared for a bewildering diversity of occupations in the complex vocational structure of contemporary society (Rupert, 1976: 1).

1.4.2.2 The Coloureds in the RSA

It is a population group in South Africa which has its origin in the process of contact and assimilation between various ethnic and racial groups over a period of 300 years (Cilliers, 1963: 9). The Coloured persons are people classified under the Population Registration Act, 1950 (Act no, 30 of 1950) as a member of the Cape Coloured, Malay, Griqua or other Coloured group, and includes any South African citizen having his/her home in an independent state and who would have been so classified, had the provisions of the Population Registration Act, 1950 been applicable to him. They are of a mixed racial origin, the majority of whom live in the western areas of the Cape Province (Behr, 1978: 148).

1.5 Clarification of terms used in this study

To throw more light for the understanding of the study, certain core concepts are clarified. They are:

1.5.1 *The concept curriculum*

The quest for a definition of this concept, has taxed many an educator and various educationists have thus come up with different definitions. The following definitions serve as examples.

Hopkins (1941: 39) defines curriculum as those teachings each child selects, accepts and incorporates into himself to act with, on, and upon in subsequent experiences.

Curriculum is seen as a sequence of potential experiences set up in the school for the purpose of disciplining children and youths in a group, in ways of thinking and acting (Smith et al, 1957: 3).

It consists of all the experiences that children (and youths) have under the guidance and direction of school (Sowards and Scobey, 1981: 40). Curriculum is defined by Doll (1978: 6) as the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skill, and alter attitudes, appreciating and values under the auspices of the school.

1.5.2 *Career guidance*

Career guidance is defines as those activities which are carried out by guidance councillors in a variety of settings for the purpose of stimulating and facilitating career development in individuals throughout their working life. These activities include assistance in career planning, decision making and adjustment (Gibson and Mitchell, 1981: 215).

1.5.3 *Vocational education*

It is education which is preparatory for a career in a vocational or technical field (Gibson and Mitchell, 1981: 216).

1.5.4 *The concept handicap*

It is a condition (or combination of conditions) which places the individual outside the normal development range in the affected area or areas in a permanent way. This ranges from mild to severe and is situation specific (Fontana, 1974: 149).

1.5.5 *Special education*

The term special education refers to a specialized kind of education given to handicapped children, that is those children who, by reason of physical or mental disability, or behaviour aberration, are unable to benefit sufficiently from the instruction given in the ordinary school (Behr, 1978: 107).

1.6 Abbreviations used in this study

CPRC	:	Coloured Persons Representative Council
JMB	:	Joint Matriculation Board
HSRC	:	Human Science Research Council
HG	:	Higher Grade
SG	:	Standard Grade
RSA	:	Republic of South Africa
NTC	:	National Technical Certificate
PTLC	:	Primary Teacher's Lower Certificate
PTC	:	Primary Teacher's Certificate

HPTC	:	Higher Primary Teacher's Certificate
LPTC	:	Lower Primary Teacher's Certificate
PTD	:	Primary Teacher's Diploma
IPTC	:	Intermediate Primary Teacher's Certificate
DE	:	Diploma in Education
UNISA	:	University of South Africa

1.7 The structure of the dissertation

Chapter 1 is an introduction and an orientating chapter aimed at helping the reader to understand the subsequent chapters.

Chapter 2 is devoted to the theoretical basis for differentiation in education, and the historical perspectives on the system of education for Coloureds in RSA.

Chapter 3 will focus on differentiation made available in pre-primary, and primary education.

Chapter 4 will focus on secondary education.

Chapter 5 gives the conclusion, findings and recommendations.

1.8 Summary

In Chapter 1 the following issues have been addressed: the problem of research, the aim of research, the concept differentiation, the method

of research, a demarcation of the field of study, a clarification of the terms and abbreviations used and the structure of this dissertation.

The following chapter will be devoted to the theoretical basis for differentiation in the school system for Coloureds in the RSA.

CHAPTER 2

THE THEORETICAL BASIS FOR DIFFERENTIATION AND THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM FOR THE COLOURED IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA FROM 1910-1963

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, an attempt is made to give a description of the theoretical guidelines necessary for the provision of differentiated education, as well as, to provide a historical perspective for the provision of differentiated education for the Coloured community in South Africa. The various sections covered in this chapter are therefore the following: namely definition of terms, components of education system, views on differentiation, planning for differentiated education, techniques for differentiated education, theoretical model for evaluation and historical developments in the provision for differentiated education for the Coloured in the Republic of South Africa from 1910 up to 1963.

2.2 Definition of terms

2.2.1 *Differentiation*

Differentiated education has become an integral part of modern secondary education. The system is based upon the qualitative inequality of children and has a definite implication for education. It must be provided for each particular child according to his own particular abilities, aptitudes and interest (Bekker et al, 1971: 70).

The modern word differentiation imply both the determination of what constitutes the difference between given pupil and, therefore, the ability to discriminate between them (Van der Merwe, 1973: 5).

2.2.2 *Education*

Education is the practice - the educator's (pedagogue) concern in as-

sisting the child on his way to adulthood (Van Rensburg and Landman, 1979: 251).

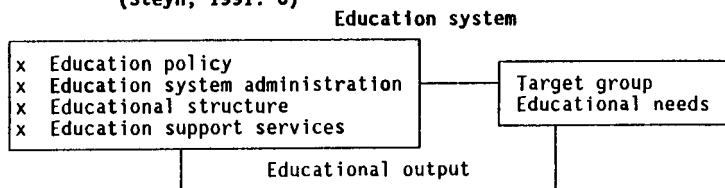
In a wider sense, styled forming or moulding, it means the total development of a person, a process which continues from cradle to grave (Bekker et al, 1971: 72). It can be summarised as a conscious purposeful, deliberate, systematic, responsible and amendable interference of the morally and intellectually independent adult person with the immature and help-seeking child with the purpose of helping him towards adulthood (Bekker et al, 1971: 74).

2.2.3 Education system

The education system forms an integral part of the study of comparative education. Therefore comparative educationists have dealt extensively with the concept education system and in this way the concept has enjoyed the attention of many students and educationists. Evidence of this is found in the multiple definitions given to the concept education system, in an attempt to give clarity to what it really means and "... dit verklaar waarom daar verskillende definisies van onderwysstelsels bestaan" (Steyn, 1991: 2).

Steyn (1991: 6) defines the education system as "... 'n logistieke raamwerk bestaande uit bepaalde komponente waardeur effektiewe onderwys om in die onderwysbehoefte van 'n bepaalde groep mense (die teikengroep) te voorsien". To elucidate this point of view, Steyn (1991: 6) provides the following diagram.

TABLE 2.1: Presentation of the definition of an education system (Steyn, 1991: 6)



Van Schalkwyk (1986: 1) gives more clarity to the concept by emphasizing that "the education system is the totality of all systems, structures and activities that cause the education of a community to take place in a purposeful, planned, organised and controlled manner".

Stone (1981: 130) highlight the structuredness of the education system by saying that it is an interwoven structure in which society combine with educational institutions so as to bring about the accelerated development of the young in the territory of a specific state, in compliance with the cultural and natural demands of time and place.

According to Vos and Barnard (1984: 37) the educational institutions are, inter alia the church, the school, the state, family and legal institutions. Each of these institutions have its own function but all are directed towards the service of society. In view of provision for differentiated education the state and the school play an important role.

The education system therefore can in short be said to be that particular system among other systems, like the legal system, which is designed by the state in cognisance of the needs and demands of the community and the individual and to offer educational opportunities in terms of aptitudes, interests and abilities of the learners.

Raikane (1987: 15) strongly stressed the needs of the community when he declared " ... the education system is designed and developed to meet the general and the particular needs of a community."

For the purpose of this research the definition provided by Steyn (1991: 6) serves as an underlining statement and gives form, content and purpose to this endeavor.

2.3 The components of an education system

For the purpose of this research the following components of an education system are used.

2.3.1 *The education system policy*

Of all the social structures the state, owing to its particular identity (as possessor of the power of the sword), is empowered on behalf of the society it rules to establish an educational policy by means of legislation (Van Schalkwyk, 1988: 135).

The educational policy is a product of government decision, through an act passed by the parliament, to give directive to the way education should be provided to the community. If the government doesn't establish the education policy, no other body has the power to do so.

The governments, of individual countries, through consultation and research findings, work out an education policy that eventually leads to an education act (Van Schalkwyk, 1986: 68). According to Ruperti (1979: 12, 20) this whole process manifests in the following moments: research, consultation, decision making, formation of policy and legislation.

For an education policy to be formulated, the facts from collected data, together with informed and uninformed opinion of the people and their desires, norms, and ideals, are discussed by the government elected interest group and a plan in connection with education is drawn. One of the most important functions of the state with regard to education is to formulate and determine education policy. An education policy does not simply come into existence but it is a product of a community's view of generally selected educational principles and community values (Van Schalkwyk, 1986: 67) which are co-ordinated and formulated by the state.

This plan forms the basis of an education system policy. If it becomes accepted, it becomes a policy or part of an existing policy (Van Schalkwyk, 1988: 68).

In this way the education of a community is acquired on firm judicial basis (Ruperti, 1979: 20). Because the education policy is a product of a government act and provides a fixed judicial basis, it must be

strictly adhered to, because "dit verplig, verbied, beskerm, waarborg, bepaal, dui aan en gee rigting (Steyn et al, 1990: 5).

In South Africa the education policy is laid down as law in act 76 of 1984 entitled, Act on the National Policy for General Education Affairs, 1984. Without fixed and clearly defined policy a definite education system can not come about.

2.3.2 *The education system administration*

After the educational policy which aim at adressing the differentiated educational needs and mandates of the community is established, an important component of the education system should make the policy to function. This component refers to that organisational aspect which makes organised bodies function. This is the educational system administration (Barnard, 1984: 40).

Steyn (1991: 26) asserts that "deur middel van die onderwysstelseladministrasie word die onderwysstelselbeleid enersyds daargestel en andersyds word sorg gedra dat die aanvaarde beleid korrek in die praktyk geïmplementeer word".

The state plays an important role here. As the power of the sword, it is the state's responsibility to control the education system so that all bodies concerned with education function in harmony and each maintains sovereignty in carrying out its functions and does not overlap into the domain of the other (Van Schalkwyk, 1978; 142).

2.3.3 *The school system*

The school system is based on differentiation. There are schools for pre-primary, primary and secondary education, as well as institutions for tertiary education (Vos and Brits, 1987: 39).

South African schools cater for the diversified interest and aptitudes of pupils. Technical, trade, commercial, music, art, agricultural and academic forms of education are made available. As a result of diffe-

rent cultural needs and responsibilities, schools are established for the Blacks, Indians, Coloureds and Whites.

The primary function of educationally qualified structures, that is, the school system, according to Steyn (1991: 33) "is om sodanige onder-rig-leersituasie te skep en te orden dat so effektief moontlik voor-siening gemaak word vir die verskillende vermoëns, belangstellings en keuses van leerders en om voorsiening te maak vir die eise wat die samelewing en/of teikengroep stel".

2.3.4 *Support services*

These include for example the library, examination bodies, travelling, medical and dental services, research bureaux and planning bodies. The support services refer therefore to specialized services to assist the teacher and/or the learner to actualise effective teaching/learning.

2.4 Views on differentiated education and differentiated teaching

2.4.1 *Introduction*

To be able to form a clear picture of the system of differentiated education it is essential to give a synopsis of different views on differentiated education and teaching.

2.4.2 *The anthropological view*

Found in the centre of all education systems, is man - the anthropos. His nature, limitations and possibilities determine the type of education which must be provided for him/her. Hence the structure of the education system is subject to the anthropological limitation, for it is inherently a system of people for people (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 172).

Van Schalkwyk (1982: 173) states that man is a multifaceted creature and discloses a great variety of typical human functions and qualities. The education requirements of a complete and balanced human

reservation implies that a person (child) should not only be educated epistomically with regards to his faith (as people of the middle ages understood education) or economically (where education is seen in terms of manpower needs), or physically (Spartan education) but with regard to all his functions. Man is a being with, inter alia, an epistomical, ethical, social, economic, analytic, cultural, physical, linguistic, biotic and kinematic function and with will and feeling. The combination of all these functions make of him a person as opposed to an animal, a plant or matter. In its choice of school types, courses of study, subjects and syllabuses, the education system will in the first place have to take cognisance of this great variety of human qualities.

A system of differentiated education therefore explains man's latent abilities that each individual person possesses, which must be developed so that each becomes what he ought to be. It further emphasises that man grows and passes through various developmental stages and that is why any system of education should differentiate chronologically according to age and vertically according to different levels of the development of the child (Killian & Viljoen, 1974: 249).

2.4.3 *The existential phenomenological view*

Existential phenomenology sees man as being someone. Because the child wants to become someone, the educator must assist him to come to an understanding of himself. Understanding of himself implies that the child will know his own human possibilities and should be helped to realise his positive human potentialities (Bekker et al, 1971: 37).

It further says the individual who finds himself cast into the world through no choice of his own, is being called upon to the future and should be provided opportunities by an education system to progress to maturity (Bekker et al, 1971: 37).

Children are not alike. There are marked individual differences among them. Every child has his own nature and therefore unequal or diffe-

rent. He is a different subject with his own gifts of head, heart and hand (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 193).

Man is therefore not a mere sum total of measureable and comparable differences. Augustinus described life as varia et immensa which by implication means, embedded with immense variety of possibilities. This is still true today (Jooste, 1973b: 28). Man's limits can therefore not be prescribed nor can we plumb his depths. Differentiated education takes into account this view, that because man is educable he must therefore be educated because he possesses the possibilities, potentialities and abilities to make something of his existence. These are characteristics inborn or innate in man and are peculiar to man only (Bekker et al, 1971: 97).

2.4.4 *The Philosophical view*

Embedded in the philosophy of differentiated education is the idea of equivalence of all pupil. The acknowledgement of individual differences and the right of each pupil to education commensurate with his unique educational, physical, emotional, and spiritual needs (Theron, 1980: 28). This philosophy focuses on four basic elements viz: the child, the teacher, the aim and means or method of education. The element child, is seen to be a particular person within a particular group endowed with particular abilities (Bekker et al, 1971: 10). Formative guidance given to the child through fields of study and subject matter, entails teaching the child to face up to his responsibilities of opening up on possibilities made available to him/her, with dignity and without trying to shun those responsibilities (Jooste, 1973b: 114).

2.4.5 *The pragmatic view*

Differentiated education is based in the actual world bearing in man's relatedness with the world where career or vocation should be provided. It is therefore an accepted starting point that educational matters have a responsibility of enabling the pupil to link up with an occupation or occupational direction. It is therefore imperative that

in an education system, as man's relationship with the world broadens, and his demands increase, the manpower requirements of a country should be noted and the vocational system in schools should be differentiated in the form of human sciences, natural sciences, commerce, agriculture, technical and other study directions (Ncoko, 1992: 23). The education system should provide opportunities for vocational growth and the situation must contribute to the child's experience (Bekker et al, 1971: 37).

2.4.6 *The normative view*

Through differentiated education man should be assisted to know and find the accepted philosophy of life based on the norms and value of the society to which he belongs.

