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Published by the University of Cape Town (UCT) in terms of the non-exclusive license granted to UCT by the author.
Discourses of professionalism and the production of teachers' professional identity in the South African Council for Educators (SACE) Act of 2000: a discourse analysis

A dissertation presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Philosophy
(Educational Administration, Planning and Social Policy)

Yunus Omar

June 2002

The financial assistance of the National Research Foundation (NRF, South Africa) towards this research is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and are not necessarily to be attributed to the National Research Foundation.
I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work and that all sources of reference have been acknowledged. This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy (Educational Administration, Planning and Social Policy) at the University of Cape Town. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university.

Yunus Omar

this 4th day of June 2002
DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the memory of my father, who passed away during the writing of this thesis, and to my mother, whose lap was my first university.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not have come to fruition without the unselfish assistance of a number of people.

My supervisor, Heather Jacklin, is a mentor and teacher of the first order. I thank her for the substantial, sustained intellectual input and support during the writing of this dissertation. It is my hope that this dissertation does justice to the very high standards she sets.

My thanks are also extended to the lecturers who cajoled and encouraged me throughout the coursework component of this degree – Mr. David Gilmour, Mr. Jan Esterhuysen, Mr. Nigel Bakker, Professor Chris Breen and Dr. Terry de Jongh. Thanks also to Professors Kevin Rochford and Paula Ensor, who, along with Ms. Heather Jacklin, introduced me to the fascinating world of research methodology. My thanks also to Dr. Y. Shalem for comments which improved this study.

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Ms. Ingrid Thom and Mr. Chris Kleinsmith were pillars of administrative support and encouragement throughout this process.

The staff of the UCT Library system were always on hand to find much-needed journals and books – and always in time. Machines can never replace the friendly, efficient helpfulness of these underrated custodians of knowledge.

My teachers, from pre-school to beyond, helped infuse in me a love of learning. I pay tribute to them all.

Finally, I share the joy of the completion of this work with my wife, who introduced me to the most important mission of all – education. Our young sons bore my frequent absence stoically. As they embark on their own educational journeys, I wish for them teachers such as I have been blessed with.
ABSTRACT

This study seeks to identify discourses of professionalism and the production of teachers’ professional identity in the South African Council for Educators (SACE) Act of 2000. These identities are located in the context of their social impact on, and in the actualisation of the political roles of teachers in post-apartheid South Africa. Central to the study is the conceptualisation that discourses construct identities.

The research methodology is derived from Ian Parker’s approach to discourse analysis, which is premised to an extent on post-structuralist thought. The author summarises Parker’s ‘steps’ to effect a discourse analysis, and constructs a set of five analytic tools with which to analyse the SACE Act of 2000.

The study’s main finding is that two discursive frames constitute the role(s) of the post-apartheid teacher in South Africa. The first is a bureaucratic discourse of marketisation that defines a role for teachers in preparing students for participation in a global market economy. A second discourse which is identified in the study is a democratic professional discourse, which delineates a critical, independent professional role for teachers. The study suggests that the two teacher identities are in tension. The two identities are complex, and are simultaneously constructed and actualised.
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<td>ATASA</td>
<td>African Teachers Association of South Africa</td>
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<td>AWB</td>
<td>Afrikaner Weerstands Beweging</td>
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<td>AZAPO</td>
<td>Azanian Peoples Organisation</td>
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<td>BC</td>
<td>Black Consciousness</td>
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<td>COSATU</td>
<td>Congress of South African Trade Unions</td>
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<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>ELRC</td>
<td>Education Labour Relations Council</td>
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<td>ERS</td>
<td>Education Renewal Strategy</td>
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<td>FET</td>
<td>Further Education and Training</td>
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<td>GAAP</td>
<td>Generally Accepted Accounting Practice</td>
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<td>GEAR</td>
<td>Growth, Employment and Redistribution</td>
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<td>INSET</td>
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<td>NAPTOSA</td>
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<td>NEDLAC</td>
<td>National Economic Development and Labour Council</td>
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<td>National Education Policy Investigation</td>
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<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>OBE</td>
<td>Outcomes-based Education</td>
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<td>PAC</td>
<td>Pan Africanist Congress</td>
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<td>PRESET</td>
<td>Pre-Service training</td>
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<td>PSCBC</td>
<td>Public Service Co-ordinating Bargaining Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>SACE</td>
<td>South African Council for Educators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SADTU</td>
<td>South African Democratic Teacher’s Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TASA</td>
<td>Teachers Association of South Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>WECTU</td>
<td>Western Cape Teachers Union</td>
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We are still in the process of experimenting with a new form of politics where the constitution of identities, the winning of identification, is itself part of the struggle, not something preliminary to that struggle.

- Stuart Hall, “Discussion,” Black Popular Culture*  

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This study seeks to identify discourses of teacher professionalism in the South African Council for Educators (SACE) Act of 2000 and to construct the professional identity of the teacher in post-apartheid South Africa which emerges from the identified discourses. The theoretical underpinning of the dissertation rests on the notion that discourses construct identities (Blake, et al, 1998: 18 and Parker, 1992: 5). Ball (1994: 21) quotes Foucault in this regard:

"Discourses are practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak...Discourses are not about objects; they do not identify objects, they constitute them and in the practice of doing so conceal their own invention."

As the dissertation progresses, this notion (of discourse generating subjectivity or identity) will inform all aspects of the research. A key component of this study is the construction of five discourse analytic tools with which to effect the discourse analysis in this dissertation. The five tools are derived from the approach to discourse analysis by Ian Parker (1992).

1.1. Rationale for the research

I began working as a secondary school teacher in the public education sector in 1991, one year after the unbanning of the liberation movements in South Africa. The sense of expectation which traversed the country was also felt in education circles, where decades of apartheid deprivation had skewed educational opportunities for millions of South Africans. In the years that followed, the post-apartheid government soon prioritised education as an arena in which to demonstrate that it was serious about undoing the apartheid legacy, passing a battery of legislation between 1994 and 2001 which was to be variously hailed as visionary or reactionary (see Gilmour, 1997).
ELRC Resolution 3 of 1996 saw massive changes being effected in schools, under the label of rationalisation in pursuit of equity goals (see Baxen and Soudien, 1999). Discourses of economic rationality were the order of the day, as were frequent media representations of teachers as lazy, drunk, unprofessional, inept, absent and reactionary (see Appendices 3 and 4). Teacher morale has plummeted during this period. This has been exacerbated by drastic changes in curricular orientation (see Jansen, 1999a; Baxen and Soudien, 1999) which appears to have placed further strains on teachers who, according to Taylor and Vinjevold (1999: 159) have “a poor grasp...of the fundamental concepts in the knowledge areas they are responsible for...in disadvantaged classrooms”.

In this context, teachers’ professional identities are crucial, as it is teachers who ultimately translate policy into meaningful learning opportunities in the classroom. The inter-relatedness of educational reform and teacher professionalism is recognised in the following statement from the NEPI Framework Report (1993: 235): “Teachers are primary agents in education; the development of a quality teaching corps is thus a primary condition for education transformation”. Transformation in post-apartheid South African education is seen as being conditional on the development of a “quality teaching corps”.

1.2. The research question

Following from the rationale sketched in the previous section, I began asking questions about my identity as a teacher in our new democracy, which, in my opinion, legislated against the best interests of the ultimate beneficiaries of the education system, namely the students. If teachers were being demoralised and were leaving the
public schools, how would this facilitate the coming into being of the new South African democratic project? Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991: 117) assert that

Classrooms and schools become effective when (1) quality people are recruited to teaching...and (2) the workplace is organized to stimulate and reward accomplishments.

Education reform in South Africa, the provision of quality education, and a positive teacher identity which translates reform policies into meaningful practice, is emphasised in the above formulation. At the heart of the question, then, is an inquiry pertaining to the identity of the teacher in post-apartheid South African educational legislation.

When the South African Council for Educators (SACE) Act of 2000 was promulgated, I approached the text with a view to assessing its construction of the identity of the teacher in South Africa. Was the teacher constructed as an agent of the democratic project, or were other influences at work to construct a ‘different’ entity?

Thus, the research question which this study wishes to answer is: What discourses of teacher professionalism are present in the SACE Act of 2000, and how do they construct the professional identity of the teacher in post-apartheid South Africa?

The next section of this chapter outlines the structure of this dissertation.

1.3. The structure of the dissertation

Chapter One introduces the rationale for the study and the research question and outlines the structure of the dissertation.

Chapter Two is a review of the literature as it pertains to teacher professionalism and teacher identity, internationally and in South Africa. The literature review is a crucial element of this research, providing a set of identifiable discourses of teacher professionalism against which to ‘map’ those in the SACE Act of 2000. These
discourses will form the basis on which to analyse the Act. The literature review performs a dual function. In its more traditional sense, it is a survey of the literature. The literature review simultaneously performs a methodological function, since the discourses of teacher professionalism which emerge from the survey of the literature will be the initial analytic tools with which to begin the analysis of the SACE Act of 2000.

Chapter Three details the research methodology, namely discourse analysis, more specifically following the approach of Ian Parker (1992), in a broad poststructuralist framework. The chapter includes an appreciation of the difficulties associated with this research methodology, as well as a section which foregrounds some of the many problems which researchers have identified in relation to discourse analysis. The contribution of discourse analysis to educational research follows the identification of problems associated with this research methodology. The methodological key to the dissertation, namely the formulation of five analytic tools derived from Ian Parker’s theoretical framework, completes the chapter.

Chapter Four is a detailed analysis of ten data items which emerge from a discursive interrogation of the SACE Act. The analysis also refers to related texts as a consequence of the approach to discourse analysis of Parker (1992), which stresses the need for intertextuality. The analysis draws on the literature review insofar as key terms and conceptualisations derived from the literature review inform the analysis.

Chapter Five is a discussion of the analysis in chapter five, and an identification and critique of the construct of the teacher professional as it emerges from the analysis. Limitations of this study, as well as future research possibilities arising out of this dissertation completes the thesis.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The literature review which follows is designed to perform three distinct but interrelated tasks.

Firstly, the review surveys the areas of the literature in which this study is located, namely educational reform, teacher professionalism and teacher identity.

Secondly, the section on teacher identity contributes to the methodological framework which is developed in this dissertation, leading into chapter three in which the second main conceptual area, discourse analysis, is explicated.

Thirdly, the literature review fulfils a methodological function. The literature on teacher professionalism produces a set of discourses of teacher professionalism which informs the analysis of the SACE Act of 2000 in chapter five. The insights from this section of the literature review are thus carried forward methodologically into the analysis, and hence also informs the discussion in chapter six.

2.2. Educational reform

2.2.1. General context

The politics of educational reform in the post 1980s are characterised in the USA and the United Kingdom by the politics of the New Right (Ball, 1990; McCulloch, Helsby and Knight, 2000). Briefly, I am concerned in this study with the market discourses which characterise the policies of the New Right. In South Africa, too, post-1994, discourses of the market increasingly become the dominant discourses, as in the South African Schools Act of 1996 (see Sayed, 1999; Jansen, 1999a; Baxen and Soudien,
1999). Aspects of the increasing marketisation discourses in the South African Schools Act context are discernible in strategies of cost-sharing (user fees) and cost-shifting (schools now take full responsibility for settling municipal accounts such as water, electricity and telephone bills), as well as for routine maintenance, such as the replacement of broken windows, doors, sanitary equipment and the like. School governing bodies at public (state) schools also assume responsibility for the payment of teachers who are hired by these bodies to supplement the teacher corps whose salaries are met by the state. Discourses of school choice, too, permeate the South African educational arena in post-apartheid South Africa (see Hoadley, 1998).

In the face of an ever-increasing marketisation of education, teachers' professional status is fundamentally altered (see Smyth et al, 2000). As neo-liberal economic policies assume greater importance globally, the implications for education also assume certain homogenous characteristics. As an initial example in this regard, Hyland (1998), writing in the context of British policy initiatives towards increased professionalisation of teaching, decries the increasing 'McDonaldisation' of teaching, or, stated otherwise, the predominance of a market discourse in education. Stronach (1995, quoted in Hyland, 1998: 9) delineates a “…new professional life for teachers under the former British Conservatives as including a vocabulary of ‘innovation fatigue, early retirement, stress, overload and breaking point’. In this context, British “teacher educators, unions and professional bodies” (1995, quoted in Hyland, 1998: 9) have “…broadly welcomed” the formation of a General Teaching Council by the year 2000. All three sectors (teachers, unions and professional bodies) recognise that they need to intervene in policy arenas in which educational policies are increasingly informed by non-educational interest groups, while the results of these policies have
increasingly negative implications for teachers, schools, and ultimately the students who seek meaningful learning opportunities within these education systems.