The norms, standards, ideas and values that constitutes a person's evaluation of himself and others through learning, should through differentiated education assist the child to accept or reject certain behaviour patterns or ideas (Bekker et al, 1971: 99). Although every school subject contains formational value there are certain subjects with more direct and specific knowledge regarding religion, citizenship and cultural reality (Ncoko, 1992: 22). These subjects should be put at the disposal of all children and for the reason that they have more specific knowledge, certain subjects will be compulsory than others (Rip, 1972: 175).

2.4.7 *The Christian view*

Differentiated education, namely education which provides for the needs of individual pupils and also caters for their abilities, is demanded by the Word of God. As a matter of fact "die uitbouing van gedifferensieerde onderwys vorm 'n uiters noodsaaklike onderdeel van God se opdrag aan die mens" (Niemann, 1979: 1).

Since children differ, the educator would be unwise to teach all children in the same way. More can be expected of him who has received

five talents, and more should be expected of him than from one who has received only one talent (Bible, Parables 1981: 70). Education must take this particularity and dissimilarity into consideration. But we must add: Of him who has received five talents, it is expected that he increases them one hundredfold, and of him who has received but one talent, it is also expected that he increases it one hundredfold. There is no differentiation with regard to the child's responsibility. It is, therefore, the school's task to educate the child to perform at optimum level of his own accord (Jooste, 1973b: 30).

In addition it is the educator's love and devotion which arouses and strengthens the child's belief in the authoritativeness of the norms venerated by the educator. He who does not accept the responsibilities of education with dedication, devotion and joy, cannot reach the child, simply because he does not accept the child. The noblest educational provision can only manifest on condition that the educator has accepted the authority of the greatest Educator, Jesus Christ (Jooste, 1973b: 27). Man's acceptance of dependence ensures his great independence, because then only does he become what he should be: a child of God (Jooste, 1973b: 27).

In differentiated education the child is seen as a unique person, who is the product of neither his past or his development, nor of the future as a causa finalis determining his actions. It is a prior assumption in Christian anthropology that the child is required to answer the call of the Word; He Who first brought him into being. The child is thus essentially a second person. This is why our education can never be only the child-centred education of a self-sufficient I or first person, as seen by Freud and Dewey. Neither is the child the mere product of natural development, conditioned by circumstances and objectified, self-lacking third person (Jooste, 1973b: 141).

2.4.8 *The Moral view*

In addition to recognising individual differences, pedagogy demands a recognition of moral equality, not in the sense of an equal moral level (there are differences in honesty, reliability), but in the

sense that each individual is essentially able to make a moral decision and to behave accordingly. Education must make allowance for differences in developing predispositioned children. But the nature of the assistance given is not determined by the hereditary factors only. The educator's assistance must be responsible and purposeful (Jooste, 1973b: 29).

2.5 Planning for differentiated education

2.5.1 *Introduction*

Because of the nature of differentiated education, certain aspects need to be considered when planning it. They are the following:

2.5.2 *The inequality of men*

Society demands that all pupils should have access to secondary education and that education should give pupils the opportunity of realising their abilities to the optimum. Coupled with this, is the demand that pupils should be prepared for the vocational sphere so that they will be able to pursue their vocations productively. To satisfy this demand, it is necessary that the inequality of pupils be taken into account in educational planning (Van der Merwe, 1973: 6). The inequality of persons is reflected in the abilities with which each is born, that is, their differences from each other in respect of, inter alia, intellectual ability, temperament, potentialities, interest and emotionality but especially with regard to the way in which the person structures the abovementioned components as an integrated totality in real life.

This inequality or individual otherness of pupils must be taken into account when planning education so that it may be offered in accordance with the pupils' abilities (Niemann, 1979: 3). This means that differentiated education should be planned to link up with post-school vocational fields.

2.5.3 *Formative education*

Although education, in one sense, should be geared to preparation for a vocation, formative education should not be neglected because young people should also be cultured persons. In prescribing the subjects which lend themselves more to formative education an attempt is made to help young people to become such persons.

2.5.4 *Manpower requirements*

Education planners must endeavour to plan so as to satisfy quantitative and qualitative manpower requirements (Niemann, 1979: 4). Data on manpower requirements should, therefore, be available to enable the education planner to plan a system of differentiated education which will meet these requirements as far as possible.

2.6 Techniques for differentiation in other education systems

2.6.1 *Introduction*

In order to obtain a better idea of the concept of differentiation it is advisable to examine briefly techniques for differentiation applied in different education systems. Van der Merwe (1976: 8) and Niemann (1979: 5-6) mention the following:

2.6.2 *Differentiation in tracks or streams (differentiation in subject-manner)*

This form of differentiation entails the classification of pupils into homogeneous ability groups according to achievement or IQ and the offering of a specific subject at different levels. This stream (track) grouping may be extended so that a pupil takes all his subjects at the higher, middle or lower level.

2.6.3 *Setting (cross grouping)*

When pupils take different subjects at different levels cross grouping

or setting occurs. A pupil may, for example, be in the alpha group for Mathematics, delta for English and beta for Geography (Van der Merwe, 1976: 8).

2.6.4 *Differentiation according to choice of subject and courses of study*

Here a core of basic subjects is prescribed for all pupils. There is, in addition, a wide choice in respect of a field of study and choice of subjects. These courses are mainly of an academic, technical, commercial, domestic science and agricultural nature. This form of differentiation may occur either in separate single track schools or under one roof in the comprehensive school.

2.6.5 *Differentiation in tempo*

Within a comprehensive or single track school, differentiation may also occur with regard to the tempo at which children learn. This is not really a new idea in education, since it amounts to the fact that one pupil, for example, takes five years to complete a course, while another may take seven years as a result of the fact that he has to repeat two years (Van der Merwe, 1976: 8). In this case there is no differentiation in the subject-matter or in the method of examination. In the USA this system is especially characteristic of the non-graded school, that is, where there is no division into standards. Consequently, pupils do not fail standards but write an examination at the end of two or three years, which permits them if successful to proceed to the following phase of two or three years, or which dictates that they should remain in the former phase for a further year.

2.6.6 *Differentiation by enrichment of the syllabus*

A minimum subject content is prescribed for a specific subject and pupils are divided into homogeneous ability groups according to some criterion. The learning programme of the quicktempo groups is enriched with additional subject-matter, but everybody writes the same examination at the end of the year (Niemann, 1979: 6).

2.6.7 *"Advanced Placement program"*

This method is related to the enrichment of the learning programme. Enrichment may be accomplished in various ways, but by means of this programme an attempt is made to allow the clever pupil to take part in the tertiary programme at an earlier stage. In the last year at the secondary school, therefore, certain subjects are taught at the tertiary level and the student receives credit for them when he is admitted to a tertiary educational institution.

2.6.8 *The parallel syllabus plan*

The pupils progress in two parallel streams. The syllabus of a particular subject includes the same subjectmatter, but the one stream completes the work in eight years while the other takes six. Pupils are transferred periodically from one group to the other in accordance with their abilities and progress.

2.6.9 *The individual progress plan*

This scheme, which originates in Colorado, USA, makes provision for every pupil to work and progress at his own individual tempo. As soon as the pupil has completed the work of a particular standard, he may be promoted. This may happen at any time during the school year. At the commencement of each school year the pupil merely continues from where he left off the previous year (Niemann, 1979: 6).

2.7 **Criteria for provision of differentiated education**

Differentiation indicates the uniqueness, distinctiveness and peculiarity of each creature. The principle implies that the educational system should deal with the individual separately and educate him optimally according to his particular individuality. Therefore all educational institutions should try to educate each pupil fully according to his/her particular needs. This calls for provision of differentiated education based on particular criteria. According to Van

Schalkwyk (1982: 174-182) the following criteria should be catered for:

2.7.1 *Differences of sex*

In certain communities a need can arise for education differentiated on the basis of sex. It is then necessary to separate boys and girls so that each group can develop fully in different classes or, if justified by numbers, different schools can be established for girls and boys. Similarly sex differences require that certain subjects, more in keeping with the nature, ability and interest of boys or girls respectively be offered, such as technical subjects (woodwork and metal work for boys and home economics for girls) and trade subjects (cabinet making, bricklaying, plumbing and welding for boys and dressmaking, wickerwork and weaving for girls).

2.7.2 *Difference of aptitude*

Although all people share qualities of aptitudes they differ from one person to another. Thus, some people are more musical than others, some have an aptitude for languages and others for painting or sculpture. Some are good at arithmetic, others at literature, or manual skills, and others at sport. The education system should provide for the reservation of both the general and the particular aptitude of the young. To accommodate these differences, schools for the gifted as well as ordinary academic schools could be established, or there could be separate schools introduced, for technical, commercial, natural science, art and humanities courses (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 183).

2.7.3 *Differences of interest*

Although aptitude determines interest to a great extent, a person's background and education also help to arouse interest in a given subject. The farmer's son might be very interested in agricultural subjects, the scientist's child in the natural sciences and the motor mechanic's son in a trade. Provision should be made for this in the

form of school types, that is, academic, technical, and agricultural schools.

2.7.4 *Differences of ability*

2.7.4.1 Giftedness

"Highly gifted children are those who -

- are exceptionally intelligent;
- are exceptionally gifted in languages, mathematics and art;
- reveal creativity;
- possess qualities of leadership;
- excel in sport; and
- have exceptional qualities of personality, but
- are under-achievers because they cannot actualize their potential in ordinary education.

"In the RSA alone, about 2,27% of the White school population can be classed as highly gifted" (Van Schalkwyk 1986: 149).

According to Van Schalkwyk (1982: 174), an education system is required to do the following:

- Identify the highly gifted in a scientific manner;
- Provide the necessary means for guiding parents and teachers of these pupils as well as the pupils themselves;
- Draw up the necessary curricula for these pupils;
- Provide the educational facilities which they need, such as special centres, aids and classes;
- Train the right teachers for this group.

2.7.5 *Differences of religion and philosophy of life*

Today most developed countries have a heterogeneous population as regards religion and philosophy of life (Raikane, 1992). Naturally it

is not always possible to provide a separate school for each group where education can be given on the basis of the underlying ground-motive and philosophy of life. It is essential, however, because all education is always determined by a ground-motive, that the more important and more common difference of religion and philosophy of life in a community be taken into account. On this basis, state schools in South Africa, have at least a Christian orientation while there are also state-subsidised and non-subsidised private Roman Catholic, Lutheran and Anglican schools. In the Netherlands there are Protestant Christian, Roman Catholic and Humanist (neutral) schools to provide for these three general philosophies of life (Van Schalkwyk, 1986: 174).

2.7.6 *Differences of culture*

Cultural differences are closely connected with those dealt with in the previous paragraph. The ground-motive always has a determining effect on the nature of the culture. Thus a Christian ground-motive and Western civilisation go hand in hand as do Eastern and Middle Eastern religions and their respective Eastern and Middle Eastern cultures, and so also African natural religions and African civilisation. These differences, together with those concerning a philosophy of life, are fundamental and determine the entire culture of a community. Consequently it is of the greatest importance especially as education is concerned with the transfer of culture to the young that education should be differentiated on these grounds. In South Africa account is taken of all these differences by means of four educational subsystems (Vos & Brits, 1987: 56).

Within a broadly defined cultural group there could be further differences such as differences of language and cultural ideals. Coupled with the language of a people, one usually finds its culture, traditions, group pride and group attitudes, all of which it wants to preserve, especially by means of education through the medium of the mother tongue. Consequently such a group or nation wants to be educated as a group or a nation. To this end, therefore, it is necessary that within the African cultural context, for example,

provision should also be made for Tswana, Xhosa, Zulu and Northern Sotho schools (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 176)

2.7.7 Differences in age and level of development

Because of these differences an education system has to make provision for pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary education. If economic or social conditions within a community (for instance the case of working mothers, the greater number of mothers practicing a profession or the increasing evil of child neglect) bring about a need for educating small children outside the home, then it also becomes necessary to establish crèches. The position might then be as follows: (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 176):

- 0 - 3 years - Crèches
- 3 - 6 years - Pre-primary schools
- 6 - 13 years - Primary schools
- 13 - 18 years - Secondary schools
- 18 years + - Tertiary institutions.

Each of these school types will provide the required kind of education which accords with the level of development of the group concerned and satisfies its educational needs (as determined by the specific task of each age group).

The more important and general educational needs of children in the various phases of development are according to Van Schalkwyk (1982: 176) the following:

- 0 - 3 years The educational task of the *crèche* for this group of children includes teaching them to walk, to eat solid food, to talk, toilet habits and play and to satisfy their need for love and security.
- 3 - 6 years The educational task of the *nursery* school for this group of children includes guiding the development of their motor abilities, encouraging social intercourse, teaching them to

differentiate between the sexes and the qualities associated with each sex, teaching them the difference between good and evil, and encouraging emotional stability and independence.

6 - 13 years The educational task of the *primary* school for this group of children includes matters such as teaching them physical skills, to get on with others, to fulfil their sexroles, to read, write and compute, to develop their conscience and unfold their sense of values and, in short, to provide a broad basic education.

13 - 18 years The educational task of the *secondary* school for this group of children or young people includes teaching them to fulfil their sex role fully as men and women, to get along with the opposite sex, to become independent of parents, to choose and begin work on a course of study leading to a career, to accept full responsibility and prepare themselves for their role in marriage and for a career (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 177).

18 years and older Whereas primary and secondary educational institutions have a strong tendency to stress general and specialized education, education in tertiary institutions is mainly specialized, predominantly vocational, much more strongly andragogic than pedagogic and thus more instructural than educational. It is not general and basic like primary education but is meant for a select group only. It can never be made compulsory and it is very expensive and aimed at fulfilling certain educational needs only.

Tertiary instructions is post-secondary instruction and thus has its own unique nature. Its students have already reached a certain level of development and are on the threshold of a vocation. Obviously their life-task is in the occupational world and thus their educational needs are primarily concerned with this. Tertiary institutions have to satisfy these needs (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 177).

These institutions in the Republic of South Africa can be divided broadly into six classes:

- colleges, such as, for the training of teachers and nurses, police, agricultural and marine training colleges
- private colleges, including private correspondence colleges
- professional institutions such as Biblical and Medical schools
- in-service training colleges of the civil service such as those for the post office and the railways
- technikons, technical colleges and technical institutes
- universities.

2.7.8 *Abnormalities*

In every community a further classification of the young may be made, namely the physically and mentally normal who can benefit from normal or ordinary education, and non-normal pupils who qualify for special education. The latter group consists of many different kinds, each kind with their own unique problems requiring particular specialised education. The different groups can be classified as follows (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 178):

2.7.8.1 Aurally handicapped children and their educational needs

The aurally handicapped child has always presented Orthopedagogics with one of its most difficult tasks. This handicap has a serious effect on the intellectual, emotional and social reseration of the child. As a result still other behavioural problems develop (such as serious emotional disturbances leading to other behavioural abnormalities). In many cases they are accompanied by other genetic and physical abnormalities, such as intellectual deficiency, mental backwardness, epilepsy, sight defects, perceptual and conceptual problems such as dyslexia, psycho-neurological learning handicaps,

physical abnormalities and hyperactivity. According to Behr (1984: 111) two categories can be distinguished namely:

- Deaf children: Their loss of hearing is such that they have to be taught by special educational methods in schools for the deaf. These pupils can hear only indistinctly or not at all and therefore cannot interpret speech or language in a natural way. They have to be taught mainly through methods depending on the functioning of other senses, among which sight and touch are primary; hearing itself is secondary. They are the 'seeing' group who depend mainly on visual forms of speech and language. Language and speech have to be learnt artificially because these children possess too little hearing with which to learn them naturally.
- Children who are hard of hearing: These children have lost their hearing to such an extent that it is necessary for them to attend a school for the hard of hearing for their entire school career. They do not, however, need to be taught by the same teaching method as deaf children. They have learnt speech and language in a natural way (although perhaps not well) and have enough hearing left to be able to develop it further in the same way. They are the 'hearing' group in whose education use is mainly made of the sense of hearing.

2.7.8.2 Visually handicapped pupils and their educational needs

The visual handicap of these children is such that they are unable to profit from ordinary education. Because of a variety of eye conditions which can arise at different times of the child's life, together with various secondary handicaps (speech defect, learning handicaps, perceptual and coordination problems). Due to primary eye diseases and abnormalities, the visual ability of visually handicapped pupils ranges from total blindness without any perception of light, to near-normal sight (Behr, 1984: 113). The educational problems of visually handicapped children necessitate the use of a great variety

of educational media and aids such as braille, technical apparatus, large-print books, tape recorders, television, models, relief maps and optical aids. There are two categories of visually handicapped children (Behr, 1984: 113).

- The blind These are children whose visual handicap is such that they can not be taught through visual media and must therefore be taught mainly through braille and other mediums of touch. They are known as 'braille readers'.
- The visually handicapped The visually handicapped are those whose vision is such that although they can be taught through visual media their handicap makes it necessary for them to be taught by means of special educational methods and with the help of special teaching aids.

2.7.8.3 Neurally handicapped children and their educational needs

Physically handicapped children, epileptics and the cerebrally palsied as well as pupils with serious specific learning problems can generally be taught satisfactorily in the same school, because on the whole they all have the same or nearly the same physical and neurological problems. At primary school level, however, the neurally handicapped ought to be accommodated, taught and treated in separate schools, making special provision for each specific abnormality. Van Schalkwyk (1982: 179) mention the following categories of this handicap:

- The cerebrally handicapped: This group is classified clinically into six groups, namely the spastic, atethoid, ataktic, atonic, the mixed group, and the group displaying rigidity. The demand for this type of school continues to grow (Behr, 1978: 113).

Apart from these they also experience educational problems if they are rejected, overprotected, spoilt or neglected by their educators.

- Children with brain injuries: These children are characterised by their varying intellectual abilities and behavioural abnormalities. Hiperkinesis, problems of perception, perseveration, distractibility and emotional liability are usually even more prominent than in the cerebral palsied or the child with a specific learning handicap. Their motor functioning is normal (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 179).
- Epileptic children: Such children suffer epileptic fits of different kinds which originate as a disturbance in a particular part of the brain.

2.7.8.4 Physically handicapped children

These children are usually characterised by one or more of the following (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 180):

- Abnormalities of the nervous system
- Abnormalities of the skeleton or joints, or spinal deformities
- Abnormalities of the muscular system
- Abnormal posture
- Lung diseases, including asthma
- Heart defects
- Hormone disturbances
- Congenital defects
- Cerebral palsy
- Various abnormalities, such as conditions requiring plastic surgery, burns and lack of nails or hair.

These primary problems are usually coupled with secondary ones such as pedagogical problems like rejection or overprotection and scholastic

retardation (due to therapeutic and remedial treatment and a series of operations which interrupt study). These children also require careful treatment because many of them are bleeders. Their bones may be fragile, they may have heart defects or suffer from osteo-myelitis. Obviously, their education goes hand in hand with continuous medical treatment and sometimes hospitalization (Behr, 1978: 115).

2.7.8.5 Difference on grounds of specific learning handicap

These children are also known as children with psycho-neurological learning difficulties. Development of their listening, thinking, speaking, reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic abilities is retarded. They also suffer from abnormal sensory integration, perception, memory, control of attention and impulses. Usually they are unable to carry out orders and interpret what they see or hear differently than do normal children. They read written orders incorrectly, copy something in writing wrongly, writing tires them and they are frustrated by their inability to do things correctly (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 181). Motor activities such as balancing and eye-hand co-ordination are usually clumsy, awkward and weak. On the whole they manage well in schools for the neurally handicapped.

2.7.8.6 Autistic children

Early autism among children can be described as a clinical syndrome which is manifested before the age of three years and can be recognised by the presence of introverted and reserved behaviour (sometimes total withdrawal), disturbed emotional relations, language disturbances, abnormal mobility such as hyperactivity and unusual bodily postures. The education of such a child differs drastically from that of the normal child and he/she ought to be taught according to his/her individual needs. Progress is very slow because of communication problems and the many hampering factors which accompany this abnormality. It is of the greatest importance that parents and hostel staff be continuously and actively involved in the child's formative education. "The teaching programme, therefore, should

provide for 'educating' the parent together with the child so that the child will be treated and helped to unfold in the correct way." (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 181).

2.7.8.7 Mentally handicapped children

The Mentally Retarded Children's Act, 1974 (Act no. 63 of 1974) defines a mentally retarded child as a child who has been exempted from compulsory education on account of uneducability but who is trainable and will derive benefit from training programme at a training centre. They are children with an IQ of between 30 and 50. In some children only the primary handicap, the mental handicap, is present while many other children also suffer from secondary handicaps such as epilepsy, hardness of hearing, deafness, autism and cerebral palsy. The two groups should be taught separately (Behr, 1978: 118).

The aim of a training programme is to normalise the child as far as possible so that he will be more acceptable to his community, be able to move about more independently in the community, increase his usefulness by doing simple tasks, accept responsibility for tasks in and around the house, make an economic contribution in sheltered employment and use his free time more independently (Van Schalkwyk, 1978: 181).

2.7.8.8 The lightly and moderately handicapped

As these children are only slightly or moderately handicapped, they can usually manage in special classes in ordinary schools, if numbers justify this arrangement. Orthodidactic help can be given individually or in groups. Those with some sense of hearing ought to receive hearing aids, their classroom should be provided with acoustical equipment and amplifiers and they should be taught by specially trained teachers. Emotionally and behaviourally handicapped children, on the other hand, should be taught by specially trained teacher assisted by members of an ancillary educational service.

2.7.9 *Pedagogically neglected children*

The pedagogically neglected child's handicap does not result from physical or mental deficiencies but from poor or wrong educational treatment or intervention by his educator, which has caused him to become alienated.

The main causes of such neglect are emotional neglect of the child in his earliest years, a broken home, overprotection and spoiling of the child, rejection, parental discord, physical deficiencies, the bad example of parents and unsatisfactory relations with parents, brothers, sisters, playmates and others, the absence of authority and a poor sense of the future.

The pedagogically neglected child is usually catered for in schools, which in the RSA are known as Children's Act schools (industrial schools and reformatories) (Behr, 1984: 119). Education is aimed at the development of the body weakened by malnutrition, physical neglect, towards health and maximum usefulness, intellectual growth and development, emotional stability, social adaptability and balance, a healthy outlook on life, good behaviour, the solving of domestic problems and the improvement of relations with members of the family.

The education of these children demands total responsibility for their care and upbringing, as they have to be withdrawn entirely from the family circle for a while (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 183).

2.8 Theoretical model for evaluation of differentiation in the school system for the Coloured in the RSA

2.8.1 *Introduction*

On the basis of the previous discussion, effective differentiated education could be evaluated by using the following model:

2.8.2 *Anthropological grounds*

- Differentiated education should cater for differences of sex.
- Differentiated education should provide for differences in aptitudes and abilities.
- Differentiated education should make provision for differences of interest.
- Differentiated education should take into consideration differences in age and level of development.
- Differentiated education should cater for the abnormalities.
- Differentiated education should provide for cultural differences.

The two last-mentioned criteria will be excluded in this study since they do not form part of this enterprise.

2.8.3 *Types of differentiation*

Differentiated education should also take into account the following types of differentiation.

2.8.3.1 *Individualization:* Are the nature and abilities of every pupil taken into account in schools?

2.8.3.2 *Grouping:* Is any grouping done on the basis of interest, ability and aptitude?

2.8.3.3 *Study directions:* Are there study directions or courses for pupils/students to choose from?

2.9 The historical development of the school system for the Coloureds 1910-1963

2.9.1 *Introduction*

The periods of historical development in the school system for the Coloured in the Republic of South Africa, could be divided into two

important periods, namely 1910 to 1963 and 1964 to 1984.

The period 1910 to 1963 covers a period for provision for Coloured education by provinces and the transfer of Coloured Education from provinces to the central Department of Coloured Affairs when the Coloured Persons Education Act, 1963 (Act no. 47 of 1963) was adopted by Parliament. The period up to 1984 includes two important changes in the Coloured education provision; namely the 1969 establishment of the Coloured ~~Person~~ Representative Council and the establishment of Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives) in 1984 (Behr, 1984: 242).

For the purpose of continuity and logic in the historical survey, it was deemed appropriate to look at the period before 1910 as well.

2.9.2 *The period prior to 1910*

The Coloured communities are greatly indebted to the missionary societies that worked among the people of South Africa during the period before 1910. For many years the educational efforts of missionary societies were conducted without any financial help from the government. In 1841 state aid was made available to mission schools which were intended to provide education for poorer classes of White as well as non-White communities (Pells, undated: 74), "for it was in the mission school that the descendants of emancipated slaves received their education" (Behr & MacMillan, 1966: 330). In Transvaal, by 1896 there were seven private schools for non-whites. One of the latter being Perseverance School which also admitted Coloured children. St Cyprian School was opened in 1890. Special mention must be made of Reverend Charles Phillips for being instrumental in establishing 25 schools in the Transvaal by 1896 for the Coloureds or Eurafrikan people (Behr & MacMillan, 1966: 332).

According to Behr & MacMillan (1966: 338), by 1903 there were 201 mission schools with an enrollment of 12,660 pupil and a staff of 289 teachers, of whom 41 were Europeans.

In Natal though, Coloured children attended state-aided schools like the Verulam School (Behr & MacMillan, 1966: 334).

The education of non-whites in the Orange Free State up to 1910 was entirely in the hand of the missionary societies. Missionary societies of Paris, Berlin and Wesleyan societies worked among the inhabitants of the territory in the 1830's. Their efforts did however not meet with much success. The young republic which came into existence in 1854 was not in a position to give attention to non-White education (Behr & MacMillan, 1966: 334).

The above is a description of the situation in Coloured education before the union in 1910. As far as differentiation is concerned, Behr & MacMillan (1966: 332) conclude by saying that from 1864 to 1920 there was no differentiation in the content of courses laid down for White, Bantu and Coloured children.

2.9.3 Primary and secondary education for Coloured in the Cape, Transvaal, Natal and the Orange Free State 1910-1963

2.9.3.1 Control of education

The vast majority of Coloured schools in the Cape were denominational schools owned by missions. These missions appointed the school managers, the appointments requiring the Superintendent-General's approval. School committees existed at a few of these schools only.

During the years before 1930 Undenominational Departmental schools for Coloured pupils had either managers appointed by the Superintendent-General of Education, or school committees elected by the parents. These schools, together with schools for white children, fell under the school boards. The Cape Education Ordinance (No. 11, 1945), provided that in such cases the Administrator would appoint a Coloured education committee. By 1953, such committees were functioning in the school districts of Worcester and Robertson.

In 1930 the Department established a special section to deal with Coloured education. "All schools for white and Coloured students, however, fell under the same inspectorate" (Horrel, 1970: 33).

On 26 May 1948 the people who had the vote in South Africa went to the polls. The result was a triumph for Afrikaner nationalism. The National Party had to implement a policy that it had fought for during elections. This policy was apartheid or separate development. It was also applied in the educational field. The concept was embodied in the Bantu Education Act, 1953 (Act no. 47 of 1953) the Coloureds Person's Education Act, 1963 (Act no. 47 of 1963) and the Indians Education Act, 1965 (Act no. 61 of 1965) (Filander, 1977: 54).

The new government immediately attended to the education policy of the country which formed an integral part of the new race policy and the spotlight was immediately focused on Coloured education (Hoods, 1977: 71).

* Central Control

Education Act 1907 (Act no 25 of 1907) made provision for central control of education in the Transvaal (including education for Coloureds) by a Minister of Education. He was however to be assisted by a Council of Education in an advisory capacity. This Council consisted of the Director of Education as chairman and four other members (Horrel, 1970: 73).

The Governor of the Transvaal Colony also enjoyed the power to appoint inspectors of education and other officers to assist in the administration of the department (Hoods, 1977: 26).

The Transvaal Education Department (through the Minister of Education) assumed responsibility for reopening some of the institutions for Coloured pupils that had been founded by various churches, and for establishing some new schools. As time went on though; a pattern gradually emerged of separate schools for Coloured and Indian children in the larger towns, and combined schools elsewhere (Horrel, 1970: 73).

* Local control

In the Transvaal, local control was maintained through School Boards since the Education Act, 1907 (Act no. 25 of 1907 had made provision for the colony to be divided into school districts, each of which was controlled by a school board comprising of six, nine or twelve members.

In Natal all schools fell under the direct control of the Natal Education Department since the system of school boards was not adopted. Aided schools were controlled by committees; while farm schools were managed by grantees. It can therefore be said that all Coloured Schools fell under the purview of the Chief Inspector of European Education (Horrel, 1970: 64).

The Orange Free State provincial administration established certain Government schools for Coloured children, initially only in the towns. These were, at first, usually conducted in rented premises, often belonging to the Dutch Reformed Church, which took an active interest in the education provided. Until well into the 1930's, those Coloured children in country districts who wished to attend school went to mission schools established primarily for Africans (Horrel, 1970: 81).

The above information indicates that attempts by various provinces to establish control bodies for Coloured education laid good foundation for developing a viable differentiated education system for the Coloured. These were the very important steps without which there would not have been talk about Coloured education, let alone differentiated education for the Coloureds.

2.9.3.2 The aim of education

A Coloured education commission was appointed in the Cape in 1953 under the chairmanship first of Dr de Vos Malan and subsequently Professor M C Botha. According to the report, as found in (Cape Province, 1953: 56-57) the aims of the education of the child was set out as follows; Education must create opportunities for him by which his whole being can so develop that he will grow to be a person who:

- will attach the greatest value to, and will strive after, the things in life which will contribute to his own happiness as a responsible useful, and honourable person;
- will be prepared to take part, to the best of his ability, in the service of the community of which he is a member;
- will take pleasure and find satisfaction in promoting the welfare of his fellow-men, especially those of his own population group.

The commission further stressed that in order to achieve this purpose, the general function of the school should be to:

- make its own contribution to the religious and moral uplifting of the pupils;
- foster desirable attitudes and good habits in them;
- provide them with the fundamental education which will enable them to make a living;
- offer them full opportunities to develop their innate talents;
- contribute to building up the pupil's physical health.