The political nature of education is a theme which permeates the literature on educational reform. Haberman (1986: 720) asserts that “...teaching is the most political of all the professions...”. Writing within the arena of school reform, he warns that, if overarching recommendations (see for example, Abdal-Haqq (1992) for wide-ranging reforms (not just teacher professionalisation) are not met, then teachers run the risk of being relegated to the status of “bureaucratic functionaries – job holders, not professional practitioners” (Haberman, 1986: 722). Shalem (1990), writing in the South African context, states that “(T)he history of teaching has been a history of struggle against the control of both the state and capital over teachers’ practices...” (p. 1). The focus of Shalem’s writing, too, is the contestation of power between the state and organised teachers. “Teachers’ professionalism,” she writes

...does not imply relative autonomy, expertise and status alone, but also a distinction between the educational and the political. Teacher autonomy is recognised as such only in relation to the power and authority of those who make and enact the laws of society.” (Shalem, 1990: 2)

Teacher autonomy in this context is thus subverted in discourses of state control. Shalem (1990: 10) cites “changes in syllabi, ...the commissioning of textbook writers and publishers...”, as “...regulated by syllabus and textbook committees...” which are removed from the daily realities of teachers, parents and pupils, as elements of the growing disjuncture between teachers and their professional practice.


In so far as it (education) does not provide pupils with the skills needed for the labour market, (does not provide) teachers with modern skills of teaching (such as teacher-proof materials like computers and curriculum packages), and (does not provide)
administrators with management expertise, education is blamed for economic problems, for its lack of correspondence with a developing economy.

Shalem's thesis (1990: 8) is that "(T)eachers try to counteract actual loss of control and autonomy by a struggle for professionalism" (emphasis my own). The resonance in Shalem's writing and the earlier reference to Stronach (1995, quoted in Hyland, 1998: 11) is marked. "Strategies of professionalism are adopted as a 'struggle of defence' against deskilling and other aspects of proletarianisation."

Apple (1987: 333) warns against a simplistic social reading on the part of teachers who seem eager to locate themselves within the ambit of a struggle for professional status:

...education itself must be wary of assuming that the answers to many of its very real dilemmas lie in preparing a more intellectually rigorous "profession." To do this may simply play into the hands of the attempt by dominant groups to export their crisis onto other areas.

In attempting to contextualise teacher issues in South Africa in the (immediate) post-apartheid era, we now examine, in brief, South African educational reform post-1994.

2.2.2. Educational reform in South Africa

That education reform in South Africa has been at the forefront of government policy in the post-apartheid era is uncontested (Kallaway, 1997; Chisholm, Soudien, Vally and Gilmour, 1999; Jansen, 1999a and 1999b, and Sayed, 1999). Kallaway (1997: 42) writes that "...since the advent of the GNU" (post–apartheid Government of National Unity) the "notions of equality and redress" have been at the heart of government policy. This culminated in a particular emphasis being placed on equality of spending in education in the nine provinces, with "...the decision to move towards the allocation of educational finances on the basis of equity as defined in geographical terms" (Kallaway, 1997: 43).
The extract that follows below was penned in 1997, a mere three years before the SACE Act of 2000 was promulgated. This time-frame is important in the context of this study as the impact of political reforms on teacher autonomy is established. Political reforms, as has been argued earlier in this chapter (see 2.3.1.) have significant implications for teacher autonomy. In this regard, Kallaway (1997: 44) writes that

(S)uch action taken in the name of equity seems likely to have extremely negative effects on the ethos of the teaching profession and the quality of education in the schools as a whole...At the very least, there seems to be a stark contradiction between the goals of the Growth and Development Strategy regarding the need for high quality human resources to provide South Africa with a competitive edge in the world markets, and the apparent lack of concern by education policy-makers for the threatened decline in standards in the schools as many of the most qualified and experienced educators ‘take the package’ and leave the profession.

The context sketched by Kallaway above foregrounds the policy arena in which the SACE Act of 2000 finds itself. Fuelled as South Africa’s post-1996 economic policies are by an underlying philosophy of the market as principal social regulating mechanism,

fiscal constraint, partnership funding, and cost-recovery strategies have all become integrated into the discourse and politics of redistributive educational change conceived as part of a techno-bureaucratic, rational planning exercise.

(Chisholm, 1997: 58)

Of the three issues highlighted by Chisholm, one, namely teacher education has been shown above to be pivotal in the broader restructuring of apartheid education’s legacy. Three areas of international influences on post-apartheid education policy are presented by Chisholm (1997: 60-1). These are:

1. “...the ideology of fiscal discipline which restricts spending on needed areas in education...”;

2. “...secondly...through fees envisaged at different levels of education...”, and

3. “...approaches to the restructuring of teachers’ salaries.”
The “restructuring of teachers’ salaries” has been “developed” in terms of restructuring “the provision and supply of teachers” and the “delink(ing) (of) qualifications from remuneration” (Chisholm, 1997: 62).

Chisholm (1997:62) further asserts that, since upgrading “…un- and under-qualified teachers will force spending upwards and thus place unsustainable strains on the budget”, “(S)trategies” had to “be found to redeploy teachers to needed parts of the system to equalise pupil:teacher ratios”. As a signal to the South African teacher corps, this must have had a significant morale-lessening impact on the psyche of (especially) those teachers who had been crippled by inadequate training under the racially skewed education funding realities of the apartheid state.

“Two strategies” were further introduced in order to delink teacher “qualifications to pay scales”. Firstly, salary scales were “compress(ed)” in order “to improve the position of poorly paid teachers at the bottom of the scale…”, and secondly, the “delink(ing)” of “remuneration from academic and professional qualifications” was effected. “One-off cash grants would form the reward for further study” (Chisholm, 1997: 62).

The importance of the South African Council for Educators (SACE) is that it emerges in a highly politicised context of teacher reforms, which has been shown to be significantly impacted on by larger political reforms. The functions of the SACE will be extensively analysed and discussed in chapters five and six. What is crucial is that the SACE Act of 2000 (see Appendix 1, Chapter 2, Powers and duties of council) makes the SACE Council responsible for inter alia, the registration of educators, the “promotion and development of the education and training profession”, INSET, the developing of materials to promote INSET, and a range of issues that delineates
SACE as the body which regulates, promotes and develops South Africa's educators in the post-apartheid era.

The next section reviews the literature on teacher professionalism, and argues that teacher professionalism is a political construct. In addition, teacher professionalism is contingent upon the contextual, including its constitution around notions of national identity.

2.3. Teacher professionalism

This section of the literature review draws on the framework established in 2.3. previously. The authors and works cited in this section establish three main themes that delineate the literature on teacher professionalism. Firstly, the work of Abdal-Haqq (1992) establishes the association between education reform and the teacher professionalism project. Secondly, authors such as Burbules and Densmore (1991) pose questions around the astuteness of linking the project for the professionalisation of the teacher corps to the overarching concerns of educational reform, while thirdly, Darling-Hammond (1985), whilst supporting, in the main, the call for teacher professionalisation in the context of educational reform, cautions that teachers should be aware of the special rights of students as "clients" of the educational system. Finally, Nixon et al (1997) extend the arguments of Darling-Hammond (1985) and Burbules and Densmore (1991), arguing for increased professionalisation of the teaching profession, but calling for a redefined professionalism within the (new) parameters of parental, student and community participation in the democratic social (and educational) project.
The South African works cited in this chapter establish an historically contextualised analysis of teacher professionalism in the era immediately preceding the promulgation of the SACE Act of 2000 (see especially Kihn, 1993 and Hyslop, 1999). Kihn and Hyslop, in arguing for a specific historical analysis of teacher professionalism in South Africa, point to the overt race and class constructions that characterised the arena of teacher politics in the late 1980’s and 1990’s. This historical context, I will argue in this section, foregrounds the tensions which are implicit in the SACE Council as presently constituted. The work of Kihn and Hyslop, too, provides a clear and insightful backdrop to this study.

Abdal-Haqq (1992) quotes the Holmes Group report on the state of American education (1986), as it called for “...nothing less than the transformation of teaching from an occupation into a genuine profession” (quoted in Abdal-Haqq, 1992:1). Abdal-Haqq (1992: 1) identifies two assumptions arising from this formulation, viz. 1. Teaching is not yet a profession, and 2. It is “desirable” for teachers and for the public, for teaching to be made into a recognised profession.

Cautioning against this uni-dimensional perspective, Burbules and Densmore (1991: 44) argue that

(W)hile a good case can be made for better salaries, status, and work conditions for teachers...the traditional model of a profession is both an ineffective and inappropriate basis for pursuing such aims.

Burbules and Densmore (1991: 46) posit that “(C)alls to establish a profession of teaching make three fundamental errors...”. These errors are:

1. “(T)hey ignore the process by which occupations ...become professions”;
2. “(T)hey assume that an occupation can pick and choose some aspects of professionization without certain others”, and, crucially,
3. "...making the attainment of professional status by teachers the ‘number one priority’ of educational reform distracts attention away from more fundamental problems facing schools”.

While Burbules and Densmore believe that teachers “…deserve better salaries and status, and more intellectually engaging career opportunities – features assumed to be characteristic of traditional professions,” they assert that “the rhetoric of professionalism is an ineffective basis for attaining such aims…” (Burbules and Densmore, 1991: 46).

Darling-Hammond (1985), Shanken (1985) and Wise (1986) write about the professionalising of teaching in almost messianic terms. Wise (1986: 36) writes of professionalising teaching as “…a possible solution to the major crisis facing American education”, while Darling-Hammond (1985: 205) asserts that “…the most critical issue facing American education today is the professionalisation of teaching”. Darling-Hammond contextualises her assertions by referring to professionalisation as offsetting teacher isolation (1985: 214), the power of members of the teaching profession to “…define and enforce own standards of practice…” (1985: 212), and that professionalisation should not entail “…blind conformity to state or school policies” (1985: 212).

Sykes (1989, quoted in Burbules and Densmore, 1991: 45) believes that “professionalism alone is not enough.” He writes in the same extract that

(T)here must be a social vision animating reform that encompasses but is not limited to the interests of teachers. Educational reform must embrace equity goals, must honor the rights of parents and communities, must promote tolerance for diversity and responsiveness to clients” (Burbules and Densmore, 1991: 45).

Darling-Hammond (1985: 212) writes in the same vein as Sykes that teachers, in striving towards what she believes to be a desirable goal, i.e. professionalisation,
“...incurred special obligations towards clients...”. Professionalisation, desirable in the view of Darling-Hammond, should always mean that teachers “...act in clients’ best interests” (Darling-Hammond, 1985: 212).

While supporting the view of Darling-Hammond that teachers should always act in the best interests of students (and their parents), Nixon et al (1997) and McCulloch, Helsby and Knight (2000) argue that changing power relations between parents, teachers and students necessitate a re-orientation with regard to the traditional conception of teacher professionalism. Changing philosophical orientations (especially those derived from a postmodernist reading of the nature of knowledge)

require a different kind of professional commitment: a commitment to learning as necessarily unpredictable and provisional, to the learner as self-organising agent, and - crucially - to the professional as learner. (Nixon et al, 1997: 13)

Teacher professionalism, in this formulation, recognises that “significant learning outcomes are rarely prespecifiable” and that “(T)eacherly judgements”, if they are to be “professional judgements”, must

acknowledge the intrinsic complexity of the teaching and learning processes. The emergent professionalism involves a commitment to living with that uncertainty and to learning within it. (Nixon et al, 1997: 15)

The South African Democratic Teachers’ Union (SADTU\(^1\)), in the Educator’s Voice of March 2000, echo the sentiments of writers such as Darling-Hammond (1985), Wise (1986) and Shanken (1985). “As SADTU,” the union writes, “we believe (in particular) that a professional, well-trained and motivated teaching force is the key to unlocking the present crisis in (South African) education.” SADTU claims the second largest membership of teachers in South Africa. The SADTU position also

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\(^1\) The organisations that came together to form SADTU were the National Education Union of South Africa (NEUSA) established on the Witwatersrand in 1981-2, the Western Cape Teachers Union (WECTU) and a number of smaller organisations. They were later joined by established organisations that previously cooperated with the apartheid education structures – these were the Teachers Association of South Africa (TASA) that represented Indian teachers and the African Teachers Association of South Africa (ATASA). (Kallaway, 1997: 49, footnote no. 25).
foregrounds the issue of the contestation of powers within the arena of legislation around teacher professionalisation in South Africa.

An interesting feature of the English General Teaching Council (GTC) is that it is headed by a British peer, film-maker Lord David Puttnam. The leader article in the *Times Educational Supplement* of 3 December 1999, page 18, states that his appointment “…will be a shock to many teachers, who will have been hoping that one of their own would be chosen to head up their professional body”.

The leader continues: “But the fact that Lord Puttnam of Queensgate comes with no education “baggage” could be a strength in such a highly-politicised context” (*TES*, 1999: 18). This short insert shows how teachers are marginalised internationally, in the very structures designed to promote teachers’ interests.

Kihl (1993), in *Players or Pawns? “Professionalism” and Teacher Disunity in the Western Cape, 1980-1990*, juxtaposes the concept ‘teacher professionalism’ against ideas which dominated “…three new ‘emergent’ teacher organisations…(which) directly contradicted conventional “professionalism” and thus found themselves in opposition to established teacher associations which espoused it” (p. 123).