The aim of secondary education for Coloureds was seen by the Transvaal Department of Education as the carrying on of education of any pupils, whether desirous of becoming teachers or not beyond the primary stage (Filander, 1977: 25).

Provision for secondary education was a further increase of opportunities for Coloured children to be exposed to differentiated education. This was in line with differentiation on grounds of level of development and age.

In the OFS, the policy of the Orange Free State Provincial Council by and large was to treat Coloureds on the same par with Blacks in so far as education was concerned (Behr, 1984: 239).

In Natal, for many years, the vast majority of Coloured children received no more than the rudiments of education, and the question of school syllabuses did not really arise. In its report the Broome Provincial Education Commission of Natal Province (Broome Commission), stated that while the education offered to the Coloured children in the primary school ought not theoretically to differ from that offered to Europeans, in practice it must be slightly modified in order to enable Coloured children to make the most of the limited opportunities open to them on leaving school (Natal Province, 1938: 74).

2.9.3.3 The Curriculum

The new curriculum aimed at giving a practical basis to instruction in Coloured schools. Horticulture and industrial arts were stressed, and the teaching of history and geography was adapted to be more acceptable to the needs of the Coloured people (Behr, 1984: 237).

The primary school syllabus followed by Coloured and Indian schools were the same as that for White schools in other provinces too. Although it was recommended in 1939 that Coloured children should not slavishly follow the syllabi prescribed for White children, no changes were brought into operation, and it remained general practice until the take-over of Coloured education by the Department of Coloured Affairs in 1964 (Horrel, 1970: 87).

The Transvaal Provincial Education Commission, (TP No.5 1937) stated good reasons why Coloureds and Indian pupils should not slavishly follow the syllabi for White pupils (Transvaal Province, 1937: 220).

The reasons were:

- The short average school life of these children. While the European child who did not reach Std. VI, was by then an exception, only about one-third of the Coloured children reach Std. V.
- The environment of the school. The Coloured and Indian people of the Transvaal were city and town dwellers, while about 50 per cent of the European children were in the country districts and of these about two-thirds are in farm schools.
- There was also the difficulty of furnishing Coloured schools with adequate equipment for practical subjects, especially while they are being housed in hired buildings.

The Commission thus recommended that it be a standing instruction to inspectors of schools, to encourage teachers of Coloured children to draw up their own schemes of work and submit them to the inspectors, so as to realise the highest aims for these children during the short period available.

The fact that Coloured children were taught the same subjects as their white counter-part, proves that they enjoyed the same opportunities for differentiation with the White children.

2.9.3.4 Accommodation and enrolment

In earlier years the school achievement of school pupils were very low. A high degree of retardation and failure among the pupils was reported. Some 40% of the urban and 70% of the rural school population failed to complete the primary school course (Behr, 1984: 237).

However, as school facilities increased and the quality improved, the Coloured community became increasingly aware of the importance of education. Consequently there was an increase in the primary school population in the Cape Province as shown in table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2: Primary School Population in the Cape Province
(Mohr, 1971: 12)

Year	Entries per Standard							Total
	A	B	I	II	III	IV	V	
1930	21532	10154	9098	7553	5712	3366	1893	59288
1940	37165	19655	20028	16477	13148	8876	5570	120919
1950	48980	28487	27279	23459	19432	14809	10121	172567
1960	55533	44596	39394	33687	28737	22868	16621	241436

By 30 June 1908 there were ten state primary schools for Coloured children in the whole Transvaal, providing instruction to 1347 pupils. Most of these schools were confined to the Witwatersrand area. By 1920 the number of schools had increased to 22 (Hoods, 1977: 27).

The two main problems that continually engaged the attention of the Transvaal Education Department were the establishment of separate schools for Coloureds and Asians since no provision for that was made in the education act. Another problem was school accommodation which remained a vexing problem and caused a number of double session schools to rise to eight (Hoods, 1977: 28).

The majority of the schools were dilapidated and increasingly overcrowded because group areas proclamations were awaited. No improvements or additions were made to schools in areas likely to be zoned for Whites, and new schools were not built until group areas were demarcated. Between 1955 and 1959 Coloured schools decreased in number because some of the smaller ones were amalgamated (Hoods, 1977: 72).

During the sixties however as Filander (1977: 10) puts it; the Coloured population realised the value of education. Despite the fact that compulsory education had not yet been introduced for the Coloureds, and that there was a shortage of accommodation, Behr (1984: 239) indicates the increase in school attendance when he says "by 1962 the number of Coloured pupils in the Transvaal had risen to 20 000 and the schools were 77".

Concerning secondary education a start was made in 1919 when the normal school for Coloureds and Indians was established at Vrededorp Kranter Street in Johannesburg. The institution was known as Eurafrikan Training Centre.

In 1935 there were 51 schools in Transvaal that catered for Coloured children. One of these was state-aided, but all the rest were undenominational public schools under the control of the same school boards as schools for Whites (Filander, 1977: 25).

Table 2.3 shows the situation in Transvaal secondary schools from 1930 up to 1963.

TABLE 2.3: The distribution of pupils by Standard (Horrel, 1970: 80)

YEAR	STANDARD					TOTAL
	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	
1930	924	122	88	2	3	1139
1940	3872	1576	1030	194	143	6815
1950	6782	2635	1513	419	259	11608
1960	10988	5815	3421	1449	919	22592
1963	13771	6972	4678	1800	1200	28421

In Natal the first post-primary classes for Coloured pupils were started in 1917, in two government Schools in Durban. The pupils were, during 1924, transferred to a new school in Umbilo Road, Durban, which opened as a secondary school, but later extended its classes to the matriculation level. By 1937 "intermediate" (secondary) classes had been commenced at the Greyling Street Government School in Pietermaritzburg, and, the following year at the Little Flower School at Ixopo, an aided school established by the Roman Catholic Church. By 1960 there were three state- and two state-aided schools on post-primary level (Horrel, 1970: 66).

Secondary education was not commenced until 1939 in the Free State. By 1960 there was one high school, situated in Bloemfontein with a

school roll of 4385 pupils. The distribution by Standard in various years was as shown in TABLE 2.4.

TABLE 2.4: Distribution of pupils by standards in various years in the OFS (Horrel, 1970: 82)

	1930	1936	1941	1946	1950	1960
Std. VI	5	37	64	104	121	204
VII			10	17	8	48
VIII				3	4	30
IX				1	-	9
X	-	-	-	-	1	8
Total	5	37	74	125	134	299

The increase in the number of school buildings for accommodation, and the increase in numbers of pupils is a good sign that more and more opportunities were being created for differentiation in the Coloured school system.

2.9.3.5 Medium of Instruction

From 1911, the pupil's home language was obligatory as the medium of instruction in the primary schools, but thereafter parents could decide which schools to send their children to. This was also the case with Coloureds. In 1945 however, a new ordinance in the Cape was passed, the major aim of which was to achieve duality of medium.

The new language Ordinance of 1950 made it obligatory for parents, Coloured parents included, in both provincial and private schools, to have their children educated through the medium of the home language throughout their school careers (Horrel, 1970: 76-77)

"Parallel-medium as well as single-medium schools existed for many years: but from about 1955 the provincial authorities began to divide the parallel schools on a language basis" (Horrel, 1970: 77).

The Natal Ordinances No. 13 of 1916 and No. 23 of 1942, gave parents, Coloured parents also, the right to choose the medium of instruction for their children. The medium selected was almost exclusively English; but if a minimum of 15 children in a class wanted instruction through the medium of Afrikaans (or Dutch before 1921), this was arranged if a qualified teacher was available. Both languages were taught as subjects in all schools, and, if this was feasible, the second language was supposed to be used as a partial medium of instruction in at least one other subject (Natal Province, 1907: 171).

The Coloured and the White children were taught through the medium of their home language (almost exclusively Afrikaans) up to and including Standard VI in the OFS. Thereafter, parents could choose either Afrikaans or English languages as medium provided that there were suitably qualified teachers.

It is worth taking note of the fact that already at the start of the Union of South Africa in 1910, Coloured children were taught by medium of their home language. This was differentiation in a sense. It agreed correctly with the criteria; differentiation on grounds of language and cultural ideals. Through this provision, Coloured children could enhance knowledge of their culture, traditions, group pride and group attitudes (Van Schalkwyk, 1982: 179).

2.9.3.6 Compulsory education

There were no obligatory measures for the Coloureds in the Cape to attend school. By 1925 progress in Coloured education was "painfully slow" (Behr, 1984: 237). Thus, the remark from the superintendent of education Dr W J Viljoen, as found in Behr & MacMillan (1971: 418) "With good fortune the most the average Coloured child can secure is three or four years education, and this is very inadequate equipment for life".

In Natal, education; including education for the Coloureds became free in Government schools from 1918 and by 1948 it was extended to Standard VIII up to Standard X. Fees were still charged in state-aid schools to supplement the Provincial grant-in-aid. The cost per child in 1964 was R1.90 in Standard VI up to Standard X (Horrel, 1970: 84).

The Natal Provincial Education Department has applied compulsory school attendance for Coloured between the age of seven and fifteen since 1942 (Vos and Barnard, 1984: 111).

There was no compulsory education for Coloured pupils in the Orange Free State (Horrel, 1970: 86).

2.9.4 Technical and vocational education for the Coloured in the Cape, Transvaal, Natal and the Orange Free State 1910-1963

2.9.4.1 The Cape

Technical and vocational training facilities in the Cape were limited during this period. In 1925 the Cape Technical College opened a special centre at which building and engineering trade instruction was given to Coloured apprentices. Other courses were introduced later, when a Coloured branch of the College was established in Roeland Street. The enrollment in 1950 was 1 030 and 20 Coloured apprentices were attending similar classes, run by the Kimberley Technical College in the same year (Horrel, 1970: 50).

By 1961 there were nine state-aided vocational schools. According to the survey conducted then, four of these schools taught dress-making, and domestic science. St. Joseph's at Aliwal North provided pre-apprenticeship training in the building, furniture, carpentry and engineering trades (Horrel, 1970:61-62).

2.9.4.2 The Transvaal

For a time the Witwatersrand Technical College conducted part-time classes for non-white youth and it made funds available to erect a permanent building in which vocational and technical subjects could be taught (Horrel, 1970: 79-80).

2.9.4.3 Natal

By 1948, the Natal Technical College was conducting segregated classes for Coloured students in dress-making and commercial as well as certain technical subjects leading to the National Technical Certificate (Horrel, 1970: 69).

2.9.4.4 The OFS

By 1963, mainly because of the limited demand, there were no nursery schools, special schools, technical or vocational classes for Coloureds in the Free State. As elsewhere, those who succeeded in matriculating in approved subjects could enroll for correspondence courses with the University of South Africa, situated in Pretoria (Horrel, 1970: 84).

2.9.5 Special education for the Coloured in the Cape, Transvaal, Natal and the OFS (1910-1963)

2.9.5.1 Introduction

The term special education refers to education of specialised nature given to handicapped children to suit the needs of the handicapped children and includes general cultural education, vocational guidance, vocational education and medical, dental and mental examination and treatment, as well as care in a hostel, when provided, for such children (Behr, 1984: 108).

2.9.5.2 Control and administration

Although the existence of facilities for special education for han-

dicapped Coloured children dates back from 1863, and the erection of special state schools was provided by Coloured Education Act, 1963 (Act no. 47 of 1963), all the educational institutions for physically and neurologically handicapped children have been established by charitable and church organisations (Behr, 1988: 133).

The Grimeley Institute for the Deaf and Dumb in Cape Town admitted both Coloured and European children (Behr & MacMillan, 1966: 276). Later three state-aided special schools existed. They were the Dominican school for the Deaf at Wittebome, Cape Town, and Worcester schools, where boys were taught tailoring, shoe-repairing, leather work or agriculture and girls were taught domestic sciences.

2.9.5.3 Accommodation and enrollment

Between 1945-1950 the survey of children in schools, between 7 and 18 years of age with handicaps showed the following figures as illustrated in Table 2.5.

TABLE 2.5: Children between 7 and 18 years with physical handicaps (Behr, 1988: 124)

Category	White	Coloured	Indians
Blind	363	155	51
Partially sighted	1 000	220	66
Deaf	1 071	340	120
Hard of hearing	3 617	3 020	160
Epileptic	1 200	254	59
Seech defect	6 666	8 000	1 400
Cripples	2 900	1 100	160

Table 2.6 gives an overview of the situation of state-aided special schools for non-Whites (Coloureds included) in the RSA by 1950.

TABLE 2.6: State-aided schools for non-White persons (Behr, 1988: 124)

Type of handicap	Name of School	Average enrollment
Blindness	Athlone school-Belville	188
Deafness	Worcester school for the deaf	107
Deafness	Dominican, Wittebome	206

2.9.6 *Children's Act Schools*

In all the four provinces, by 1955, 548 Coloured boys were taught at schools of industry and 637 were at Reformatory schools (Horrel, 1970: 50).

2.9.7 *Teacher training in the Cape, Transvaal, Natal and the OFS 1910-1963*

2.9.7.1 The Cape

By 1922 there were four training colleges, i.e. Zonnebloem in Cape Town and Perseverance in Kimberley, both under the supervision for the Anglican Church; Wesley College in Salt River, under the control of the Wesleyan Methodist Church; and the Dower Memorial College in Uitenhage, under the control of the Congregational Church. These four institutions were at the time training some 300 Coloured teachers.

In 1923 the Cape Education Department published regulations in connection with the training of Coloured teachers. Three courses of training were provided, viz.

- * a three-year course after Std 6 for the Coloured Primary Teachers' Lower Certificate;
- * a two-year course after Std 8 for the Coloured Primary Teachers' Higher Certificate;

- * a one-year course for specialist teachers in infant schools. The last-named course was open only to female teachers in possession of the Coloured Primary Teachers' Certificate. These courses were introduced in the years 1924-29 (Behr, 1984: 225).

In its general arrangement the Coloured Primary Teachers' Certificate course resembled the corresponding course for Black teachers, but in content the two courses differed considerably. The first year was spent entirely on improving the students' academic background, with particular emphasis on the two official languages. Much attention was also given to manual and industrial training, and to instruction in elementary science and in physiology and hygiene. The regulations for the training of Coloured teachers were amended in 1936 and again in 1942, when the possession of a Junior Certificate (Std 8) was laid down as the minimum entrance requirement.

A post-senior certificate training course for primary school teachers was started in 1943 and by 1957 all teacher training courses for Coloureds which fell under the Cape Education Department were revised and all post-senior certificate course were placed on an equal footing with those for whites (Behr, 1988: 170).

In 1963 when the Coloured Education was taken over by the central Government, there were three courses of training teachers offered at eight training schools and two training colleges. The training schools offered a primary teacher's course of two year's duration after standard 8 for work in the lower primary classes while the training colleges offered a primary teachers course of two year's duration after standard 10 for working in the higher primary classes. For practising teachers, a higher primary teacher's specialisation course of one year's duration was also offered.

Concerning the training of teachers for secondary schools falling under the Cape Education Department, no specific facilities were made available. Coloured students falling in this category could enroll either at the University of Cape Town or the University of South Africa. In 1953 already 275 Coloured students were enrolled at the training colleges and 1 016 attended at the training schools.

Coloured students could be admitted to the University of Cape Town for training as secondary school teachers. By 1953, 275 Coloured students were at the training colleges and 1 016 at the training schools (Horrel, 1970: 45).

2.9.7.2 The Transvaal

In the Transvaal a start was made only in 1919 with the training of Coloured and Indian teachers in Johannesburg. Prior to that, no separate provision was made in this regard instead Coloured and Indian students were required to take the same examinations as were required for White students. The first eight non-White candidates to present themselves for teacher training examinations did that in 1922. The examinations were for the acquisition of a third Class Teacher's Certificate or T3 as it was called. None of the eight candidates passed these examinations and when the course was preserved until 1924, only one candidate was successful. Because of this low pass rate, it was then decided to introduce a Primary Teacher's Lower Certificate Examination for the Coloureds.

A new approach in the training of teachers for Coloured and Indian primary schools; was adopted in 1935 when the Transvaal Education Department instituted its own course which it referred to as the Transvaal Coloured and Indian Teacher's Certificate with standard 8 as the admission requirement. The system was developed further, when in 1941 a new course; the Transvaal Coloured and Indian Higher Certificate with standard 10 as admission requirement, was instituted. With the advent a policy of separate development, a separate training College for Indians was established in Johannesburg in 1954. By the time when the Coloured and Indian education was taken over by the Central Government in 1963, these students were following courses similar to the courses followed at training Colleges for Whites (Behr, 1988: 171).

2.9.7.3 Natal

Natal did not begin to train Coloured teachers until the 1930's.

The following courses were offered in 1950:

- Natal Teacher's Senior Certificate: A two years' teachers course with standard 8 as admission requirement
- Natal Teacher's Diploma: A two years' teachers course with standard 10 as admission requirement
- Natal Teacher's Senior Diploma: Three years' post-Senior Certificate training course.
- In 1960, 29 Coloured students were training for the Teacher's Senior Certificate, and 31 for the Teacher's Diploma. At the end of 1961, 8 passed the former, and 13 the latter, examination (Horrel, 1970: 70-71).

2.9.7.4 The OFS

In June 1935 there were 38 teachers employed in Coloured schools (including one white person); this represented an average of about two per school. By 1946 the number of Coloured teachers had grown to 74, including 51 men. Figures for 1960 show a reasonable increase in numbers in that there were, 32 Coloured principals and 133 assistant teachers. All of these qualified Coloured teachers had been trained in other provinces. It was only in 1960 that the Free State Education Department began training Coloured students to conduct primary classes through medium of Afrikaans. The first course commenced with ten students (Horrel, 1970: 83-84).

The availability of training colleges for the training of Coloured teachers was important because this facilitated the implementation differentiated education for the Coloured.

2.9.8 *Evaluation of the School system for the Coloured in the RSA from 1910-1963 using criteria for differentiation*

In this section the school system for the Coloured, as established

from 1910 up to 1963, shall be evaluated to determine whether or not provision was made for differentiated education. In order to do this effectively, use will be made of the criteria for differentiation (cf. 2.7). The purpose is to determine whether or not the Coloured education system was designed to cater for the needs of individual on grounds for differentiation.

Provision on grounds of

- SEX

At technical schools provision was made for subjects more in keeping with the nature and ability of boys or girls respectively. In Transvaal, Natal and the Cape, girls were taught domestic science and dressmaking while boys followed courses such as carpentry and building.

- APTITUDE

Provision was made to accommodate particular aptitudes of the young (cf. 2.9.4.1). For example horizontal differentiation was applied by offering a wide variety of subjects during apprenticeship training like engineering trade, building, and furniture carpentry to be chosen according to the individual's aptitude.

- INTEREST

Provision was made for this criteria though in a limited scale in that different types of schools which were established i.e. academic, technical, trade, agricultural and commercial (cf. 2.9.4). Members of the Coloured community could, through this provision, choose schools for their children on grounds of their interest.

- AGE AND LEVEL OF DEVELOPMENT

Provision has been made on grounds of this criteria (cf 2.9.3).

In all the four provinces of South Africa, there have been Coloured schools in the primary and secondary schools.

▪ ABNORMALITIES

** *Deaf, Blindness*

Provision was made in this regard. The following schools existed by 1938, i.e. Athlone school for the Blind and Dominican school for the Deaf (cf. Table 2.6).

** *Pedagogically neglected or Behaviorally deviant children*

Children who fell under this category were being catered for. They were either sent to schools of industry or reformatories (cf. 2.9.6).

2.10 Summary

It has been lucidly demonstrated that the following issues have been addressed in this chapter:

- The necessity for providing differentiated education for the development of a balanced human being.
- The views on differentiated education and differentiated teaching.
- The meaning of educational planning for differentiated education.
- The techniques for differentiation.
- The types of differentiation.
- Criteria for provision of differentiated education.

- The historical development of the school system for the Coloured 1910-1963 in the Cape, Transvaal, Natal and Orange Free State.
- Evaluation of the school system for the Coloured in the RSA from 1910-1963 using criteria for differentiation.

In the following chapter, attention will be given to the development of the school system for the Coloured from 1964 up to 1990 in pre-primary and primary schools. The basic aim is to determine if differentiation was provided in the school system for the Coloured, or not.

CHAPTER 3

CURRENT PROVISION OF DIFFERENTIATED EDUCATION IN THE PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter attention is focussed on the present provision of differentiation in the pre-primary and primary school system for the Coloured.

The aim is to determine and ascertain whether the pre-primary and primary school system for the Coloured catered for the diverse differences of individual aptitudes, abilities and interests.

The next section will focus on the evaluation of the pre-primary and primary school system for the Coloured using criteria for differentiation to determine whether or not the Coloured school system was planned to cater for the individual differences of aptitude, ability and interest.

3.2 The take-over and developments in the Coloured education - period 1964-1990

3.2.1 *Transfer of control of Coloured education in 1964 and its implication for differentiation*

In 1963 the South African government decided to transfer the education of the Coloured people from the control of the provinces to the Department of Coloured Affairs (Filander, 1977: 60).

In 1963 the Coloured Persons Education Act, 1963 (Act no. 47 of 1963) was adopted by parliament and Coloured education was transferred from the provinces to the Department of Coloured Affairs (Behr, 1984: 239).

A division of Education was created in this department and the minister of Coloured Affairs was responsible for all matters pertaining to education (Filander, 1977: 93).

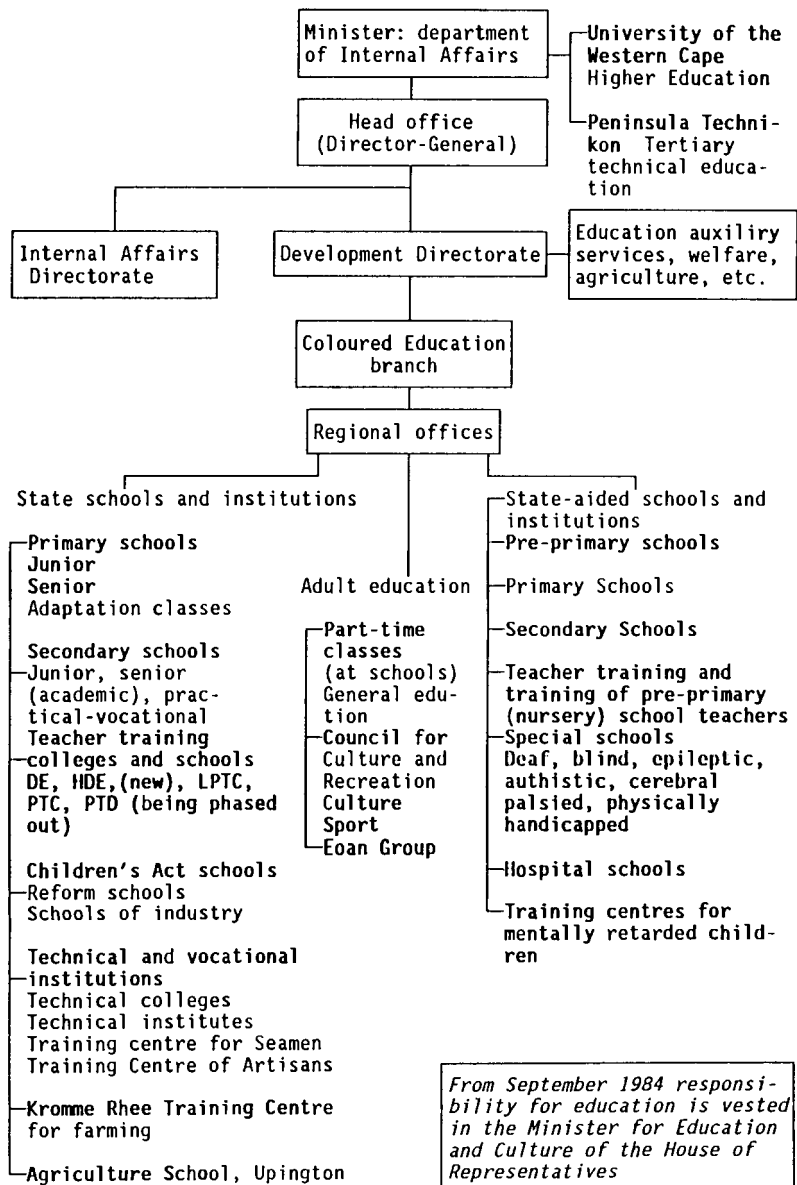
3.2.2 Organisation and control

In 1968 the Coloured Person Representative Council Act of 1968 was passed. The matters which were the responsibility of the Council (i.e. CPRC) related to finance, local government, community welfare and pensions, rural settlements, agriculture and education. The Council was in constant conflict with the Central Government and was disbanded on 31 March 1980.

The powers and functions of the CPRC were then taken over by the Minister of Internal Affairs in terms of the Coloured Persons Council Application Act, 1982 (Act no. 36 of 1982) (Behr, 1984: 241).

The organisation and control structure depicting the control of Coloured education as in 1983 is given in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Organisation structure of the sub-system of Coloured Education 1983 (Behr, 1984: 242)



As an outcome of this new legislation, 1 800 schools, 12 000 teachers and 347 000 pupils came under the jurisdiction of the Department of Coloured Affairs (Behr, 1984: 239).

3.2.3 *Pre-Primary education*

3.2.3.1 Introduction

Pre-primary education normally refers to the education offered to infants between the ages of three and six years. It must be distinguished from the crèche which is concerned only with the physical care and safe-keeping of young children while working parents are elsewhere engaged (Department of Internal affairs, 1981: 4).

3.2.3.2 Control

The provision of pre-primary education for Coloured children was in the hand of private enterprise. Churches, welfare and other organisations have been encouraged to establish nursery schools (now called pre-primary schools), and wherever possible to link them to crèches. At present, pre-school education is a voluntary community service undertaken by certain private concerns such as the Early Training Centre in Athlone (Vos & Brits, 1987: 101).

The Coloured Persons Education Amendment Act, 1983 (Act no. 85 of 1983) makes provision for the establishment and subsidisation of pre-primary schools for persons above the age of three years but who have not yet attained the age at which regular attendance at an ordinary school is compulsory (Behr, 1984: 248).

3.2.3.3 Financing

All schools that are exclusively nursery or pre-primary schools function as private schools, which are subsidised by the Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives). In 1980 the subsidies paid amounted to R262 710-00 (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 4). At present the state subsidise these institutions

by providing a per capita grant (Behr, 1984: 241).

3.2.3.4 The Aim

Pre-primary education refers to adapted activities designed and conducted to meet the educational needs of those who have already outgrown their early infancy, but have not yet reached school going age. It applies to education offered to infants between the ages of three and six years, and must be clearly distinguished from the junior primary education given at the ordinary primary school. On the other hand, the pre-primary school must also be distinguished from the crèche, which is concerned only with the physical care and safe-keeping of young children while their working parents are elsewhere engaged (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981:4). Teaching at this centres is in the form of play. The children are divided into ability groups and each group is allocated a particular colour for identification.

3.2.3.5 Accommodation and enrollment

In 1982 there were 92 subsidised pre-school centres for Coloureds: 81 in the Cape Province, seven in Natal, three in Transvaal and one in the Orange Free State (Vos & Brits, 1987: 101).

Table 3.2 indicates the increase in the numbers of children in pre-primary schools by the 1990's.

Table 3.2: Headcount of Pupils according to Population Group, sex and level of Education for 1990 (Department of National Education, 1990: 152).

POPULATION GROUP AND SEX	Pre-primary
Whites T	46 079
M	23 789
/F	22 290
*****	*****
Indians T	12 681
M	6 387
/F	6 294
*****	*****
Coloureds	
T	6 747
M	3 326
/F	3 421

3.2.3.6 Teachers

The training of teachers for pre-primary classes was, and still is, taken care of by the Athlone Training Centre for Nursery School Teachers. Although this is a private institution, it is subsidised by the Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives). The syllabuses presently followed in the course of training for the different subjects were drawn up in collaboration with the Department of Internal Affairs (Coloured Affairs) and Barkly House College of the Cape Education Department. From 1963 to 1980 a total of 256 students completed this course (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 21). The training period extends over a period of two years (Behr, 1984: 249).

The improvement in the training of pre-primary teachers can be clearly analysed from the information provided by Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3: Pre-primary education staff (South Africa (Republic), 1980:
17)**

By qualification, sex and type of institution

Type of institution by control of pre-primary school	T O T A L	With pre-primary teacher's diploma			Without pre-primary teacher's diploma		
		Non-graduate			Non-graduate		Graduate
		Without additional diploma	With additional diploma		Without other diploma	Without other diploma(s)	
		M I V-F	M I V-F	M I V-F	M I V-F	M I V-F	M I V-F
TEACHERS							
Pre-primary schools							
State	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Private							
State	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
controlled							
State subsidised	135	1	44	-	5	3	73
							9
Other private	35	-	5	-	1	-	24
							5
Pre-primary schools- cum-crèches							
Private							
state controlled	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
State subsidised	156	-	57	-	10	4	64
							21
Other private	14	-	7	-	-	-	6
							1
TOTAL	340	1	113	-	16	7	167
							36

3.2.3.7 Evaluation of differentiation in pre-primary education

- *Difference of sex*

In the pre-primary schools no differentiation on ground of sex is provided since both sexes are catered for at the same schools.

- *Differences of aptitude and abilities*

All children are given opportunities to learn at their own pace, i.e. at the level of his own mental ability. This shows that the children's aptitude and abilities are catered for.

- *Differences of interest*

At this level children are provided with opportunities to reveal their interest but no special differentiation is catered for.

- *Differences of age and level of development*

Random play activities help children to develop and learn according to their mental age. The teaching aims at helping the child to cope with material that is suitable to his age and level of development.

3.2.4 *Primary education*

3.2.4.1 The introduction of differentiated education for Coloured children - a new development

It was only in 1967 that differentiated education was introduced in South Africa. Education Act, 1967 (Act no. 39 of 1967) proclaimed that the education for Whites in the Republic of South Africa should be differentiated. Although this act is concerned with the education for the Whites in South Africa, the main basic principles have spilled over into non-White education (Behr, 1984: 241).