Kihl posits that, in the South African context of the period (1980-1990) on which his study focuses, the new teacher organisations, which included the Western Cape Teachers’ Union (WECTU), rejected a number of premises on which “traditional ‘professionalism’” was founded. Some of these aspects of “traditional ‘professionalism’” were:

1. That professionalism “…implied an aversion to overt ‘political’ activity”;  
2. That professionalism “…necessitated cooperation with the various education departments, which the new unions rejected”;
3. That professionalism “...implied status within ethnically-defined ‘population groups’”;

4. That the “…status, and middle-class aspirations…” were supported by the professional associations (Kihm, 1993: 123).

The general orientation of Kihn’s work is supported by Hyslop (1999: 23), who traces the roots of the ambiguities of teacher responses to political, social and economic factors to the first mission schools, and the new radicalism within teacher’s ranks from the 1940’s, the period characterised by the post-depression era of global economic austerity.

The context in which Kihn’s study located itself is no longer wholly applicable to the current South African educational/political landscape. “The complex interplay of politics since the 1994 election in South Africa...is still lacking in sharp definition” writes Kallaway (1997: 34). He identifies three general strands, the third of which is:

...the marginalisation of extremist politics from the formal political landscape. From the national, provincial and local government elections it can be concluded that the White Right including the Afrikanerweerstandsbeweging (AWB) and the Freedom Front (FF), as well as the radical Africanist or socialist wing of black politics, the Pan Africanist Congress (PAC), the Azanian People’s Organisation (Azapo), and the Black Consciousness (BC) movement in general, have virtually disappeared as significant political forces. (Kallaway, 1997: 34)

Notwithstanding these observations, Kihn’s study is important as it maps the terrain of contestation around the concept of ‘teacher professionalism’ in the period immediately prior to the emergence of the new democratic South Africa, and, perhaps more importantly, issues carried forward into the era of post-apartheid education reform, the period which contextualises the SACE Act of 2000.

The fourth issue raised in Kihn’s work, namely the issue of middle-class aspirations, is one that will recur wherever societies allow class distinctions to perpetuate themselves.
In this vein, Kallaway (1997: 38-9) posits that:

The rule of law, the entrenchment of private property rights, and the commitment to a free market (with all that it entails in terms of fiscal stringency), a limited state, the imminent privatisation of key areas of the public sector, ensured that there would be no radical changes that would disrupt the entrenched class structure of South African society.

Kihn’s work is also important, for the purposes of this research, in another, more fundamental sense. Throughout his work, the term “professionalism” is used to denote those values (four of which were enumerated earlier) which were deemed to have been reactionary in the political context of the time. It is an important point, as the need for definition is at the heart of this research.

Kihn’s work foregrounds questions around teacher professionalism as a-political construct and around the notion of class. His focus juxtaposes the (politically) reactionary positions of teacher organisations who located their work within the nexus of apartheid legislation (see Hindle and Simpson, 1993 for a succinct overview of these organisations), and the ‘progressive’ groups, such as WECTU, which located their organisation of teachers around notions of democratic participation and an ideology of liberation. In this construction, the political (apartheid-friendly teacher organisations versus oppositional formations such as WECTU) and class positioning of the main teacher organisations placed them ideologically and organisationally on opposing sides. The politically conservative teacher organisations organised mainly ‘white’ and middle-class ‘coloured’ and ‘Indian’ teachers. In contrast to these structures, teachers, especially in the township schools (‘black’, ‘coloured’ and ‘Indian’), engaged in civic organisations and the like (see Kallaway, 1984 for a detailed exposition of these trends). Teachers in the ‘black’ (inclusive of ‘coloured’ and ‘Indian’) townships, faced with the realities of apartheid deprivation, were confronted by choices vis-à-vis identifying with the struggles of the lower-middle and
working class students in these schools. These choices would have related to the contexts of economic privilege, ethnicity, political patronage and identification with the oppressed majority in South Africa. Locating oneself in either context (conservative or progressive) had implications for the identity constructs of teachers.

Kihn’s work, then, can be read as foregrounding the divergent and political nature of the construct ‘teacher professionalism’ in the apartheid South African context. His work provides a context which precedes the burgeoning debate, in the 1980’s and early 1990’s, about the nature of post-apartheid teacher structures, and their relationship with the new democratic state.

The discourses which structure teachers’ organisations in the apartheid era serve as signposts which inform the post-apartheid state’s education legislation. These discourses signal how the debate about teacher professionalism, informed by increasing political organisation in schools and civic associations, began to emerge in a more progressive political context. These discursive elements will be used as a template against which the discourses of professionalism, as will be sought in the SACE Act of 2000, may be mapped.

Smyke (1985) points to a more generalised context in which teachers have historically been drawn to unions as opposed to professional associations. He asserts that in a context in which the “…general trend (is) to shift the cost of providing publicly funded services to the private sector” (p. 24), the resultant cuts in education budgets, and the associated loss of financial rewards and general occupational insecurity, invariably cause teachers to turn to union structures to secure their occupational rights. The issue here is not “anti-professionalism”, as espoused by ‘progressive teacher groupings’ in South Africa, as posited by Kihn (1993, passim), but rather
economic and general social pragmatism which characterised the international shift towards teacher unionism as opposed to teacher professionalism.

Pursuing a different line of argument, Sanders (1968, 23-4) argues that

(W)hile some professional fields are relatively homogeneous, education is decidedly heterogeneous. This may explain why teachers, through their newly established unions, are willing to trade their non-existent prestige – which is the foundation for professional mystique – for concerted power symbolized by a strike and collective bargaining.

The debates which characterised the unionisation versus professionalisation era in South African teacher politics seems set to continue in the structures which have now been established in post-apartheid South Africa. The debate about the desirability or otherwise of the unionisation or professionalisation of teachers in South Africa specifically (and internationally) must be informed by the historical hostility which characterised the relationship between the SADTU and NAPTOSA, the two most influential teacher organisations on the SACE Council. My contention is that it is naïve to believe that these historical tensions (unionisation versus professionalisation) will disappear, notwithstanding the official rhetoric issuing from these bodies. Further, given the fact that teacher organisations dominate the SACE Council (see Table Four in chapter four), the outcome of the battle for the soul of SACE could largely determine the direction in which the constituents of the SACE Council steer the body. The implications for teachers, and for education reforms in general, could be considerable.

The next section moves on to review the literature on teacher identity. As indicated in the introduction to this chapter, the literature review on teacher identity also functions as part of the conceptual framework of this dissertation.
2.4. Teacher identity

This dissertation intends to analyse the SACE Act of 2000, in order to identify discourses of teacher professionalism within the Act, and thereby construct the professional identity of the teacher as this emerges from the identified discursive repertoires. As detailed in this chapter, the notion of discourse which is employed in this dissertation is that of Foucault (quoted in Ball, 1994: 21) who defines discourses as

...practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak...Discourses are not about objects; they do not identify objects, they constitute them and in the practice of doing so conceal their own invention.

Identity is constructed through discourse. The work of the principal theorist whose work this dissertation draws on, namely Ian Parker (1992), draws selectively on the theory of poststructuralism; poststructuralist theory is well-documented elsewhere (see, for example, Poster, 1989, for an extensive bibliography in this regard).

An important theoretical consideration is necessary at this point. This study uses the work of Castells (1997, 2001a and 2001b) to contextualise identity-formation in terms of globalisation) Castells, in simplistic terms, may be classified as a structuralist. Whilst the work of Parker (1992) is essentially poststructuralist, Parker shifts from classic poststructuralist theory in that he locates discourse analysis in the ‘real’ world, as opposed to the essentially language-focussed emphasis of Foucauldian perspectives on discourse. The different perspectives which Castells and Parker hold share a common theoretical base, i.e. identity is contextualised, and contingent upon various factors which act on the person to construct particular identities. (The reader is encouraged to engage with the works of Castells, Parker and Foucault for a deeper insight into this complex debate. What is important for this study is that we establish that different, often oppositional perspectives inform the construction of identity.
Theoretically, what we derive from this acknowledgement of difference is that the principal texts used in this chapter, i.e. Castells (2000a and 2000b) and Parker (1992), see identity as contingent upon the contextual.)

Foucault, quoted in Ball (1994: 21) indicates the origin, or the locus of identity:

Discourses are practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak...Discourses are not about objects; they do not identify objects, they constitute them and in the practice of doing so conceal their own invention”.

Identity is thus constructed through discourse. Section 2.3. of this chapter has reviewed the literature on teacher professionalism; at the end of this chapter, in section 2.5., we will organise the discourses of teacher professionalism as these have emerged from the literature on professionalism.

South African education has undergone radical changes since 1994, when the first democratic government was elected after decades of racist apartheid rule. In broad sweep, changes have focussed on the need to eliminate apartheid curricula from the South African educational landscape. Much attention has been focussed on the planning and implementation of an outcomes-based model of education. Jansen (1999a and 1999b), Jansen and Christie (1999), Baxen and Soudien (1999) and Muller (1998) have written meaningfully about the issues surrounding outcomes-based education for teachers. All the writers quoted in this context are agreed that teachers will have to make numerous non-trivial adjustments in most areas of their work. Chappell (1999: 3-4), writing in the Australian context, suggests that

when teachers are asked to ‘do things differently’ in their everyday teaching practices they are also being called on to become different teachers. That is, to have different understandings of their role in education, to have different relationships with students, to conceptualise their educational and vocational knowledge differently, to change their understanding of who they are in vocational education and training. In short, to change their identity.
The use of the term ‘identity’ is not unproblematic. Chappell (1999) posits that identity is increasingly seen to be contingent, multiple and fragmented. “The use of terms such the self, the ‘subject’ and ‘subjectivity’,” says Chappell, have often been used to “represent the self as a unified, originary and integral construct, at the centre of the self-sustaining individual...” (Chappell, 1999: 4).

The first notion of identity is central to this study. Contemporary discourse theory recognises that

concepts of the self should not be seen as natural representations of the subject-person but rather as discursive interventions that do important political and cultural work in constructing, maintaining and transforming both individuals and their social world.

(Chappell, 1999: 4)

In this context, the complexity of the professional identity of the teacher is further informed by the emergence of an increasingly globalised world. Castells (1997: 10) posits that identity cannot be constructed in abstraction: “it is a matter of social context”. In an era of globalisation, or of late modernity, the question arises as to how globalisation impacts on the formation of identity. Giddens (1991, quoted in Castells, 1997: 11) suggests that

one of the distinctive features of modernity is an increasing interconnection between the two extremes of extensionality and intentionality: globalising influences on the one hand and personal dispositions on the other...The more tradition loses its hold, and the more daily life is reconstituted in terms of the dialectical interplay of the local and the global, the more individuals are forced to negotiate lifestyle choices among a diversity of options...Reflectionively organized life-planning...becomes a central feature of the structuring of self-identity.

Castells (1997: 11) argues that the “systemic disjunction between the local and the global” further complicates the identity-forming process. He argues that civil societies are shrinking in the face of globalising influences, and that

subjects, if and when constructed, are not built any longer on the basis of civil societies, that are in the process of disintegration, but as prolongation of communal resistance.
In this context, Ball (2000: 1-2) seeks to understand the ‘attitude(s)’ and ‘ethical framework(s)’ in which teachers have to define themselves. Hacking (1986: 231, quoted in Ball, 2000: 2) is interested in the way these texts play their part in ‘making us up’ by providing new modes of description and new possibilities for action; thus creating new social identities - what it means to be educated; what it means ‘to be a teacher’...


The rich had to begin to share their wealth and more determined means of connecting to global wealth had to be sought. Diversity, productivity and social justice were crucial and essential for countries to grow. If these were present, then identity could assert itself.

It is this lack of a cohesive sense of what it means to be ‘South African’, posits Soudien (2001: 149), which mitigates against the success of curricular innovations such as the outcomes-based Curriculum 2005. South Africans do “not yet have a consensus on which to draw. Until then, the sparring will continue about how to present South Africa to itself”.

Castells (2001b: 115) locates identity-making in a dialectical relationship; for Castells, globalisation has led to a “contradiction between people deciding to be themselves on the one side, and the transformative system on the other”. The transformative system of which Castells speaks could be ethnic, religious, gender, as well as influences of the state and global corporate and financial institutions, all fed to a world which increasingly “starts the day with CNN Financial News” (Castells, 2001b: 115). Castells (2001a: 2-3) characterises a “new economy” which has the following three features: it is an economy “in which productivity and competitiveness are increasingly based on information technologies; it is a global economy; this global
capacity is "technological, organisational and institutional". Other dimensions of globalisation are, according to Castells (2001a: 3) the media, information systems, international institutions and the "networking of states". The overriding feature of this new global order, of course, is that it is exclusively capitalist. Castells questions whether the (economic) inequalities which have been exacerbated by globalisation are sustainable, and concludes that "the system has built-in contradictions which make it highly unlikely that it will be sustainable" (Castells, 2001a: 19).