The Director of Education, Administration of Coloured Affairs, Mr Theron, had the following to say as regards differentiated education for Coloureds during an interview in Cape Town on 13 July 1980 (Van Schalkwyk, 1988: 183)

"Die Departement van Kleurlingsake was al die ander onderwysdepartemente voor met die invoering van gedifferensieerde onderwys. In 1968 het ons begin met gedifferensieerde onderwys toe ander departemente nog glad nie daarvan gepraat het nie. Ons was ver voor op die gebied van gedifferensieerde onderwys, naamlik dat 'n kind onderwys moet ontvang volgens sy aanleg, sy vermoë, sy belangstellings."

Towards the end of 1972 the executive of the Coloured Person's Representative Council decided to adopt the four-phase system to meet the needs of the Coloured people (Behr, 1984: 241).

Table 3.4: The four-phase system (Behr, 1984: 243)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Years of schooling
Sub-Standard A	Sub-Standard B	Standard 1	Standard 2	Standard 3	Standard 4	Standard 5	Standard 6	Standard 7	Standard 8	Standard 9	Standard 10	Class
Junior primary	Senior Primary					Junior secondary			Senior Secondary		Phase	

The junior primary phase consisted of the two Substandard A and B. Standards 1 to 5 formed the senior primary phase. Although standard 5 was included in the senior primary phase, the syllabuses of the examination subjects were so adapted that pupils could easily proceed to standards 6 and 7 (Behr, 1984: 243).

3.2.4.2 The Aim

The aim of the Primary School Course is to provide the child with a broad general cultural and academic background. Basic skills necessary for life in a modern, civilised, literate and industrialised society are taught (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 7). This gives all children opportunity to receive basic education before differentiation can be applied.

3.2.4.3 The Curriculum

The new syllabus was introduced in classes from sub-standard A to standard II in 1968 and from standard III to V in 1969. The approach is that the children are divided into ability groups and the teacher must determine the potential of each child (MacDillion, 1992).

There is no differentiation as far as the official structure and content of the course is concerned, except in the case of adaptation classes and classes for disabled children. The following curriculum is prescribed for normal children. The time allocated to each subject and subject section for the different standards is given in hours and minutes per week in Tables 3.5 and 3.6.

Table 3.5: The junior primary phase (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 9)

Subject	Sub-standard A	Sub-standard B	Standard I
Assembly	.30	.30	.30
Scripture	1.30	1.30	1.30
First Language	8.00	8.40	6.25
Second Language	-	1.30	4.40
Mathematics	8.20	4.00	4.40
Environment Study	1.15	1.15	2.30
Handwriting	1.40	1.40	1.40
Art	1.40	1.20	1.40
School Music	1.40	1.40	1.30
Health Education	1.15	.45	.45
Physical Education	1.10	1.10	1.10
<i>TOTAL</i>	22.00	24.00	27.00

Table 3.6: The senior primary phase (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 7)

Subject	Standard 2	Standard 3	Standard 4
Assembly	.30	.30	.30
Scripture	1.30	1.30	1.30
First Language	5.15	5.15	5.15
Second Language	4.40	4.40	4.40
Mathematics	4.40	4.40	4.40
General Science	1.10	1.30	1.30
History	1.00	1.10	1.10
Geography	1.00	1.10	1.10
Basic Handicraft or Needlework	1.45	1.45	1.45
Art	1.00	1.00	1.00
School Music	1.00	1.00	1.00
Handwriting	1.05	.30	.30
Health Education	.40	.35	.35
Physical Education	1.10	1.10	1.10
Book education	.35	.35	.35
<i>TOTAL</i>	27.00	27.00	27.00

It should, however be noted that differentiation on grounds of sex was applied when dealing with subjects like needlework, handicraft and Physical education. Here class-groups were divided according to sex, i.e girls are engaged in needlework whereas boys are put in separate groups for handicraft. In physical education too there are always groups for boys separate from groups for girls (MacDillion, 1992).

3.2.4.4 Types of Primary schools

3.2.4.4.1 State-aided schools

The long established tradition of church involvement in the education of Coloureds has remained. State-aided church schools still make an important contribution in sparsely populated rural areas where numerous small schools bring primary education within reach of all children. On application to, and reimbursement by the Department of Internal Affairs, state-aided schools may be taken over as state schools.

State aid to schools covers all expenditure in respect of salaries of teachers, rental for the use of church premises for educational purposes, the upkeep of buildings, books, equipment and services.

The Coloured Persons Education Amendment Act, 1983 (Act no. 85 of 1983) enables the Minister to make grants-in-aid and loans to the governing body of any college, school, home or continuation classes for the education of Coloured persons, including any pre-primary school, or any hostel for the accommodation of Coloured persons to whom education is provided out of funds appropriated by Parliament (Behr, 1984: 247).

An indication of the role that state-aided (church) schools have continued to play since the implementation of the Coloured Persons Education Act of 1963 can be obtained from a perusal of Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Number of state and state-aided schools in Coloured education, 1964-1981 (South Africa (Republic), 1983c: 693)

Year	<i>Schools</i>		<i>Pupils</i>	
	State	State-aided	State	State-aided
1964	366	1 377	164 831	221 901
1975	660	1 271	429 888	207 265
1981	821	1 174	579 895	173 967

3.2.4.4.2 Private schools

According to Behr (1984: 248) the Coloured Persons Education Amendment Act, 1983 (Act no. 85 of 1983) states the following about Private schools, namely:

"No Persons shall, except at a State school, a State-aided school, a school of industries, a reform school or a school which in terms of any law is registered as a private school with any other department of State or with a provincial administration and authorised to admit Coloured persons or through a correspondence college registered in

terms of Section 11 of the Correspondence Colleges Act, 1965 (Act No. 59 of 1965), provide for rewarding of education to Coloured persons."

3.2.4.4.3 Children's Act schools

Children at these schools are sent there by a magistrate in terms of the Children's Act, 1960 (Act no. 33 of 1960) (cf. 2.7.9). There are two categories of this type, i.e schools of Industry and Reformatory schools (cf. Table 4.3). In 1980, there were 1,429 Coloured boys and 252 girls in the Children's Act Schools in RSA .

3.2.4.4.4 Hospital and Clinic Schools

These are type of schools that are managed by hospitals or convalescent homes to provide primary education for children of school-going age who have been admitted to the hospital and are in isolation for at least three months. By 1980 there were 136 Coloured boys and 102 girls taken care of at these schools (Lubbe and Engelbrecht, 1981: 262). Care and provision of any kind of education at these schools depend on availability of funds (Masher, 1990).

3.2.4.4.5 Special Schools

These are schools which have been established by charitable organisations and churches. The following handicaps were catered for by 1975 (Behr, 1978: 222):

- * Blindness
- * Deafness
- * Epilepsy
- * Cerebral

3.2.4.5 Accommodation and Enrollment

Although the number of Coloured children who complete the full 12 years of schooling is still small (about one out of ten), there is a

marked and sustained increase in the retention rate (Behr 1984: 245).

Table 3.8 clearly depicts the increase in numbers and this meant that more opportunities for Coloured children were created for the implementation of differentiated education.

Table 3.8: Headcount of pupils according to Population group, sex and level of Education for 1990 (Department of National Education, 1990: 152)

POPULATION GROUP AND SEX	LEVEL OF EDUCATION GRD 1 - STD 5							TOTAL
	Grd 1	Grd 2	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	
Whites T	80 473	76 548	73 127	70 639	68 188	67 532	67 941	504 448
M	41 622	39 002	37 253	35 851	34 743	34 393	34 179	298 665
F	38 851	37 546	35 874	34 788	33 445	33 139	33 762	247 405
*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****
Indians T	21 440	20 797	19 831	19 382	19 641	19 521	19 178	139 790
M	10 916	10 600	10 101	9 759	9 954	9 812	9 672	70 814
F	10 524	9 730	9 730	9 623	9 687	9 709	9 506	68 509
*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****
Coloureds								
T	106 089	99 643	92 520	84 225	79 787	74 412	69 976	606 652
M	55 046	51 358	46 917	42 973	39 944	36 942	34 075	307 255
F	51 043	48 285	45 603	41 252	39 843	37 470	35 901	299 397

3.2.4.6 Compulsory education

In 1964 by the time of the transfer of Coloured education from the provincial education departments to a central government department (i.e the Department of Coloured Affairs), compulsory school attendance was applied only in Natal and in certain areas in the Cape Province. These were the areas surrounding the towns of Alice, King Williams Town, Keiskammahoek, Cradock, Simonstown and Kimberley (Behr, 1978: 214).

A decision was however taken to institute compulsory school attendance at all Coloured schools in the RSA with effect from 1st January 1974 beginning with seven-year-olds. Compulsory school attendance was to be progressively extended as indicated in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Scheme for the introduction of Compulsory School Attendance in Coloured Education (Behr, 1978: 215)

Age Group	Year of Introduction
7 year olds	1974
7 and 8 year olds	1975
7, 8 and 9 year olds	1976
7, 8, 9 and 10 year olds	1977
7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 year olds	1978
7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 year olds	1979
7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13 year olds	1980
7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 year olds	1981

As from 1983 the provision in respect of compulsory school attendance has been reformulated in the Coloured Persons Education Amendment Act, 1983 (Act no. 85 of 1983). Behr (1984: 246) interpret the act as follows:

- If the Minister is satisfied that sufficient and suitable school accommodation is available he may by notice in the Gazette declare that regular attendance at such kind of school as may be specified in such notice shall, to such extent and under such circumstances as may be so specified, be compulsory for every

Coloured person belonging to a category or class so specified.

- If a parent or guardian or the person having the custody or charge of any person who by virtue of the provisions of subsections (1) is required to attend a school regularly, after a period of six months from the date of the notice referred to in that subsection fails, without reasonable cause and after a written warning by the Department, to cause such person to attend an appropriate school regularly, he shall be guilty of offense and liable on conviction to a fine not exceeding R25 or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding one month on conviction of a first offense or to a fine not exceeding R100 or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding two months on conviction of a second subsequent offense.

Truancy officers have been appointed to ensure that pupils who are subject to compulsory school attendance do in fact attend school regularly, and legal action has been taken against parents of offending pupils (Behr, 1984: 246). Though this is the case, the regulation is not strictly adhered to and not all Coloured children go to primary schools (MacDillion, 1992).

From the above it is clear that continued government attempts were made to get many, if not all Coloured children through primary education. This meant that more opportunities were made available for Coloured pupils to be exposed to differentiated education and in this way their talents and potentialities were discovered.

3.2.4.7 Drop-out and retention rates

The high drop-out rate among Coloured children has continued to be a disconcerting phenomenon. Of the 412 000 pupils who had enrolled in the primary schools at the beginning of 1968 more than 6 000 dropped out in the course of the year. The attempts to alleviate this problem was made by introducing adaptation classes for retarded pupils and slow learners (Behr, 1978: 217). This hinders the effective implementation of differentiated education because a lot of talent gets lost.

The drop-out rates of pupils from primary school in the years 1971-1972 and those of a decade later, 1980-1981, are given in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Drop-out from primary school during the years, 1971-1981 (Substandard A - Standard 5) (Behr, 1984: 245)

	1971	1972	1980	1981
Enrollment 1st term	470 789	490 179	613 931	611 513
Enrollment 4th term	451 911	471 489	594 410	594 887
Drop-out	18 878	18 690	19 521	16 626
Percentage drop-out	4,01	3,81	3,18	2,72

3.2.4.8 Medium of Instruction

The Coloured Persons Education Act empowered the Minister to make regulations dealing with the medium of instruction which as far as possible must be the child's home language. If any child appeared to the authorities to be equally fluent in both official languages, however, the parents would have the right of choice (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 27).

Regulations issued under the Act stipulate that the home language must be used as medium throughout any school, except for the second official language, which must as far as possible be used for teaching that language (this is compulsory after Standard VI).

If the home language of at least 15 pupils in a primary class, or of at least 10 in a post-primary class, differs from that of the rest, parallel classes must be arranged. Otherwise, to cater for the needs of smaller numbers, teachers must be employed who are qualified to instruct through both media (MacDillion, 1992).

3.2.4.9 Examinations

In the junior primary classes the pupils' progress is measured continuously in the course of instruction as well as through regular tests.

A pupil is promoted or failed on the basis of his progress, which becomes evident in this way. In the senior primary phase examinations are usually conducted in June, September and November and a child is promoted or failed on the ground of his achievement in these examinations. Examinations and promotions are supervised by the principal and controlled by the circuit inspector of education.

The standard of work done in the primary school is measured by means of a system of guidelines and control exercised by a body of inspectors of education and inspectors of special subjects (MacDillion, 1992). This is good for differentiated education because for it to be effectively practiced, there should be strict maintenance of good standards.

3.2.4.10 Teachers

There is an acute problem with regards to the professional qualification of Coloured primary teachers. In comparison with the number of White teachers the Coloureds rank low.

Sadly so is the situation among Coloured teachers, and such a situation is not desirable because it hampers the application of differentiated education. Table 3.11 clearly shows the imbalance in the professional qualification of various groups of teachers, by 1989.

Table 3.11: Primary school teachers qualification according to population group in 1989 (Du Plessis et al, 1989: 19)

Population Group	WITHOUT PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS				Total
	Std 8 & lower	Technical Certificate	Std 10	Degree	
Blacks	6 762	582	15 398	71	22 813
Coloureds	368	3	744	44	1 159
Asians	0	1	0		12

Table 3.11 CONTINUE

WITH PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS								
Population Group	Std 6	Std 8	Tech cert	Standard 10			Degree	Total
				+PTC	+2yrs	+3yrs		
Blacks	6 059	38 196	4	41 064	934	17 012	828	104 097
Coloureds	31	7 015	10	4 180	2 160	8 845	502	22 743
Asians	0	0	1	83	29	3 745	1 870	5 728

This shortage of professionally qualified teachers hampers the application of differentiated education. Because it deals mainly with the individual child, it is imperative that for its successful implementation, suitably qualified teachers should be available.

3.2.4.11 School Guidance

The successful implementation of differentiated education depends on adequate guidance being given to pupils in their choice of subjects (Behr, 1984: 246).

In consultation with the psychological services (instituted in 1964) at least one teacher in each school is assigned the task of giving this guidance. A shortage of trained teachers to undertake this work has been a limiting factor. However, specialist training in school guidance is being provided at the University of the Western Cape for students who have taken Psychology as a subject in their course (Jettoo, 1989).

School Guidance has since 1974 been a compulsory subject in the curriculum from Standard 5 to Standard 10. In 1982 the HSRC brought out a report on the state of guidance in Coloured schools.

To facilitate guidance, a battery of aptitude, scholastic, intelligence and personality tests, compiled by the HSRC and standardised for Coloured children, has been put into use. Most of these tests are used with pupils in Standard 4, 6 and 8 (Behr, 1984: 247).

The subject Guidance is definitely helpful because it provides an opportunity for the teacher to develop the child in totality and help the teacher to advise the child on future careers (MacDillion, 1992).