In the same vein, Smyth (in Smyth et al, 2000: viii) writes about the (perceived) failure of global capitalism, and the resultant chaos it has unleashed on marginal economies. He states:

What is equally worrying is that the policies that have so demonstrably failed in the economic arena are the same ones that have been used to relentlessly assail schools around the world over the past two decades, and in many instances have led to the decimation of once proud public education systems. Teachers' work has been in the middle of this economic maelstrom and we must hold grave fears for schools that are now wedded to economic policies that are possibly in terminal trouble.

In section 2.3., the divergent discourses which characterised teachers' attitudes to their professional identities were foregrounded. Another context in which teachers and the work they do are placed, is the context of globalisation. In the discussion below, globalisation is related to economic, social and political discourses, and the influence of these discourses on society and its varying structures and institutions. As one social 'constituency', teachers and their work are informed by the same tensions which are experienced by actors in other social arenas. Society places a collective responsibility on teachers to 'produce' students with certain desired attributes, one of these being participation in an increasingly global economy. Teachers' perceptions or otherwise of the benefits of globalisation will impact on their 'buying into' curricula and practices which imply correspondence with the emerging discourses which
delineate the conceptualisation of globalisation. As stated on pages 18-19, teachers are located within schools whose economic statuses largely mirror the apartheid demographic structures. Teachers working in schools where poverty and unemployment are features of their students' social realities, may find relevance in Castells' assertion (2001a: 20) that "...the notion that this (skewed) system can proceed forever, while excluding two-thirds of humankind, is simply naïve". Post-apartheid South Africa remains wedded to its macro-economic doctrine encapsulated in GEAR. Castells' warning reads thus:

...the reactions that we are observing in terms of the global development process, in terms of the Seattle syndrome, fighting against the process of social exclusion, will make the system not only economically and technologically unsustainable but socially and politically unsustainable.

As this dissertation is being completed in December 2001, we witness the disintegration of the Argentinian economy, and watch the daily plunge of the South African currency, victims of global flows of capital, unchecked, and seemingly uncontrollable. The global economic order, translated in South Africa into the GEAR policy, locks South Africa's education system (see Sayed, 1999) and hence South Africa's teachers into a global economic system which marginalises virtually two-thirds of humankind. This system is socially and morally indefensible, and therefore prone to implosion (see Castells, 2000a).

This conceptualisation will inform, in the main, the analysis of the SACE Act of 2000, as this study seeks to elicit discourses of teacher professionalism from the act, and hence to map the identity of the teacher which is produced by these discourses. Methodologically, the work of Castells (2001a and 2001b) and Smyth et al (2000) informs the analysis overtly, as has been detailed in this chapter.

2 We do not wish to imply that the construct 'teachers' implies an homogenous entity; rather, the notions...
Drawing on the works of Ball (2000), Giddens (1991), Castells (1997), Chappell (1999) and Soudien (2001), we can begin to appreciate the ‘complexity’ in constructing teacher professional identity that lies at the heart of this study. If the formulation of a South African identity eludes us seven years into the life of the South African democratic project (see Soudien, 2001) then the construction of the identity of a sub-group of this still-to-be-attained South African identity, namely the South African teacher, will be that much more complex. Castells (2001a: 114) suggests that this task is vital: “I cannot think of a more important issue than identity, identity’s meaning. Meaning is what makes you live: everything else only makes you survive”.

2.5. Insights derived from the literature review

The literature review foregrounded the notion that there is no consensus around what constitutes professionalism, in general, nor what teacher professionalism, more specifically, is defined as. Further, little consensus exists as to whether it is desirable or not to pursue the professional project as a means to qualitatively improving education. Writers such as Nixon et al (1997) and McCulloch, Helsby and Knight (2000) point to a new conception of professionalism which locates teachers in an ongoing, principled dialogue with students, parents and other stakeholders in order to (re)conceptualise a teacher professionalism which embraces the democratic project in its most empowering sense. Professional status is seen by sectors of organised teachers as a means of reclaiming autonomy, while professional status for the occupation of teaching is often a result of a trade-off for increased regulation of teachers.
The literature review has established a relationship between educational reform and teacher professionalism, with a specific South African emphasis on the historically contextualised arena of teacher professionalism, and a specific emphasis on the historical divide between the unionisation of teachers as opposed to the professional organisation of teachers. This debate, it is argued, could determine the direction of the SACE, given that the historical role-players occupy pivotal positions on the new SACE Council.

The literature on teacher professionalism foregrounded the following discourses. These are:

1. Teacher professionalism as a means to solving the broader international education crisis.
2. Professionalism as a project pursued by teachers to restore a sense of social worth.
3. Professionalism as a means to improved social status.
4. Professionalism as a tool of the state to enforce control over teachers and teaching.
5. Professionalism as a tool used by teachers to pursue the goal of teacher autonomy.
6. Professionalism as a political construct.
7. Professionalism as a project that seeks to further the aims of the broader democratic social project – this entails soliciting the support of parents, students and other community actors.

Teacher identity has been contextualised within a framework that sees identity as a process-in-the-making. As teachers are called upon globally (see Chappell, 1999), and more specifically for the purposes of this study, in South Africa (see Jansen, 1999a and 1999b, Soudien, 2000 et al), to change their teaching practices due to demands
external to the teaching situation, it is understood that this impacts significantly on their subjectivities (see Chappell, 1999).

Our understanding of globalisation is as contingent, unstable, uneven and contested. It is a context of globalisation in its economic and social dimensions (amongst a range of characteristics - see Castells, 2001a and 2001b). In its economic manifestation, globalisation informs teachers' practices to the extent that a feature of globalisation is its (western) marginalisation of discourses which seek to operate outside of the market. In one sense, teachers may be (unwitting) agents of an economic system which simultaneously enriches a minority of people, whilst impoverishing approximately two-thirds of the world's population. Castells' work (1997 and 2001) largely inform this understanding.

Importantly for this study, the contextualisation of teacher identity (diverse and contested) in terms of economic globalisation is methodologically carried through to the analysis (chapter five) and discussion (chapter six). The discourses of teacher professionalism which have been elicited in this chapter will inform the choice of data items from the SACE Act of 2000 to be analysed in chapter five. Also, the conceptualisation of teacher identity, framed as it is in a context of economic globalisation, point to a preliminary understanding of teacher professionalism and teacher identity within discourses of economic imperatives.

The next chapter details the research methodology which is adopted in this dissertation, namely discourse analysis.
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, discourse analysis as research method is detailed, beginning with its grounding in theory. Secondly, the specific approach of Ian Parker (1992) is explicated. Parker’s approach to discourse analysis will be the focus of this chapter, as I have chosen his analytic framework from amongst the many varieties on offer to the discourse analytic researcher (see Burman and Parker, 1993:3). Thirdly, I detail the specific use of Parker’s approach; Parker’s ‘steps’ for discourse analysis (Parker, 1992: 7-20), and derive five methodological steps for accomplishing the analysis in chapter four.

3.2. Discourse Analysis – an introduction to the concept

In introducing discourse analysis, it is useful to foreground the fact that there are many “brands of discourse analysis...each of which involve different emphases or levels and styles of analysis” (Burman and Parker, 1993: 3).

The area is delineated, though, by a common thread; the primacy and significance of language as the focus of its intellectual scrutiny. In this vein, Luke (n.d.: 6) asserts that “(T)he principal unit of analysis for critical discourse analysis is the text”. Texts are here defined as “social actions, meaningful and coherent instances of spoken and written language use” (Luke, n.d.: 6).

Van Dijk (1997: 3-4) signals that a distinction should be made between a “common-sense” or “abstract” use of the term ‘discourse’, and a more “concrete” usage. He cites the example of this common type of usage in a reference of the type ‘the discourse of former President Ronald Reagan’. Used more concretely, a definition of ‘discourse’ is
taken (Van Dijk, 1997: 4) from a situation in which we are “dealing with a concrete example or *token* of text or talk”. For the purpose of this research, it is the latter, or more “concrete” formulation of discourse which will be the primary focus, as the data elements of the research are contained in a (written text) policy document, namely the SACE Act of 2000.

Allan Luke (n.d., p. 1) writes that discourse analysis “focuses on how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written and spoken texts in communities, schools and classrooms”. In his view, discourse analysis draws from three main areas of thought, namely “poststructuralism, ...(Pierre) Bourdieu’s sociology...and neomarxist cultural theory” (Luke, n.d.: 5).

Poststructuralist theory is especially useful as a conceptual home for discourse analysis, as the poststructuralists posit

> an understanding of discourse as multiple, contingent, unstable, external to, and constitutive of the subject or the self: conceptions that remain incompatible with the familiar forms of educational relativism. (Blake *et al*, 1998: 18)

Ian Parker (1992), whose framework is the key to this dissertation “draws selectively and cautiously on work from this tradition” to construct his discourse analytic framework (see Parker’s discourse analysis later in this chapter).

Two distinct tasks for discourse analysis are identified by Luke (n.d.: 6). Firstly, as a “deconstructive” method of analysis, it “render(s) problematic the themes and power relations of everyday talk and writing”. “In its constructive moment…it aims towards an expansion of students’ capacities to critique and analyse discourse and social relations, and (assists) towards a more equitable distribution of discourse resources” (from Fairclough, 1992, in Luke (n.d., 6).
Foucault (1980, in Parker, 1992, pp. 18-19) who "popularised the couplet 'power/knowledge'", is, in Parker's view, incorrect to do so. The concepts power and knowledge must be separated, as to avoid doing so sets a trap for the researcher who seeks to empower "those at the sharp end of dominant discourses and discursive practices" (Parker, 1992: 18). Poulantzas (1978), quoted in Parker (1992: 18) asserts that "if power is everywhere", as asserted by Foucault (1980), "it would be pointless to refer to it and (hence) politically fruitless to attack it". Parker, elaborating on this position, lists three reasons for rendering separate the 'couplet' power/knowledge. These reasons are (Parker, 1992: 18-19):

1. The "relationship" between the terms "power and resistance" would be lost;
2. "We would lose sight of the ways in which discourses that challenge power are often tangled in oppressive discourses", and as alluded to earlier,
3. Researchers would be hard pressed to find a way of "empowering" those not in a position to produce or manufacture "dominant discourses".

We now turn our full attention to the theorist Ian Parker whose discourse analytic framework is used as the principal means of analysis in Chapter 5.

3.3. Parker's Discourse Analytic framework

In his 'Introduction' (Parker, 1992: xi) Parker submits that "(Y)ou take your first step into discourse research as you take your first step away from language".

He continues: "Language is so structured to mirror power relations that often we can see no other ways of being...". Later in the same text (p. 21), he attests that "an attention to language can...facilitate a process of progressively politicising everyday life".
As stated earlier in this chapter, Parker locates himself within a poststructuralist framework (1992: xii) although he cautions that he “draw(s) selectively and cautiously on work from this tradition to connect an analysis of discourse with studies of power and ideology...”, and uses the work of the post-structuralist writers to show how the study of language must attend to tensions and contradictions which express political matters...an analysis of discourse could become just another method, just an academic exercise, and then just as pointless as other frameworks ...(used) to describe action and experience...The study of the dynamics which structure texts has to be located in an account of the ways discourses reproduce and transform the material world.

Language and matters political lie at the heart of Parker’s analytic framework. His is not solely an academic enterprise, but one that has as a goal the analysis of underlying social and political realities which occur in a real world.

“Discourses,” writes Parker (1992: 4) “do not simply describe the social world, but categorise it, they bring phenomena into sight”. Put slightly differently,

discourses allow us to see things that are not ‘really’ there, and that once an object has been elaborated in a discourse it is difficult not to refer to it as if it were real. Discourses provide frameworks for debating the value of one way of talking about reality over other ways. (Parker, 1992: 4-5)

Parker sees discourse analysis as providing a means of analysis which “deliberately systematises different ways of talking so we can understand them better” (Parker, 1992: 5, original italics). He further defines a discourse as “a system of statements which constructs an object” (Parker, 1992: 5). In order to “support” this definition, he identifies “seven criteria, the system of statements that should be used to identify our object, (which is) to enable us to engage with, and in, discourse analysis” (Parker, 1992: 5, original italics). Whilst the suggestion of “criteria” seems to imply that there is a well-defined and delineated “methodology” available to the discourse analyst using Parker’s framework, this is not the case. He states (Parker, 1992: 5): “I do not want to suggest that the criteria presented...constitute a method, that they should
necessarily be employed sequentially, but that they will help to clear up some of the confusions" which the discourse analyst is confronted with. In keeping with Parker’s cautionary statement, I attempt to address this methodological ‘impasse’ by deriving a set of discourse analytic tools from the conceptual framework of Parker (1992).

Parker’s approach to discourse analysis is also used by Macleod (1993) and Rabinowitz (1999). This study envisages a consolidation of their approach, by systematising Parker’s ten criteria for distinguishing discourses (see 3.4. below) and his twenty steps for effecting a discourse analysis, and deriving a focussed, incisive set of discourse analytic tools from this broad framework. It is hoped that researchers who wish to utilise the research methodology of discourse analysis will be able to use, and refine, the set of discourse analytic ‘tools’ in future research projects. If the tools which are derived from this study can be successfully utilised to analyse different texts, it would constitute a test of validity of the tools.

The next section is an explication of the “seven criteria for distinguishing discourses” (Parker, 1992: 6) as well as an additional “three (crucial) auxiliary criteria” (p. 17).

3.4. Parker’s seven criteria, and three related steps, for identifying discourses

1. Discourses are realised in texts (Parker, 1992: 6). Pieces of discourses are found in texts. These pieces of discourse can be interpreted and analysed.

2. A discourse is about objects (p. 8). In the context of this research, the text itself is an object.

3. A discourse contains subjects (p. 9). Discourses present individuals with subject positions and practices which these individuals can assume.
4. A discourse is a coherent system of meanings (p. 10). In keeping with a poststructuralist approach, we note that there are different ways of talking about teachers, professionalism and teacher identities. It is left to the reader to bring a sense of coherence to (this) text, and to map the ‘world’ which these discourses offer up.

5. A discourse refers to other discourses (p. 12). Discourses operate within other discourses, and may contradict these discourses, as well as support them. This intertextuality is at the heart of the ‘method’ proffered in the next chapter.

6. A discourse reflects on its own way of speaking (p. 14). Discourses are self-justifying, i.e. they offer a ‘way’ of being read.

7. A discourse is historically located (p. 15). All discourses have origins. Over time, discourses are revised and undergo change.

8. Discourses support institutions (auxiliary criterion 1) (p. 17). The existence of certain institutions may be supported or justified by the ‘utilisation’ of certain chosen discourses.

9. Discourses reproduce power relations (auxiliary criterion 2) (p. 18). In the context of this research, teachers are constructed through certain discourses, which limit the possibilities of teachers acting effectively outside of these prescribed roles.

10. Discourses have ideological effects (auxiliary criterion 3) (p. 19). They describe and reproduce certain relationships (power), their practices and the acknowledged ‘truths’ about these relationships.

McKinnon (1999: 48) notes that formulating Parker’s analytic framework as in the case above is somewhat contrived, as it is an attempt at “illustrating steps in a process, rather than engaging in discourse analysis per se”.
What is important is that we note that discourses shape views of the world, and accommodate certain types of actions (as opposed to others). Further, discourses offer certain constructions of the self — they give “voice to some and not to others” (McKinnon, 1999: 48).

Before we offer a working discourse analytic ‘method’ in the next chapter, we cast a critical eye to discourse analysis as a research tool. This is presented in order to establish that the methodology which will be adopted in this research is not unproblematic, and also to establish checks and balances for this analysis in chapter five.

3.5. Problems associated with Discourse Analysis as ‘method’

Particularly useful, for the integrity of this project, is the fact that the criticisms of discourse analysis outlined below come from the pen of the writer (and a co-writer, Erica Burman) whose discourse analytic framework is the core of this thesis’ analysis. Whilst this may be a shortcoming in one sense, it attests, in the opinion of this writer, to the rigorous scrutiny to which discourse analysis is subjected by its own advocates. This rigour is necessary, as with all matters academic, in order to ensure the advancement of the particular area of intellectual activity, here, discourse analysis.

Parker and Burman (1993) identify “thirty-two problems with discourse analysis”.

For the purposes of this research, a selection of these problems, particularly pertinent to this writer, are enumerated (Parker and Burman, 1993: 155-168).

1. Discourse analysis is very labour-intensive.

2. One can often not “make broad empirical generalizations” (p. 156).
3. The analyst is often confined to the text.

4. The analysis often leads us into “trying to close the text to alternative readings” (p. 156).

5. If one is not aware of “cultural trends, (and) of allusions to political and social developments...” you cannot produce a reading (p. 158).

6. Discourse analysts often are “suspicious of what is manifest”, in search of “hidden meanings” (p. 159).

7. Discourse analysis offers a slipping into relativism (due to “aspects of reflexivity”) – “it then becomes a route from politics to opportunism” (pp. 161-2).

8. When discourses are treated as abstractions, having independent “meaning systems that float above social practice...(it) can work to remove discourse analysis from the realms of everyday life” (p. 162).

9. The analysis can easily be appropriated by the analyst – this is particularly relevant when dealing with people and their narratives.

10. Attention to (the) subjectivity of interpretation could be seen as detaching the analysis from reality (p. 168).

In concluding this section on the problems associated with discourse analysis, it is prudent to point to the fact that this research project, constituting a discourse analysis itself, is subject to the very scrutiny to which the researched texts (SACE Act of 2000 and related texts) is subjected. It therefore behoves me to take cognisance of the weaknesses and criticisms which have been identified above, and to attempt to impose rigorous methodological clarity and political insights into the analysis in chapter five.

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3.6. What can discourse analysis accomplish?

Parker (1992: 21) poses the question as to what a discourse analysis can accomplish. His answer is quoted his treatise in full:

Discourse analysis should bring about an understanding of the way things were, not the way things are. Another way of putting this is to say that when we strike a critical distance from a discourse we, in a sense, put it behind us, consign it to the past. If we adopt the three auxiliary criteria, we describe, educate and change the way discourse is used. Discourse analysis should become a variety of action research, in which the internal system of any discourse and its relation to others is challenged. It alters, and so permits different spaces for manoeuvre and resistance.

The ‘spectre’ of relativism needs to be resolved if an analysis of institutions, power and ideology is to be undertaken with some measure of success. “We need some sense of the real to anchor our understanding of the dynamics of discourse” (Parker, 1992: 22).

This attention to locating discourse analysis within a real world, not one in which words refer exclusively to other words, or discourses exclusively to other discourses, is what attracted me initially to Parker’s framework. As discussed earlier, acceptance of the need to ground one’s work in a real world, occupied by agents who can decisively, if on a small scale, influence their lives, is a departure from ‘purist’ poststructuralist thought.

3.7. Parker’s ‘steps’ for discourse analysis

The steps which are presented below constitute a method for undertaking a discourse analysis (Parker, 1992: 7-20). The seventeen steps listed below are a summary of Parker’s methodology, which are enumerated between pages 7-20 of his 1992 work⁴.

1. Deal with the objects of study as texts that are described or put into words.

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2. Explore connotations in the texts.

3. Ask what objects are referred to, and describe them.

4. Specify what types of persons are talked about in the discourse(s).

5. Speculate about the rights of the persons identified in four above, to speak in that way of speaking.

6. Map a picture of the world the discourse presents.

7. Work out how a text using the discourse would deal with objections to this terminology.

8. Pit contrasting discourses against each other and look at the different objects they constitute.

9. Refer to other texts to elaborate the discourse.

10. Reflect on the term used to describe the discourse. This entails moral/political choices on the part of the analyst.

11. Look at how and where the discourses emerged.

12. Describe how these historically located discourses have changed.

13. Identify institutions that are reinforced when various discourses are used.

14. Identify institutions that are attacked or subverted when particular discourses appear.

15. Look at which categories of person gain and lose from the employment of the discourse.

16. Look at who would want to promote and who would want to dissolve the discourse.

17. Show how the discourses allow dominant groups to tell their narratives about the past in order to justify the present, and prevent those who use subjugated discourses from making history.
In order to design a structured and workable framework in which to analyse the texts, I organised the seventeen steps above into a set of coherent discourse analytic tools. The method, and its resultant analytical tools or ‘steps’, follows in the next section.

3.8. Grouping the analytic steps

The magnitude of the analytic task necessitates that the steps above be ‘categorised’, in order to facilitate a coherent, yet inclusive analysis, which does justice to the task as planned. The seventeen steps above can be grouped according to the following organising principles. Firstly, greater control over the elements to be analysed is theoretically enabled. The process of ‘clustering’ the analytic steps involved the grouping of theoretical and practical steps, which provides a practical framework in which to effect the analysis. Secondly, it is an enabling mechanism, as it necessitates making choices between competing terms which contain in themselves the essence of all the terms incorporated into the ensuing single term. The grouped elements that emerge from this process, and which constitute the analytic steps which will be used to analyse the texts in chapter five, are thus as follows:

1. Objects described by the discourse (steps 1, 3 and 8 above);
2. Linguistic connotations, allusions and implications (steps 2, 3, 9 and 10 above);
3. Historical emergence of discourse (steps 11 and 12 above);
4. World constituted by discourse (steps 6 and 16 above);
5. Institutions and categories of persons reinforced/subverted by employment of the discourse (steps 4, 5, 7, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17 above).

The five categories above are constituted in terms of the correspondence and relatedness of the steps as outlined by Parker. In Category 1 we are dealing with the “objects of study as texts”, attempting to describe these texts, and assessing different
discourses simultaneously with a view to eliciting the “different objects” these competing discourses describe.

Category 2 is an exploration of objects and their descriptions, associated connotation(s), intertextuality, and assessing the suitability of the term chosen to describe the discourse.

Category 3 looks at the origin of the discourse(s), and describes how the “historically located” discourse has changed.

Category 4 attempts to map a “picture of the world” which is constructed through the discourse, and seeks to find proponents and opponents of the discourse.

Category 5 identifies the subjects “spoken about” in the discourse, assesses the “rights” of the identified persons to speak in that discourse, and establishes how persons appropriating the discourse would deal with objections to the discursive terminology. In addition, the category identifies institutions which are respectively reinforced and subverted by the discourse. In essence, this category seeks to show how “dominant groups” use the discourse to justify history, and how these dominant groups use the discourse to prevent persons using “subjugated” discourses from constructing a dominant history.

This grouping of the analytic steps is intended to facilitate a more focused analysis. This strategy assisted largely in making the seventeen analytic steps, which already delineate the analytic method, into a workable, and hence into a practical and potentially more manageable intellectual exercise. For the writer, this is an important consideration, as critics of discourse analysis and indeed practitioners themselves often cite the fact that discourse analysis can be extremely labour-intensive (see Problems associated with Discourse Analysis as ‘method’ in the previous chapter).
Within the space constraints of this study, this consideration assumes a particularly strong weighting.

The analysis in the next chapter, then, will interrogate the SACE Act of 2000 under the five headings which constitute the analytic steps for undertaking a discourse analysis. The SACE Act of 2000 and the texts which will assist in the task of identifying the discourses of teacher professionalism in the SACE Act of 2000, will be analysed, with a view to constructing/rendering explicit the identity(-ies) of the South African teacher implicit in the SACE Act of 2000.
CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

The previous chapter detailed the methodological approach to this study, emphasising the need for a tightly focussed yet incisive set of analytic tools with which to analyse the SACE Act of 2000. This was based, primarily, on the notion that a discourse analysis can become a huge task physically (see ‘Problems associated with Discourse Analysis as method’ in the previous chapter). The need, then, was to define the analytic categories more keenly so as to derive a set of tools which would be able to interrogate the text keenly and, within the limitations of this thesis, as succinctly as possible.

The next section details this derived analytic framework in greater detail.

4.2. Analytic framework

Seventeen of the twenty analytic steps of Parker (1992) were chosen as the analytic steps through which to conduct the discourse analysis. The three steps not chosen pertain primarily to spoken text, and focus around notions of transcription and the like, which is not within the ambit of this research.

The process which was followed in order to arrive at the five analytic tools has been detailed in Chapter 4 (section 4.3.). The five tools that will be used to conduct the analysis, are as follows:

1. Object.
2. Intertextual references.
3. Historical emergence of the discourse.
4. The ‘world’ constituted by the discourse.
5. Institutions and persons reinforced/subverted by employment of the discourse.

Before describing the process of selecting data items from the text, a complete sectional breakdown of the SACE Act of 2000 is presented on the following page as Table One. This is effected in order to assist the reader in obtaining an overview of the entire text so that the next section, detailing the particular data items extracted from the Act, can be read in the context of the entire contents of the Act.

The four chapters of the Act are divided into twenty-nine sections, with chapter two, dealing with the ‘powers’ of the council, being the most voluminous, consisting as it does of seventeen sections, as compared to the remaining twelve sections, which are equally spread over the remaining three chapters. Section 28 of the Act repeals Chapter 6 of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (Act No. 76 of 1998), which first legislated the “juristic person” of the South African Council for Educators. This item will be more fully discussed in the analysis in this chapter, as well as in the discussion in the next chapter.

Having described the Act in terms of its contents, by revealing its chapter-and-section headings (See Table 1), we now discuss the selection of data items from the Act, which will form the objects of analysis in this thesis.

4.3. Selection of data items from the text

This section describes the process of selection of data from the text (SACE Act of 2000) which are to be analysed. This process involves choices on the part of the researcher, which could impact on the resultant analysis. An elaboration of the process is thus methodologically necessary in order for the reader to assess whether or not the data selection was rigorous and thorough, or whether it was arbitrary.
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Table One: The SACE Act of 2000 – sectional description.
Two processes were selected to assist in this process. Firstly, the literature review (see Chapter Two) had provided a strong focus in terms of the discourses and terms which characterised the research area.

In terms of this research, the literature review exists as more than a framing mechanism which assists in locating the research. A deliberate aim of the literature review, which was informed by the approach of McCulloch, Helsby and Knight (2000), sees the emerging analysis in this thesis forming a continuum with "engagement" in the literature, both in the international arena as well as the local intellectual output. In this way, the literature review is used as a framework against which the discourses of teacher professionalism in the SACE Act could be mapped.