3.2.4.12 Special education

3.2.4.12.1 Introduction

In 1961, following the establishment of the Department of Coloured Affairs in terms of legislation adopted in 1958, special education for Coloureds became the responsibility of that Department, and was subsequently administered in terms of the Coloured Persons Education Act, 1963 (Act no. 47 of 1963) (Behr, 1988: 125).

Although the existence of facilities for specialised education for handicapped Coloured children dates from 1963, all educational institutions for physical and neurologically handicapped children have been established by charitable organisation and churches of various denominations (Behr, 1988: 133).

3.2.4.12.2 The Aim

A special school is a school in which handicapped and or mentally retarded children receive special education, either on a full time or part time basis (Behr, 1988: 133).

3.2.4.12.3 Financing

The state provides for maintenance by means of liberal subsidies. According to Behr (1984: 247) in general the state provides:

- the full salaries of approved staff;
- all expenditure incurred in respect of books and other educational equipment;
- 90 % of the cost of buildings and ground; and
- 75 % of other approved expenditure.

3.2.4.12.4 Accommodation and enrollment

Table 3.12 shows that an attempt was made to provide special education for the Coloured by 1968 already.

Table 3.12: List of special schools for handicapped Coloured children during the fourth term of 1968 (Behr, 1988: 126)

Name of School	Enrollment
Athlone school for <i>Blind</i> , Belville	148
Dominican school for the <i>Deaf</i> , Wittebome	318
School for the <i>Coloured Deaf</i> , Worcester	239
School for the <i>Coloured Epileptics</i> , Worcester	49

In Table 3.13 it becomes clear enough what achievements were made regarding provision for differentiation on grounds of abilities and abnormalities.

Table 3.13: Special School education enrollment of pupils according to Education Department, sex and level of development (Department of National Education, 1990: 25)

POPULATION GROUP AND SEX	Pre-primary	LEVEL OF EDUCATION GRD 1 - STD 5							TOTAL
		Grd 1	Grd 2	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	
Whites T	1 048	543	550	700	695	745	712	726	<i>Next Table</i>
M	649	361	395	511	491	558	510	522	
/F	399	182	155	189	204	187	202	204	
Indians T	4	648	671	709	640	519	233	175	
M	3	376	399	435	416	306	129	108	
/F	1	272	272	274	224	213	104	67	
Coloureds T	299	567	536	561	607	591	456	484	
M	168	375	373	405	466	452	313	305	
/F	131	192	163	156	141	139	143	179	
Blacks T	707	649	588	546	456	413	278	252	
M	405	393	371	336	272	251	164	160	
/F	302	256	217	210	184	162	114	92	

Table 3.13 CONTINUE

POPULATION GROUP AND SEX	LEVEL OF EDUCATION STD 6 - STD 10 and other							TOTAL
	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10	Special education	Other	
Whites T	742	851	934	613	575	5 298	74	14 806
M	497	548	616	373	334	3 175	566	9 596
/F	245	303	318	240	241	2 123	18	5 210
Indians T	117	113	114	103	11	1 585	4	5 646
M	70	71	69	64	5	984	4	3 439
/F	47	42	45	39	6	601	-	2 207
Coloureds T	314	214	102	63	34	239	1 741	6 808
M	233	147	51	32	12	162	1 096	4 590
/F	81	67	51	31	22	77	645	2 218
Blacks T	172	128	80	79	50	1	2 865	7 264
M	93	75	46	39	33	1	1 675	4 314
/F	79	53	34	40	17	-	1 190	2 950

3.2.4.13 Evaluation of differentiation in primary education

The following paragraph is an attempt to evaluate the current Coloured primary schools in order to determine whether or not differentiation was offered.

* *Differentiation of sex*

There is differentiation on ground of sex. Children of both sexes are required to take certain subjects in separate groups, since certain subjects are suitable for boys and others for girls (cf. 3.2.4.3).

* *Differences in aptitude and abilities*

Children are divided into ability groups. In this way differentiation is mainly in the presentation of the subject matter in a manner to allow individual children to work according to their own abilities. Various subjects are taught and that allows for pupils to develop a good foundation for choice of subjects in senior secondary schools (cf. 3.2.4.3).

• *Difference of age and level of development*

There is observance of difference of age because the syllabi are designed for the various level of the four school phases, i.e. junior primary and senior primary (cf. Table 3.4). For various phases the syllabi and curriculum were so adapted to link up readily with subsequent phases. Up to standard 5 the main objective is to develop basic skills and continuation to the next phase. Adaptation classes for primary schools were in existence from 1968, (cf. 3.2.4.9) and to be sent to such classes, age was considered (Behr, 1984: 244).

• *Differences of interest*

At primary school level, limited consideration is taken of choice of subjects. However, from 1982 a battery of aptitude, scholastic, intelligence and personality tests compiled by the HSRC and standardised for Coloured children has been put in use (cf. 3.2.4.11). Most of these tests are used with pupils in standards 4, 6 and 8 (Behr, 1984: 247).

• *Abnormalities*

The previous paragraphs on special education have clearly and categorically outlined how Coloured primary education consider abnormalities among school pupils. Table 3.13 indicated to the provision made in this regard. In addition, adaptation classes for retarded pupils and slow learners were introduced (cf. 3.2.4.7).

3.3 Summary

Chapter III was aimed at giving a detailed account of the position with regards to the present provision of differentiated education in the pre-primary and primary schools for Coloureds in the RSA.

In the pre-primary and primary sections the following aspects were looked into i.e. the transfer of control of Coloured education in 1964, organisation and control, financing, the aims, curriculum, en-

rollment types of primary schools, teachers, compulsory education, drop-out and retention rates, medium of instruction, examinations school guidance, special education and evaluation of differentiation in both levels.

All this information is important in order to arrive at a correct analysis of the topic under research.

In chapter IV an attempt will be made to study in detail the present position with regard to differentiation in Coloured secondary schools.

CHAPTER 4

CURRENT PROVISION OF DIFFERENTIATED EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on differentiation made available for the Coloured in the secondary schools.

4.2 Secondary education - orientation

According to the four-phase system applied in Coloured education, Secondary education was divided into Junior secondary and Senior secondary phase (Behr, 1984: 247).

In both phases differentiated courses provide for the following fields of study viz academic, technical, commercial, art, home economics, agriculture and general. The general or the "mixed" field comprises 4 or 5 academic and 1 or two practical or commercial subjects. A field of study can be pursued with or without Matriculation exemption in mind. The field other than academic are on the whole vocationally oriented. In std 7 the pupils is confronted with the decision of having to make a final choice in respect of subjects and field of study. By then his/her abilities, aptitudes and interest should have developed sufficiently for a suitable choice to be made (Behr, 1978: 214).

4.2.1 *The Junior Secondary course*

4.2.1.1 The Aim

The aim of the Junior Secondary Course is to build on the broad

foundation laid in the primary school and to provide further education of a general formative nature, which will provide for the transition between the senior primary phase and the senior secondary phase.

4.2.1.2 The Curriculum

The following subjects form the core of the curriculum: General Sciences, Biology, Mathematics, History and Geography. Pupils who want to obtain a Matriculation exemption later, must bear the requirements for this exemption in mind when choosing their subjects.

Religious Instruction, Class Music, Physical Education and Guidance are taken as non-examination subjects.

There is a handwork course for boys and its content and applicability varies according to the resources of the school concerned. It may include drawing, theory, practical metalwork, woodwork and plastics (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 8).

Guidance is another important subject. During the period set aside for guidance there are group discussions and personal interviews. If possible, a special orientator is appointed at each school (Hanekom, 1993a). Here more emphasis is on personal, social, family, and vocational guidance (MacDillon, 1992).

In this regard the school guidance service is of great importance. In a system of differentiated education, the school guidance service as a specialised educational auxiliary service, is of assistance in the junior secondary phase in identifying the pupil's particular personality pattern, scholastic abilities and interests (Behr, 1978: 214).

4.2.1.3 Examinations and standards

The Standard V examination is internal. Full-time students must write all their subjects at one set of examinations, but part-time and

private candidates may be allowed, if they wish, to write one or more subjects at a time (MacDillon, 1992).

Full-time students must obtain at least 33 1/3 per cent of the marks in each of the official languages, General Science or Mathematics, and on other subject; and must obtain an aggregate of least 40 per cent of the marks allocated to the official languages and three other subjects. Students who take the examination in stages require a 40 per cent pass in each subject (Horrel, 1970: 123).

A boy who wants to proceed to take a Technical Junior Certificate must obtain at least 33 1/3 per cent in handwork (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 9). The above mentioned subject are an indication of many opportunities available for differentiation.

4.2.2 *The Senior Secondary Course*

4.2.2.1 The Aim

The four-phase system of differentiated education culminates in the senior secondary school phase where differentiation reaches its fullest development (De Klerk, 1989).

This differentiation in the Senior Secondary course, is accomplished chiefly in two ways i.e. with the introduction of nine clearly defined courses of study. Differentiation takes place on a horizontal level and the pupil is given the opportunity of making subject choices and of receiving instruction in accordance with his aptitude and interest. Within the framework of each of these courses of study, differentiation also takes place vertically in the sense that a pupil may take subjects on either the Higher or the Standard Grade (Arends, 1989)

4.2.2.2 The Curriculum

The curriculum at this level include the following fields of study; that is, technical, commercial, agricultural, natural sciences, human sciences, art, general and vocationally directed fields (Jones, 1993).

Besides the following non-examination subjects, that is Scripture, Physical Education, School Music and Guidance, the following examination subjects are prescribed in the curriculum (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 10-11). Candidates are required to have passed in:

either

- i) At least four Senior or School leaving subjects including a minimum of one Higher Grade subject selected from the following groups: (At least three of the four subjects must have been passed at the same examination sitting)

GROUP A

Afrikaans First Language Higher Grade
English First Language Higher Grade

GROUP B

Mathematics Higher Grade

GROUP C

Biology Higher Grade
Physical Science Higher Grade
Physiology Higher Grade

GROUP D

Any African Language Higher Grade selected from Kwangali, Kwanyama, Loz, Ndonga, Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho, Swazi, Tsonga, Tswana, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu.
Arabic Higher Grade
French Higher Grade
German First Language Higher Grade
German Third Language Higher Grade
Hebrew Higher Grade

Italian Higher Grade
Latin Higher Grade
Portuguese Higher Grade
Spanish Higher Grade

GROUP E

Biblical studies Higher Grade
Economics Higher Grade
Geography Higher Grade (if not presented under Group F)
History Higher Grade

GROUP F

Accounting Higher Grade
Agricultural Science Higher Grade
Animal Husbandry Higher Grade
Art Higher Grade
Business Economics Higher Grade
Computer Studies Higher Grade
Field Husbandry Higher Grade
Geography Higher Grade (if not presented under Group E)
Home Economics Higher Grade
Music Higher Grade
Speech and Drama Higher Grade
Technical Drawing Higher Grade
Technical Higher Grade

or

- ii) Four Senior or School Leaving Subjects including English and Afrikaans Higher Grade, passed under the old dispensation, that is, Senior School Leaving examinations conducted by the education department of Transvaal, Natal and Indian Affairs up to March 1975, in the case of the Department of Coloured Affairs up to March 1977, and in the case of the other education departments, including the Board itself, up to March 1976, of which at least

three must have been passed in the same examination sitting.

- * In Standard 7 pupils choose their subjects in accordance with their individual needs (abilities, aptitudes and interests). Their choice of subjects determines the nature of their courses, of the Senior Certificate (Standard 10). This wide variety of subjects is an indication to ample opportunities for differentiation (Weideman, 1993).

4.2.2.3 Examination and standards

Internal examinations are normally conducted for all standards of the senior secondary phase namely Standard 9 and 10 in June, and Standard 9 promotion examinations are again held in November of the same year.

At the end of the course, that is at the end of the Standard 10 year, pupils write a totally external examination. These examination are conducted by the Department of Education and Culture of the House of Representatives (Raikane, 1992).

The courses and syllabi are approved by the Joint Matriculation Board, a statutory body, which prescribe the standard required for admission to a university (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 13).

A new development in this direction is that from November 1992, all Matric Examination Certificates in the RSA will be issued by one certification body; the new Matriculation Certification Board. This would mean that unlike in the past, where each education department ran its own examinations and issued its own certificates on various norms, all matric candidates would have to satisfy the norms set out by this certification board before certificates can be issued (Raikane, 1992).

By means of panel inspections, the maintenance of a satisfactory standard in all respects is ensured. In addition, circuit inspectors of education and subject advisers visit schools regularly in order to

inspect or to follow up panel inspections, to give guidance to teachers, to moderate examinations and to control the promotion of pupils (Weideman, 1993).

The following data in Table 4.1 shows the rate of passes obtained in standard 10 examination from 1988 to 1990.

Table 4.1: Standard 10 examination results (Annual Report (House of Representatives), 1993: 14)

Number of candidates who wrote examination	Passes	Passes with matriculation exemption	Percentage passes Year		
			1990	1989	1988
22 315	17 721	4 487	79,4	72,7	67,8

4.3 Technical and vocational education

4.3.1 *Introduction*

Prior to 1964 very limited opportunities existed for Coloured pupils. In 1961 the control of technical and vocational education for Coloured persons was transferred from the then Department of Education, Arts and Science to the Department of Coloured Affairs (Behr, 1984: 249). The introduction of differentiated education amongst others, cleared the way to offer technical subjects and technical courses of study at secondary level.

Standard 5 and 6 are the first standards in the junior secondary phase and seek to explore the child's field of abilities, aptitudes and interests. For this reason all boys in Standard 6 are required to take General Handwork (Jettoo, 1989).

4.3.2 *Technical secondary school*

4.3.2.1 The Curriculum

Pupils who decide to follow, a technical secondary course leading to the Senior Certificate (with or without matriculation exemption) follow, in addition to English, Afrikaans, Mathematics, Physical Science and Technical Drawing, a course in the theory and practice of one of the following subjects: Welding and Metal Work; Woodwork; Electricity and Fitting and Turning (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 14).

In due course, and in accordance with demands, the list of optional technical subjects will be extended to include other trade directions (Jettoo, 1989).

Table 4.2 clearly shows progress made in this direction.

Table 4.2: Technical College Education, Full-time Enrollment of pupils according to Education Department, sex and course level for 1990 (Department of National Education, 1990: 27)

COURSE LEVEL								
DEPARTMENT AND SEX		1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
E & C ASSEMBLY Whites	T	5 562	3 826	6 726	4 841	2 085	1 013	24 053
	M	3 195	2 450	4 016	2 667	1 181	680	14 189
	F	2 367	1 376	2 710	2 174	904	333	9 864

E & C DELEGATES Indians	T	1 005	364	636	213	106	50	2 374
	M	611	286	428	165	79	41	1 610
	F	394	78	208	48	27	9	764

E & C REPRESENTATIVES Coloureds	T	1 342	1 030	702	550	181	43	3 848
	M	919	735	426	311	101	28	2 520
	F	423	295	276	239	80	15	1 328

ED & TRAINING Blacks	T	3 782	1 248	824	492	208	52	6 606
	M	1 998	639	434	320	155	48	3 594
	F	1 784	609	390	172	53	4	3 012

4.3.3 *Technical Institutes*

These are centres established near existing technical colleges but where needs for commercial, technical colleges were not catered for at pre-tertiary level (Behr, 1984: 250).