Secondly, cognisance was taken of the notion that for an incisive analysis to be effected, due care had to be exercised in order to incorporate those data items which would facilitate as complete an analysis as could be effected. Thus, decisions to include or exclude items were settled on the basis that inclusion in the analytic process was preferable over non-inclusion, as the possibility of significant items being excluded would potentially detract from the intended breadth and depth of the research focus.

Table 2 which follows is a conceptual map of the analysis as it will unfold in the rest of this chapter. The first column (Parker's analytic tool reference number) indicates the specific tools suggested by Parker (1992).

The second column (Analytic category) are the five overarching categories which were derived from the seventeen steps (incorporated in Column 1 of Table 2), and which procedure was detailed earlier in this chapter.
The third column constitutes the data items from the SACE Act of 2000 that are to form the objects of the analysis in this chapter. The identification of these items was facilitated, in the main, by the conceptual knowledge gained through conducting the literature review (see Chapter 2), with the methodological approach being one of deliberately utilising the insights and terminology gained from the literature review component of this research as the catalytic element in the process of identifying the elements from the SACE Act to be analysed in this regard. It is necessary to point out that although the terms identified for analysis appear elsewhere in the Act, they do not appear there in contexts which assist the discourse analyst in ‘unpacking’ the terms, as is the case relative to the terms identified for analysis. An example of this is the term “educator” (Data item 1), which is analysed in terms of its usage and definition in the Act in section 1(iii)). Here it is chosen because the Act defines the term, and facilitates an analysis in terms of the adopted methodology. In sections 2(a), 2(b), 2(c), 3, 5(a) and 5(b)(ii) et al of the SACE Act of 2000, the term is used in contexts which are, in the context of the analytical framework, not useful, and it is subsumed under contextually more important items which are identified as data items required in the analysis. The terms which constitute the data elements, then, are identified, as stated earlier, by the discourses of teacher professionalism elicited in the literature review process. It is, in fact, the literature review, incorporating both the international and South African literature, which allows this researcher to bring to the identification of the data elements to be analysed, a reservoir of gained knowledge of linguistic items which foreground themselves as objects which have already been defined in terms of the discourses which emerged from the literature review process.
<table>
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<td></td>
<td>5(b)(ii) (dd)</td>
<td>educator professionalism</td>
<td>autonomy; status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6, 16</td>
<td>Discourse ‘world’</td>
<td>From analysis</td>
<td>From analysis</td>
<td>From analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4, 5, 7, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17</td>
<td>Institutions and persons affected by employment of discourse</td>
<td>From analysis</td>
<td>From analysis</td>
<td>From analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table Two. Conceptual map of SACE Act of 2000 data items to analyse

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5 The numbers in this column are references to Parker's seventeen steps for facilitating a discourse analysis. The steps have already been enumerated in the Methodology chapter.
A ‘template’ of linguistic items, which contain ideological, political, social and educational ‘weight’, exists as a direct consequence of the insights gained from a deliberate and focussed reading of the international and local literature, and from prior knowledge of the researcher, who has worked in teacher organisations for the past decade, and who has also found meaningful opportunities for educational ‘activism’ in parent-teacher-student organisations during and after the period of apartheid education.

The literature review has facilitated methodological steps which are now incorporated into the analysis. Table Two (column five) presents discourses of professionalism which were elicited from the literature review. These discourses are used as indicators, against which to ascertain whether or not these are present in the SACE Act of 2000 as well. The analysis of the SACE Act is thus prefigured by insights and knowledge brought from the literature review. Data items such as the concept “education and training” in section 5(b) of the Act, foreground themselves, as these are contested and controversial terms in the literature (see, for example, Christie, 1997).

The analysis which follows, utilising as it does identified terms (single words and phrases) for scrutiny, justifies this approach in view of the argument in the preceding paragraphs, as well as by pointing to the fact that the chosen data items contain within themselves the arguments raised in the discourses of professionalism identified in the Literature Review. An example is data item “trains” [Section 1(iii)] which is a term traditionally used outside of the formal nomenclature of education, but primarily associated with vocational training. The use of this term, in combination with “education”, invites a spectrum of discussion which centres around the discourses of
globalisation, incorporating discourses of marketisation in education. A rich discussion, in the sketched contexts, is feasible and methodologically consistent in terms of the analytic framework detailed in this section and in the previous chapter.

The final column of the table, which records the discourses of teacher professionalism elicited from the literature review process, attempts to position these discourses *vis-à-vis* the data elements which are to be analysed. The last point indicates the specific methodology of the analysis section. The positioning of these discourses in relation to the data elements to be analysed are accounted for in the same terms as the argument which was forwarded for the initial selection of the same data elements, namely that it was these very discourses which were identified during the review process which informed the selection of the data items from the SACE Act. The table thus locates these discourses in relation to the data elements which it informs, and to which these discourses are thus related.

The identified key words, as these appear in the Act, find resonance in the Literature Review (see Chapter Two) which initially facilitated the identification and discussion of similar terms. Thus, as stated earlier in this section, the key words in Table Two are at once independently elicited, whilst simultaneously being located within the conceptual map which emerged from the Literature Review initially.

The next section begins the process of analysis. Following from the methodology described in chapter 4, the process incorporates the following steps. A systematic mapping of each data item (see Table Two, column four) is effected by incorporating Parker’s (1992) methodological steps, as appears in Table Two, column two. Thus, each data item is subjected to an analysis which is encapsulated under the headings of the five analytical categories (derived as these are from the seventeen discourse
analysis steps of Parker, and which process of derivation has been described in the methodology chapter and earlier in this chapter) which appear in column two of Table Two. Throughout this process, a deliberate attempt is made to incorporate data items from the SACE Act which appear in other sections of the Act, so as to begin to articulate a coherent description of the data items as these are related. In this regard, the relevant data items identified in the table have been grouped relative to their addressing the same issues, and what emerges are the following data items which are to form the objects of this analysis.

Data item 1: *educator.*

Data item 2: *organised profession.*

Data item 3: *ELRC (Education Labour Relations Council).*

Data item 4: *professional development.*

Data item 5: *ethical and professional standards.*

Data item 6: *education and training profession.*

Data item 7: *professional image.*

Data item 8: *educator professionalism.*

Data item 9: *registered educators.*

Data item 10: *(council) may advise the Minister on any relevant educational aspect.*

A concurrent process is the infusion of the previously identified discourses of teacher professionalism derived from the literature review. As stated earlier, the engagement with the international and local literature has facilitated the identification of data items from the SACE Act which can usefully be classified as forming part of the prior identified discourses. The analysis itself will reveal whether or not any new discourses will emerge from this reading of the Act.
At the end of each piece of analysis, a short summary, “Issues arising from the analysis”, will be presented so as to facilitate the discussion in the next chapter.

The data items are now analysed vis-à-vis the methodology outlined earlier in this section. Each data item is analysed individually.

4.4. Analysis

**Data item 1: educator [Section 1(iii)]**

a) **Unit of analysis: Object**

The object of this section is the educator. As defined in this section of the Act, the educator is constituted as “any person…who teaches, educates or trains” persons at “institutions”, which are elaborated on in section 1(v) of the Act. A qualification to this general description of the educator is provided in the same section [1(iii)] as other persons “who provide professional educational services, including professional therapy and educational psychological services”.

b) **Unit of analysis: Intertextual references**

Section 1(iii) of the Act is contingent upon section 3 of the same Act. Three other acts of the South African legislature are included in section 3. These three acts are pieces of legislation under which educators can be appointed to posts in the various institutions named in section 1(v), namely schools, further education and training institutions and adult learning centres. The acts as named in section 1(v) are:

Section 3 further regulates that the educators in section 1(iii) include those appointed “at an independent school” [section 3(d)].

But this description of the educator is not complete, revealing merely that educators are distinguished between on the basis of three *activities*, and defined in terms of the three acts above. As an integral unit in discourse analysis, the researcher locates data in terms of where this data is further elucidated. In terms of this research, the SACE Act of 2000 itself points to three (earlier) pieces of legislation. The first, the Employment of Educators Act of 1998, initially legislated the juristic body called the South African Council for Educators (SACE) in 1998; chapter six of this act was named as ‘South African Council for Educators’. This chapter is repealed in terms of Section 28 of the SACE Act of 2000.

The Employment of Educators Act (p. 2), in its description of the contents of the Act, reads as follows:

To provide for the employment of educators by the State, for the regulation of the conditions of service, discipline, retirement and discharge of educators and for matters connected therewith.

The table below describes the contents of the Act. Significant for this study is Chapter Six of the act (see Table Three below), which is now repealed in terms of the South African Council for Educators Act of 2000, which text forms the basis of this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interpretation and application of Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Conditions of service and educator establishments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Appointments, promotions and transfers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Termination of services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Incapacity and misconduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>South African Council for Educators*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table Three: The Employment of Educators Act, 1998 – sectional description.

* Repealed in terms of Section 28 of the South African Council for Educators Act, Act No. 31 of 2000.
The Employment of Educators Act of 1998 defines in greater detail, the “educator”, which is the object of this section of the analysis. Section 1(v) of the Employment of Educators Act adds a further ‘institution’ at which an educator “who is appointed in a post on any educator establishment under this Act” (Employment of Educators Act), may be employed. Further, the SACE Act of 2000 extends the ambit of control in terms of the definitions of “further education and training institution” as appears in the two Acts. Whereas the (earlier) Employment of Educators Act “does not include any private further education and training institution” [Section 1(vii)] under its jurisdiction, the (later) SACE Act of 2000 declares that FET institutions now mean “a public or private further education and training institution” defined in terms of the Further Education and Training Act (Act No. 98 of 1998, section 1). The inclusion of private institutions under the auspices of the SACE Act of 2000 will be discussed in the next chapter, as it appears to indicate what commentators have labelled the marketisation of education, pertaining to the increasing dominance of private capital in educational provision (see Kallaway, 1997; Baxen and Soudien, 1999; Colclough, 1993 and Crouch, 1998 for an elaboration of the market discourse in education).

Significantly, though, the SACE Act of 2000 does not allude to a critical text which has great significance for this analysis, in that it constructs the object “educator” in ways which will prove crucial in the discussion phase of this research. The National Education Policy Act (Act No. 27 of 1996) defines an educator as in the previously quoted texts, but also includes a section titled Norms and Standards for Educators (Government Notice 82 of 4 February 2000; see Appendix 2). This document “describes the roles, their associated set of applied competences (norms) and qualifications (standards) for the development of educators” (section 1 - original
italicisation). A far broader definition of "educator" is provided for in the same section of the National education Policy Act, which states that the term "educator"

includes educators in the classroom, heads of departments, deputy-principals, principals, education development officers, district and regional managers and systems managers.

The *Norms and Standards for Educators* document (section 3) states that "(T)he cornerstone of this Norms and Standards policy is the notion of applied competence and its associated assessment criteria".

The analysis now focuses on items in the *Norms and Standards for Educators* document which will facilitate the discussion in the next chapter. "Some competences," states the text in the same section, "may be seen to be more suitable for experienced rather than beginning educators..." and continues three paragraphs later to indicate that "(E)ducators will need some proficiency in more than one official language". The terms in the document which we wish to highlight are those which are derived from the discourse of outcomes-based education, with its "too complex, confusing and at times contradictory" language (Jansen, 1999a: 147). In this context, the document lists items such as competence, learning area, foundation phase and outcomes.

In section 3, a section titled *Notes on the Roles and their Associated Competences*, the document states that "(T)he list of roles and their associated competences...is meant to serve as a description of what it means to be a competent educator" (original italicisation). As indicated, this is not in the SACE Act, and the implications thereof will be a crucial aspect of the discussion in the next chapter. The "seven roles" which are ascribed in the *Norms and Standards for Educators* (incorporated in the National Education Policy Act of 1996) are:
1. Educator as "(L)earning mediator".
2. Educator as "(I)nterpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials".
3. Educator as "(L)eader, administrator and manager".
4. Educator as "(S)cholar, researcher and lifelong learner".
5. Educator acting in "(C)ommunity, citizenship and pastoral role".
6. Educator as "(A)ssessor".
7. Educator as "(L)earning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist".

Each of the seven roles above are extensively broken down into three categories of competence, these being practical, foundational and reflexive competences.

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

The educator as defined in this section in Table 2 indicates that the discourse which permeates this terminological usage is that of the discourse of status and transformation. In tracing the historical emergence of the term "educator", we locate these in the discourse of status. The literature review provided insights into, for example, the manner in which calls for increased teacher professionalism in apartheid-South Africa were viewed as an attempt on the part of the teaching fraternity to gain "...status within ethnically-defined population groups" (Kihn, 1993: 123). In the international literature, Burbules and Densmore (1991: 46) drew attention to the idea that "making the attainment of professional status by teachers the 'number one priority' of educational reform distracts attention away from more fundamental problems facing schools".

In terms of the previous section, which identified and located the language of the National Education Policy Act's *Norms and Standards for Educators* within the discourse of outcomes-based education, this section looks at the origin of this
discourse, as the discussion in the next chapter has to take cognisance (within this discourse analytic framework) of the historical location of the discourse.

The transformation discourse in South African education includes the emergence of a new curricular model, namely outcomes-based education. The democratic government in power since 1994 has made curricular reform a priority, and has posited that the outcomes-model which has been adopted is a significant indicator of a move away from apartheid curricula. The history of the outcomes model of education is fiercely debated, with proponents and critics divided as to the veracity of the others’ arguments. This research takes the view that the outcomes-based model in South Africa, as applied to education has its origins in four distinct but related fields. These four areas (in Jansen 1999b: 146), are identified as Skinnerian behaviourism, Bloom’s concept of mastery learning, vocational education models in the United Kingdom, and the Australian and New Zealand competency debates, which, in Jansen’s terms (1999b: 146) are the “most immediate origin of OBE” in South Africa.

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

Three distinct characterisations of the educator are detailed in section 1(iii). As described in the Act, educators are defined in terms of three activities, namely teaching, educating and training. The order of this delineation of educator ‘activities’ may be (but is not definitively stated to be so in the SACE Act of 2000) linked to the institutions [see section 1(v)] at which these activities are assumed to occur. In such terms, it appears likely that “teaching” occurs at “schools”; “educating” occurs at “further education and training institutions” such as the traditional university, and “training” occurs at “adult learning centres” and at the afore-mentioned “further

7 The ‘father’ of OBE is ‘acknowledged’ to be William Spady. The reader/researcher can fruitfully engage with his extensive writing in books and journals.
education and training institutions". For the purposes of this analysis the differentiation of educator activities at the different institutions at which they work relates directly to the discourse of status. What we are confronted with is a non-homogeneous and differential status of educators performing different functions at different types of institutions, to different types of learners (at schools, universities, technikons and the like).

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

Taking as the framework in this section the discourse of status as it pertains to the political implications on institutions and certain categories of persons who are incorporated into the discourse, multiple issues emerge. For one, the relative positioning of the various institutions (schools, technikons, universities et al) in the discourse have implications in terms of power. Power in this sense is as posited by Foucault (1982: 777-795), who does not view power as something extrinsic to social networks, but rather as residing in every social action. He asserts that relations of power are entrenched in the social network. As part of that society, then, living is defined as acting upon actions within the social fabric. People (in the context of this research, educators) possess various degrees of power, and act on the basis of this (perceived) power. The discussion in the next chapter will focus on the relative power(s) of the lay public in defining this status. In keeping with the analytic framework of Parker, we also look at the positions of parents and students. It is noticeable that the two groups mentioned, namely parents and students (see Nixon et al, 1997: 5), are not mentioned in a specific context in the SACE Act of 2000.

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9 For this aspect of the analysis, I rely on the works of Jansen, 1999a and 1999b, and Muller, 1998.
9 Jean Baudrillard (1983) in In the Shadow of the Silent Majorities or, The End of the Social and other Essays (translated by Paul Foss, John Johnston and Paul Patton) disputes that such a thing as 'the
Issues arising from the analysis of the data

1. The SACE Act of 2000 is located within, and is informed by the broader South African educational and economic policy contexts.

2. The inclusion of independent (private) schools in the SACE Act of 2000 foregrounds an example of the privatisation of education discourse in the Act.

3. Teachers in the Norms and Standards for Educators document are defined in terms of competencies and outcomes models.

4. The professional status of the educator is contextualised within a broad discourse of the globalisation and marketisation. Here, too, the outcomes discourse, in the context of its discursive origins in South Africa in relation to positioning students in the global job market, locates teachers in the same economic discursive frame.

5. Parents’ and students’ power relative to that of educators has been a feature of this section of the analysis.

Data item 2: organised profession [Section 1(viii)]

a) Unit of analysis: Object

The object constituted as the “organised profession” is defined in the Act as “all trade unions or federations of trade unions which are members of the Education Labour Relations Council”, hereinafter ELRC. Two issues are highlighted by this proclamation. Firstly, all educators are required by law to be members of one or other of the teacher trade unions or federation of trade unions. A second issue is that not all of South Africa’s educators are registered members of trade unions or federations which are party to the deliberations of the Education Labour Relations Council. This is so by virtue of the decree that only educator unions which can claim a minimum public’ exists, or has existed. For the purposes of this research, the ‘public’ is constituted in Baudrillarian
membership of 20 000 members are entitled to membership of the ELRC, as per section 6 of the ELRC’s constitutional provisions. The implications of the second issue are that not all educator unions, and hence not all educators, have direct access to the deliberations of the SACE, although all educators have to be registered with the SACE.

b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references

Section 6 of the Act deals with the composition of the SACE Council, whose four duties (see SACE Act in Appendix 1) are legislated in section 5 of the Act. The Council, whose members are “appointed by the Minister” [section 6(1)] are indicated in Table Four (below). Table Four shows which stakeholder section of SACE nominates the persons, and how many persons are nominated by each sector.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component of SACE Council</th>
<th>No. of persons on Council</th>
<th>Nominating group as defined by SACE Act</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chairperson</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>All new members of Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educators</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>organised profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Education officials</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National associations of school governing bodies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Associations of school governing bodies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Council on Higher Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Council on Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Councils of FET institutions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Councils of FET institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National associations of ‘recognised’ independent or private institutions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>National bodies representing ‘recognised’ independent or private institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief executive officer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>SACE Council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table Four – The composition of the SACE Council as per section 6(1)(a-h) of the SACE Act of 2000

From the table above, it can be seen that the “organised profession” enjoys numerical superiority over the combined total of the other organised stakeholder components of the Council. The discourse of control emerges significantly in this section, in that, *de*
facto, union structures dominate the legislative functioning of the SACE Council. This point is significant, as the Literature Review relates the struggle of teacher unions in the apartheid era to begin to challenge apolitical notions of teacher professionalism.

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

The literature review is replete with references (see, for example, Lawn and Ozga, 1981; Kihn, 1993; Shalem, 1990 and Ashley, 1985) to the divide between what was traditionally known as professional teacher associations and teacher unions. Agitating for the labour rights of teachers was seen as the sphere of operations of the union movement, while issues regarding the intellectual issues of teaching were historically the concern of "professional" teacher associations. Recent developments (see, for example, Hindle and Simspom, 1993 and the work of Education International) have articulated an amalgamation of the two historically antagonistic approaches to the organisation of teachers. In this regard, it is interesting that the largest teacher union component within the "organised profession" sector of SACE, namely SADTU, rallied at a recent national convention under the slogan "unionise for professional development". The discourses which emerge from this analysis are autonomy and status.

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

The term "organised" within the construction "organised profession" by implication indicates a desirable state, i.e. that of educators being "organised" as against those educators who are, as per the construction therefore, "not organised". As indicated under the category "Object" in this second item of analysis, not all members of the "organised profession" are directly represented in SACE. The implicit value construct
here is critical, from two perspectives. Firstly, for educators, the status and privilege accorded the “organised” sector of the profession (in the form of representation on decision-making bodies affecting the work of educators) theoretically constructs a two-tier conceptualisation of educators: one privileged (organised sector) and the other marginalised (non-organised sector). But this theoretical construction invites debate as to whether educators should be compelled to become members of trade unions (implications for individual autonomy), and whether those educators who do not gain access to SACE due to (previously stated) lack of membership of their unions, are not being discriminated against.

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

Of importance in the analysis of the privileging or otherwise of institutions vis-à-vis the discourses of autonomy (see ‘World constituted by discourse above’) and status, is the foregrounding of the fact that even sectors of the “organised profession” are marginalised from the processes of their newly-legislated professional council in the form of SACE. We can therefore begin to differentiate between privileged (in terms of access) and non-privileged educator union structures, as well as between privileged and non-privileged educators in their individual capacities (following the logic of the argument) relative to their affiliation of privileged or non-privileged educator unions. Also, the role of the State in this power-configuration is important, as it is constitutionally bound to address issues of representivity, especially in terms of ‘minorities’ (in terms of race, age, gender, disability and the like) whose historical marginalisation in terms of South Africa’s legacy of apartheid is still the focus of much state and civil society debate.

10 As of 1 July 1998, non-unionised educators pay 1% of their salaries as an “agency fee” up to a maximum of R60 “towards the high cost of collective bargaining” - The Teacher, March 1999, p.7.
Issues arising from the analysis of the data

1. Representivity issues have been foregrounded in terms of democratic discourses vis-à-vis educator numerical superiority on SACE Council.

2. Teacher autonomy is at issue since not all educators have equal/direct access to the SACE or ELRC as a result of their unions’ numerical strength.

3. The historical contextualisation of the teacher union movement and the professional teacher organisations in the apartheid era continue to characterise teacher politics in post-apartheid South Africa, with obvious implications for SACE.

Data item 3: ELRC (Education Labour Relations Council) [Section 1(viii)]

a) Unit of analysis: Object

Section 1(viii) of the SACE Act of 2000 defines (and therefore restricts the definition of) the “organised profession” to those “trade unions or federations of trade unions which are members of the Education Labour Relations Council”.

The Education Labour Relations Council (hereinafter ELRC) was initially constituted in terms of Section 6 of the Education Labour Relations Act (Act No. 146 of 1993), until it ceased functioning (on 10 November 1996) in terms of this Act, and now functions in terms of the Labour Relations Act (Act No. 66 of 1995). The constitution of the ELRC (section 3) states that its terms of reference are “the State and those employees in respect of which the Employment of Educators Act, 1998, applies”. The “(O)bjectives of the Council” are, inter alia: the promotion (in the arena of education) of “labour peace”; the prevention and resolving of “labour disputes”; the promotion of “collective bargaining”; the conclusion and enforcement of “collective agreements”;

"to conduct research, analyse and survey education nationally and build capacity in education", and the development of “proposals” on matters of legislation which affect education which will referred to the PSBC and NEDLAC or other “labour policy” forum.

b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references

Locating the ELRC within the ambit of labour and economic forums (its juristic functioning in terms of the Labour Relations Act, and its referring issues to NEDLAC) by implication locates the educator within these frameworks. The ELRC enacted Resolution 4 of 94, which provided for the coming into being of the South African Council for Educators (Davies: 1997: 38). Significantly in the context of this analysis, the ELRC, between 1995 and 1996, adopted no fewer than fourteen resolutions which dealt with the rationalisation of teachers and “related matters” (Davies, 1997: 38). In this regard, it is instructive to note that Huw Davies, who, “on behalf of NAPTOSA, was a signatory to many of the resolutions” (Biographical inset in Davies, 1997: 45) of the ELRC, characterises the ELRC as “a hotch-potch of players with divergent perceptions of what they are about, as has often been the case in the ELRC” (Davies, 1997: 38-39). Of these fourteen resolutions, Resolution 3 of 1996 is arguably the most significant document in terms of its impact on teachers, and by implication, schools, students, parents and society. The analysis of this section moves logically to an analysis of the ELRC, with specific reference to Resolution 3 of 1996, in the section which follows.

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

The debates about and struggles for the rights of teachers in the period circa 1980 to the early 1990's had culminated in the formation of teacher unions which saw
themselves as set apart from apartheid-collaborating teacher (professional) associations. The literature review foregrounded works by Ashley (1985), Erntzen (1991), Hindle and Simpson (1993), Kihn (1993) and Shalem (1990) which expound on the nature and complexity of this South African debate. The leadership of these teacher unions (which represent the aspirations of Black teachers who faced huge adversities in the pursuit of education - see Kallaway, 1984 for a seminal text on this issue), remain answerable to their constituencies as to their signing these agreements. The agreements saw “the State as employer...push(ing) agreements which have combined the sugar-coated pill of improved conditions of service with the bitter gall of retrenchments...” (Davies, 1997: 39). It is not the focus of this research to expound on this and related issues. What is being emphasised is that the majority constituent of the SACE Council, namely the “organised profession”, drawn from the parties (trade unions and union federations) “which are members of the Education Labour Relations Council” [section I(viii) of the SACE Act of 2000], locates itself, and by implication the ELRC itself, within a series of discourses that undermines education (in the form of retrenchments). The next analytic category below continues this line of argument.

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

The ELRC as a unit of analysis presents discursive possibilities which include the destabilisation/undermining of education, given that its functions (in terms, for example, of Resolution 3 of 1996) have largely enabled it to be the mechanism through which “collective bargaining agreements” could be finalised, the results of which continue to resonate in South African education. The educator (on the ground,
as it were) is largely bereft of any power to intervene in this regard, although opposition to these agreements by members of signatory unions have been recorded\textsuperscript{12}.

e) \textit{Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse}

As a forum for negotiation, the ELRC, as indicated, has been the mechanism through which contested resolutions impacting on education and educators has been effected, or, in the term expressed by Davies (1997: 39), “pushed” through by “the State”.