They are administered by local committees of control and are fully subsidised by the state. To date, three technical institutes namely Atlantis, George and Okiep are operational (Behr, 1984: 250).

4.3.4 *Training in Agriculture*

4.3.4.1 Kromme Rhee Training Centre

This training centre offers training courses for Coloured farmhands in various branches of agriculture (Behr, 1984: 252).

Individual achievement as well as ample opportunity for instruction allows for and assessing the progress of individual trainees. On completion of the training period the trainees take a compulsory trade test. When they have passed this, the successful trainees are issued with certificates of competency by the Department of Manpower Utilisation.

Entrance qualifications amount to a minimum of Standard 8 and an age of between 17 and 21 years. Candidates are selected by the Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives) in conjunction with the Department of Manpower Utilisation and a probationary period of three months is required (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 17).

4.3.5 *Training centre for Seamen*

According to Behr (1984: 251) the Merchant Shipping Act of 1961 requires that mariners responsible for vessels at sea, must be in possession of certificates of competency. It had been the responsibility of the Administration of Coloured Affairs to provide

the necessary training facilities for Coloured seamen to obtain these certificates ever since 1964. Short courses were provided on the premises of the Spes Bona High School, and from time to time at various centres for fishing fleets along the west coast. In 1970 the Training Centre for Seamen was established as a special institute to prepare Coloured seamen for examinations conducted by the Department of Transport (Marine Division). Entrance qualification is std 8 though std 10 is recently emphasised.

The Training Centre for Seamen offers the following courses at regular intervals, leading to a certificate of competency for the following seamen (Behr, 1984: 251).

- * Skippers, mates and boatswains for vessels over 100 tons;
- * Skippers and mates for vessels under 100 tons;
- * Marine enginemen;
- * Assistant marine enginemen;
- * Marine engineers;
- * Navigation officers;
- * First Navigation officer;
- * Sea cadets;
- * Able seamen;
- * Sea cooks (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 18).

4.3.6 *Training centre for artisans*

Normally youths under the age of 21 years with minimum qualification of std 8 are trained as artisans in designated trades in terms of

the Apprenticeship Act, 1944 (Act no. 37 of 1944) (Behr, 1978: 219).

To meet the demand of industry, necessary preparations were made to establish a training centre for Coloured artisans as from the beginning of July 1974.

The training given at this centre is based on an alternative system to apprenticeship and at this stage it will be limited to that required by motor and diesel mechanics.

The courses are divided into two sections:

- * theory, which covers courses in Applied Science, Technical Drawing and Motor Trade Theory;
- * practical training.

The training is designed to cover a period of three years, the first of which is devoted mostly to orientation in which the trainee is taught the characteristics of metals, the proper use and handling of tools, methods of dismantling and reassembling components of varying complexity (Behr, 1984: 250).

4.3.7 *Schools of industries and reform schools*

Children who are committed to school of industry or reform schools are sent there by a magistrate in terms of the Children's Act, 1960 (Act no. 33 of 1960) (Behr, 1978: 222).

The Department runs schools of industries for girls at Wellington, and for boys at Ottery, to care for behaviour-deviant children in the 14 to 18 age groups. At the end of 1968 there were 45 girls and 655 boys in these institutions.

They are taught domestic skills or various trades, and when considered ready for this, are placed in employment by probation officers acting in consultation with the parents or guardians.

Three reform schools existed, the Porter School for boys in Cape Town and two schools at Faure, for boys and girls respectively. They cater for juvenile offenders who are committed there by the courts, and provide academic education as well as training in trades, and for girls, domestic work, first aid, and other-craft. At the end of 1968 there were 963 boys and 143 girls in these schools (Horrel, 1970: 147). The following table indicates developments in this area.

Table 4.3: Children's act schools (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 13)

School	Type	Date established	Sex of inmates	Origin of inmates	Roll Dec 1980
Porter	Reformatory	1981	Male	Mainly urban	600
Ottery	School industries	1948	Male	Urban and rural	600
Faure	Reformatory	1955	Female	Urban and rural	166
Faure	Reformatory	1956	Male	Rural	295
Wellington	School of industries	1966	Female	Urban and rural	114

4.3.8 Teachers

With the introduction of the system of differentiated education and the four phases of schooling changes in training of teachers had to be brought about.

The authorities wanted secondary school teachers to have a degree plus full-time professional training of at least one year's duration, and primary school teachers to have completion of the Senior Certificate (Standard 10).

In 1968 a three-year post-matric course was introduced at the Peninsular Technikon for the training of teachers of commercial subjects. From 1969 to 1979 this institution also trained teachers for technical subjects by offering a three-year post-matric course. (Department of Internal Affairs, 1981: 17).

The University of the Western Cape was established in 1959. Since its inception, it has produced teachers for the secondary schools. The following courses have been offered (Behr, 1984: 259).

- * Bachelor's degree (BA, BS or B.Com) plus Secondary Teachers' Diploma (3 + 1 Years);
- * Secondary Teachers' for non-graduates (4 years);
- * Lower Secondary Teachers's Diploma (3 years)
- * Adaptation Class Teaching Diploma (1 year) **
- * Diploma in Child and Youth Guidance (1 year) **
- * Diploma in Music Teaching (1 year) **
- * Diploma in School Librarians (1 year) **
- * Diploma in Nursing Education (1 year)
- * Diploma in Clinical Remedial Education (1 year) **
- ** (additional diplomas offered to qualified teachers only)

The different diploma courses made available for teachers is another way in which effective application of differentiated education for Coloureds is carried out.

4.3.9 *Evaluation of differentiation in secondary education*

In the following paragraphs, an attempt is made to evaluate the present systems of secondary education for Coloureds to determine whether differentiation was provided or not.

* *Difference of sex*

Subjects were chosen on ground of sex in that boys took handwork and girls needle or domestic science. The choice for this subject varied according to the resources of each school (cf. 4.2.1.2 - curriculum).

* *Differences of aptitudes and abilities*

There are various fields of study (cf. 4.2.2.2) from which pupils can choose depending on their aptitudes and abilities. In both junior and senior secondary subjects include General Science, Biology, History, Music, Art and Physical education (cf. 4.2.1.2). Furthermore pupils can make a choice to take subjects on either the Higher or Standard grade and by this differentiation in depths, the pupils are offered the opportunities of receiving instruction in accordance with his abilities and aptitude (cf. 4.2.2.1). Different types of schools also exist namely technical, vocational, training centres where pupils can receive training according to their abilities (cf. 4.3.2, 4.3.3 and 4.3.5).

* *Differences of Interest*

This is catered for on a horizontal level in which case pupils are given the opportunity of making subject choices and instruction in accordance with their interest (cf. 4.2.2.1). In std 7 in particular interest (cf. 4.2) determines choice of subjects for senior certificate.

* *Differences of age and level of development*

The four-phase system applied to Coloured education is a true

reflection of how age and level of development determined the whole education system. The system is divided into four phases namely Junior Primary, Senior Primary, Junior Secondary Primary and Senior Secondary (cf. Table 3.4). At each and every level, pupils receive instruction on the syllabus content suitable for their age and level of development. Each syllabus link with the one following thereafter.

* *Abnormalities and educationally neglected children*

These differences are catered for among the Coloured communities. Secondary school pupils are also catered for handicaps such as blindness, deafness and epilepsy (cf. Table 3.12). Children act schools which are divided into reformatories and schools of industries, have also been established (cf. Table 4.3). Both male and female pupils who have been sent to these school are taken care of.

4.4 Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to outline differentiated education as provided in secondary schools. To do this adequately it became necessary to look at the curricula and other related aspects of secondary education.

Under secondary level aspects such as phases of secondary education, technical and vocational education, examinations and curriculum were researched. Through a scrutiny of all these aspects it became possible for the researcher to address differentiation in secondary education for the Coloured in RSA.

In the ensuing chapter, a summary of the entire research as well as the findings and recommendations on differentiated education for the Coloured in RSA will be drawn.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concerns itself with the reassessment of all the aspects which have together formed an integral part of this research.

In addition to the reassessment, findings will be discussed and recommendations will be made. Lastly, topics with regards to field for further research will be suggested.

5.2 Summary

The problem of research has been stated as follows:

- * How does the school system for Coloureds in the RSA provide for the different abilities, aptitudes and interests of the pupils?

The following sub-problems were derived from the basic of the research problem.

- * What is the theory of differentiation in the school for Coloureds in the RSA?
- * How did the school system for the Coloured provide for differentiation up to 1963?
- * What provision for differentiation is made at present in the pre-primary, primary and secondary education.

Derived from the problem and sub-problems of research was the aim which was cited as follows:

- * to ascertain through research how the school system for the Coloured in the RSA provides for different abilities, aptitudes and interests.

In order to reach this aim the following sub-aims were formulated:

- * to describe the theory of differentiation in the school system for Coloureds
- * to describe how the school system for Coloureds catered for Coloureds up to 1963, and
- * to ascertain and evaluate the provision of differentiation for Coloureds at present in pre-primary, primary and secondary education for the Coloured in the RSA.

It is important to mention here that in order to accomplish the aim of this research the following methods of research were used:

- * Literature research,
- * Personal interviews and
- * Scientific formulation of findings.

In Chapter 2 the theoretical basis for differentiation and the historical perspectives on the school system for Coloureds in the RSA were discussed. Also discussed in this chapter was the theoretical model for evaluation of differentiation in the school system for Coloured. This model would be instrumental in ascertaining whether differentiation is made available or not.

Chapter 3 focused on the availability of differentiation in both pre-primary and primary education for the Coloured in the RSA at present. In order to make a decision on this matter the curricula and related issues of both the pre-primary and the primary education were discussed. School guidance and special education were also discussed. The chapter was concluded by making an evaluation of the availability of differentiation using the model discussed in Chapter 2.

In Chapter 4 the present situation regarding differentiation was discussed. Secondary education, Technical and Vocational schools formed the main issues. In order to make a decision on these issues the curricula of these levels were looked into. Schools of Industry and Reform schools were also addressed. The chapter was concluded by making a decision on the availability of differentiation using the model which was discussed in Chapter 2.

5.3 Findings

5.3.1 *Pre-primary education*

Pre-primary education has been undertaken by private enterprise like churches and welfare organisations. The Coloured Education Act of 1983 made provision for subsidisation of pre-primary education on a per capita grant by the Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives) (cf. 3.2.3.3).

Differentiation is provided by way of grouping children according to ability groups and allowing each child time to experience success at his own tempo (cf. 3.2.3.4).

5.3.2 *Primary education*

Primary education among Coloured communities was taken over by government in 1963 (cf. 3.2.1). Grants-in-aid and loans to governing bodies of any primary school are made through the Minister charge.

The aim of primary schools is to provide broad general education and academic background (cf. 3.2.4.2). Differentiation at this level was seen as a milestone in the development of Coloured Education. Children are divided into ability groups and the potential of each child is discovered (cf. 3.2.4.3).

There is a curriculum for normal classes and a differentiated one for special schools.

In addition differentiation is describable when dealing with certain subjects like needlework, music and physical education. Class-groups are divided according to sex, i.e girls for needlework and boys for handicraft (cf. 3.2.4.3).

5.3.3 *Secondary education*

According to the four-phase system applied to Coloured education, secondary education is divided into junior and senior secondary phases. The aim at junior secondary phase is to build on the broad foundation already laid in the primary phase (cf. 4.2.1.1). Differences between pupils is taken into account, and pupils particular interest and aptitude are identified (cf. 4.2.2.1). Here school guidance service as a special educational auxiliary service is of great assistance (cf. 4.2.1.2).

Difference on grounds of sex is taken into account in that there are different subjects for boys and girls.

At senior secondary level differentiation reaches its fullest development (cf. 4.2.2.1). It is accomplished in giving pupils the opportunity to make subject choices and to receive instruction in accordance with their aptitude and interest. Furthermore, within the framework of each course of study differentiation also takes place when pupils are given a choice to take a subject on either Higher Grade, or Standard Grade according to their potential and ability (cf. 4.2.2.1). Technical education receive attention and the pupils are helped to make decision on vocations and future careers (cf. 4.3 and 4.3.2.1).

The final conclusion can therefore be that differentiation of education for Coloureds in the RSA is provided adequately. Several opportunities exist to assist the child to be educated according to his/her own ability, aptitude and interest. Shortcomings in Coloured education can therefore mainly be related to other factors such as socio-economic status, the absence of a learning culture and problems in society.

5.4 Recommendations

It would seem that the drop-out rate has been defeating all purposes of schooling (cf. 3.2.4.7). It is recommended thus that every effort should be made to increase the retention rate of the children who proceed to secondary schools and compulsory education regulations be adhered to strictly so as not to loose any child.

There is still a shortage of professionally qualified teachers for various fields of study in Coloured schools. There is a need to improve this situation (Table 3.11).

Many calls have been made to the effect that there must be an effective co-ordination and standardisation of conditions for a pass in matric. The move towards a single certification body for matric examinations should be steadfastly adhered to. It is a step in the right direction (cf. 4.2.2.3).

The Republic of South Africa will be faced with a great shortage of technicians, engineers, specialists, medical practitioners and accountants. It is recommended that the Coloureds who form an integral part of the South African society should be prepared to make a contribution in this regard.

5.5 Problems encountered during the period of research

A great deal of valuable information for this research was obtained from the Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives). Access to this office was not always easy because of lack of response on interview inquiries, and if interview were obtained, there was suspicion on the part of officers to give information, and thereby jeopardising their positions with their employer.

5.6 Field for further research

- * The contribution of auxiliary services in the provision for differentiated education in the RSA.
- * The role of private sector in differentiated education in the Republic of South Africa 1910-1990.
- * Provision of differentiated education in private schools in the RSA.
- * Differentiated education in multi-cultural schools in the RSA.
- * The demands for provisions of differentiated education in a single education system in the RSA 1980-2000.

5.7 Summary

An attempt was made in this chapter to recapitulate on all issues raised in the previous chapters. Findings and recommendations flowing from the whole research have been made. The problems which were encountered during the research have also been identified and in the end a few suggested topics for further research have been listed.

LIST OF THE PEOPLE WHO WERE INTERVIEWED

- * D Arends: Principal, Eersterus Secondary School, 1989
- * D De Klerk: Guidance Teacher, Eersterus Secondary School, 1990
- * D C Hanekom: Presently, Student at Eersterus Secondary No. 2: 1993
- * F E Hanekom: Member of Eersterus Parent Teacher Association
- * P Jettoo: Former Principal, Eersterus Training and Caring Centre, 1989
- * K Jones: Principal, Eersterus Secondary School No. 2: 1993
- * M Masher: Former Principal, Johannesburg Secondary School, 1990
- * D McDillion: Principal, Zinniaville Primary School, 1992
- * N E Raikane: Lecturer, Vista University, 1992
- * I Weideman: Deputy principal, Eersterus Secondary School, 1993

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