Davies (1997: 39) relates that an “American commentator”, one Russow, comments on the concept “negotiations”. Davies’ text is quoted here in this regard:

(Russow) commented on “negotiation” in the ELRC and rather wryly pointed out that negotiation usually takes place between equals. He doubted whether the State, with all the mighty machinery it has at its disposal, would ever see itself as being equal to its employees. In fact, this comment is valid, for on more than one occasion, the State as represented in the ELRC, has used heavy-handed and intimidatory tactics in the Council to force its agendas through.

The anecdotal nature of the first part of this extract notwithstanding, the nature of the unevenness of the negotiating platform afforded by the ELRC to the relevant parties is a moot point. The further elucidation of the observation (by a signatory to the ELRC in the person of NAPTOSA’s Huw Davies) that the ELRC has been used by the State to “force its agendas through” is instructive.

\textbf{Issues arising from the analysis of the data}

1. The history of parties to the ELRC is contentious, specifically in the context of ELRC Resolution 3/96 (teacher rationalisation).

2. Parties to ELRC (see 1 above) are also party to the SACE Council – the implications for teachers and the direction of SACE is thus informed by historical tensions.

\textsuperscript{12} Appendix 5 has been included in this research as source data which represents the debates around and effects of ELRC Resolution 3 of 1996. No attempt is made to analyse and discuss these items as this is not the focus of the research.
3. The power/status discourse permeates this analysis. Union structures, by virtue of numerical superiority, are in *de facto* control of the SACE Council.

4. The democratic nature of the SACE is subject to the numerical weighting of representation in the Council. Smaller unions and the state will not be able to ‘direct’ the business of SACE were SADTU, as the majority constituent, to close ranks on policy issues. This has consequences for the real exercise of democratic privilege within the Council.

| Data item 4: *professional development* [Section 2(b)] |

a) *Unit of analysis: Object*

Professional development of educators is to be “promoted” by SACE [section 2(b)]. The Act decrees that a “(P)rofessional development committee” be established (section 13). The provisions of section 13 are of a technical nature, and do not expound on the intellectual role that this committee will play in the “professional development” of educators. Absent from the Act is any substantive reference to the composition of the teacher corps in South Africa, the status of qualifications, the number of “unqualified teachers”, and the complexity (if any) of the task of a “professional development committee” to make successful interventions in this context. Section 5(b)(i-vii) indicates that the professional development committee is charged with the following:

1. the promotion and development of a “professional image” (see Data item no. 7 below for a full analysis).

2. advising the Minister of Education on matters “not limited to” entrance requirements to the profession, standards of INSET and PRESET programmes.

3. promotion requirements.
4. “educator professionalism”

b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references

As indicated, the Act itself in this regard is concerned with technical issues such as the composition of this committee. The *SACE Annual Report 2000* (pp. 8-9) includes a *Professional Development Projects Manager’s Report*, which states that “SACE...is...about developing our educators...”. It further states that two publications which are to be published in 2001 will “deal with issues such as professionalism, corporal punishment, international trends in the profession, pregnancies amongst learners and HIV/AIDS” (*SACE*, 2000: 8-9).

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

Traditionally, professional development has revolved around the concepts of PRESET and INSET. Of importance has been matters of the curriculum, as regards its form, its content, and the organisation of these elements. In the South African historical context, this analysis locates the curriculum debate within discourses of separatism, racism, sexism, authoritarianism and prescriptivism. Jansen (1999a: 4) states that

the most important part of this curriculum policy was that...these curricula were introduced into schools with vastly different resource environments and, accordingly, produced vastly different consequences in these different race-based resource contexts.

After 1990, and particularly after 1994, curriculum policy discourse in South Africa has been characterised by calls for policy options which have as its core the values of “non-racism, non-sexism, democracy, equality and redress” (Jansen, 1999a: 4). This shift is progressive, and indicative of the discursive shift to that of progressivism.

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

The *SACE Annual Report 2000* (p. 5) quotes its Chief Executive Officer thus:
Educators will be in the vanguard in continuing the struggle to transform the profession in the context of the general transformation of our society. As patriotic citizens, this is their calling.

The analysis here focuses on the incredible weight placed on the shoulders of South Africa’s educators. As with earlier references in the Literature Review (see Wise, 1986; Darling-Hammond, 1985 and Shanken, 1985 et al), the burden on the education sector of society is huge, dealing with issues of “the general transformation of our society”. The types of interventions necessary in order to facilitate the rebuilding of a South African society which has seen more than 75% of its citizens reduced to abject poverty, is a monumental task. The “general context” must also take cognisance of the discourse of economic rationalism which underpins the state’s macro-economic policy, captured in GEAR, which calls for fiscal discipline and a reduced role for the state (see Bond, 1998; Crouch, 1997 and Greenstein, 1997).

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

Professional development in the context of outcomes-based education curriculum initiatives hinges around a successful re-orientation of South Africa’s educators. Jansen’s seminal critique on OBE implementation in South Africa provides a basis for this analysis in that he spells out the single conceptual turnaround that teachers (who become facilitators and mediators in OBE terminology) will have to undergo as an initial step. The focus of the discussion in the next chapter will be on how SACE’s professional development committee will establish itself vis-à-vis its commitment to be guided by “the twin notions of independence from, and co-operation with the various components of the profession” (SACE, 2001: 5) which includes the state and teacher unions who have substantially bought into these huge conceptual leaps.
Issues arising from the analysis of the data

1. The SACE Act of 2000 creates a democratic framework in which teachers are expected and encouraged to operate.
2. The professional development of teachers is located within outcomes frameworks.
3. Historically, discourses of racism, separatism and prescriptivism have dominated the South African educational landscape.
4. In the post-apartheid era, a discursive shift has occurred, with increasing rhetorical space for discourses of democratic participation and progressivism.

Data item 5: ethical and professional standards [Section 2(c)]

a) Unit of analysis: Object

One of the features of a profession identified in the literature review is that members of the profession have “self-policing authority, especially in professional ethics” (Saks, 1983, in Burbules and Densmore, 1991: 49). The SACE Act of 2000 [section 2(c)] states that one of the “objects of this Act (is) to set, maintain and protect ethical and professional standards for educators”. Section [5(c)] of the Act, delineating “(P)owers and duties” of the SACE Council “with regard to professional ethics”, vests certain powers with the Council. These are:

1. the compilation, maintenance and periodic review of “a code of professional ethics for educators...”.
2. the determination of “fair hearing procedures”.
3. the power to “caution or reprimand...impose a fine (and) remove from the register” educators in “breach of the code of professional ethics”.
b) **Unit of analysis: Intertextual references**

The *SACE Annual Report 2000* (Code of Ethics - Acting Manager’s Report, p. 12) states that its “Code of Ethics wing...is the wing that deals with transgressions of ethics of the profession by educators”. The report further states that while SACE “has the interests of all educators at heart...the interests of the profession as a whole are of paramount importance to (them)” (SACE, 2000: 12). The report emphasises that it is not an employer, and has therefore not “taken away powers from the departments and private schools to dismiss teachers”. (Ex) co-chairperson Willy Madisha, in the *SACE Annual Report 2000* (page 2) states that “SACE should not be regarded as another ‘stick’ to flog educators with”, while the Acting Manager’s Report (page 12) hopes that its “code of ethics department (will in the end) cease to be seen as a disciplinary instrument, and (that) the code of ethics will become the general way of conduct for educators”. The *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy document (year 2000), promulgated in terms of the National Education Policy Act of 1996, states under the description of the educator in his/her “(C)ommunity, citizenship and pastoral role”, that

> (T)he educator is expected to “practice and promote a critical, committed and ethical attitude towards developing a sense of respect and responsibility towards others (and) will uphold the constitution and promote democratic values and practices in schools and society.

The discussion to follow will flesh out the construction of the teacher as professional which emerges from this analysis.

c) **Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse**

The literature review made it apparent that writers in the area of professionalism (see Macdonald, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1985 and 1989; Ginsburg, 1987) have studied
the ‘traditional’ professions, normally taken to be medicine and law, and have concluded that these professions all organised themselves around certain items, the code of professional ethics being a key component of the claim to ‘professional’ status. The discourse of autonomy in this historical context is foregrounded, as internal mechanisms to regulate the profession apparently isolated the members of that profession from the public they served. Burbules and Densmore (1991 - see literature review) were particularly sceptical about this, as the discourse of autonomy in education could prove to be antithetical to the discourses of democracy and joint decision-making, as is regular in democratic systems of school governance (in the western democracies).

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

Two distinct conceptualisations of the worlds constituted by the discourse of autonomy are actualised, as these pertain to the object of analysis, namely a code of professional ethics, are firstly, a protectionist, elitist, exclusionist profession which can become self-serving, or secondly, a profession whose values and codes of moral behaviour are conditioned by an explicit and principled commitment to transparent ‘oversight’ of its codes of ethics. The implications of a discourse of autonomy in this context opens up possibilities of the two scenarios sketched in this section.

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

The central issues in this dynamic present themselves to be the various stakeholders in the education system, namely educators, students, parents, the ‘community’, the State and the private sector. These issues arise directly from a reading of the literature,

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13 Strictly speaking, this terminology is not correct, as the South African Schools Act of 1996 distinguishes only between “public” and “independent” schools; the term “private school” is no longer an official linguistic feature of the South African educational landscape.
which, as stated earlier in this section of the analysis, posits that codes of ethics in a professional setting can become mechanisms of exclusion, or of principled democratic co-operation (the work of McCulloch, Helsby and Knight, 2000, broadly informs this section).

**Issues arising from the analysis of the data**

1. Educator professionalism is properly defined in the context of the *Norms and Standards for Educators* document.

2. The ‘new’ professionalism is defined in terms of the democratic social project, and involves principled co-operation between parents, students, teachers and communities.

3. Teachers are discursively portrayed as located in two spheres, namely the democratic sphere, and the economistic sphere, operating in terms of an economistic reading of globalisation.

4. The two discursive realities in 3 above are in tension, and seemingly incompatible.

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**Data item 6: education and training profession [Section 5(b)]**

a) **Unit of analysis: Object**

The conjoining of the terms ‘education’ and ‘training’ to form the single data item ‘education and training’ which qualifies ‘profession’, locates the conjoined term within a discourse of economic imperatives. In brief, the shift in the global economy from a Fordist type of production, which demanded “workers performing single tasks requiring little education or training, to a new automation-led world economy has created the need for workers who display much higher levels of knowledge and skills” to be able to manipulate the new technologies (NEPI, 1992(a): 5-6). The conjoining of
‘training’ to ‘education’ in this context is located in this global economic restructuring context, as well as in the particularities of South Africa’s racially skewed education (schools, universities) and training (technical colleges, technikons), which severely hampered the development of a labour force which could begin to address the needs of a South African economy which is now (post-apartheid) committed to positioning itself within the context of the global economy.

b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references

Ball (1990: 100) argues that the change in emphasis to the primacy of the discourses of economics has profound implications for the social sphere. In short, he argues that “education, as a field of discourse and practice, is an arena and an object of struggle”.

Ball resists the seductive narrowness of defining all policy movements in this changing discourse as retrogressive. Writing in the British context, he states (Ball, 1990: 102) that the

industrial lobby has nurtured, supported and defended a series of innovations in schools and Further Education which are a reaction to the narrow, abstract, academic, elitist nature of the forms of knowledge and teaching predominant in British schools since the nineteenth century.

In the South African context, Jansen (1999a: 4-7) posits that the local responses to these global and local (apartheid) phenomena resulted in processes of educational policy developments which was characterised by the following events:

What is striking about this period...is that the debate on the integrated system (of education and training) and competencies was largely confined to and conducted within the labour movement and its expanding relationship with business. There was at the time very little integration or interrogation of educational ideas into this labour-driven debate, at least from those working within schools. (Jansen, 1999a: 6-7).

This process, with little meaningful input from teachers in schools, resulted in curriculum proposals which witnessed the birth of outcomes-based models of education in South Africa, which formally conjoined the hitherto separate concepts of

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14 This economic background is not the object of the insertion; it is intended to map the terrain in which
education and training. As argued earlier in this chapter, this radical switch of focus in the area of curriculum has implications for teacher autonomy and identity. But the emergence of the discourse is also located within a frame which seeks to ‘rescue’ education from its apartheid context. In this sense, it is liberatory, and not negatively economistic.

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

The adoption of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) was created to be “a co-ordinating structure and mechanism devised to respond to the fragmented and inequitable system of education and training” (Baxen and Soudien, 1999: 132). This occurred in the context of a battery of other proposals (see Gilmour, 1997) in the post-1994 period. These proposals were designed to restructure, fundamentally, the educational landscape of South Africa, which had hitherto been characterised by racist fragmentation, skewed funding and training and other racially-inspired practices. As has been tentatively analysed in the previous section, market discourses increasingly became dominant in education policy arenas due to the overwhelmingly proactive stance taken by the unions, but also through labour’s “expanding relationship with business” (Jansen, 1999a: 6-7). The primacy of the market discourse locates education within subordinate discourses (in power terms) of instrumentalism. The NEPI report (1993) sketches this background, which, it has been argued, has seen South Africa’s education system being tailored to meet the needs of the economy, i.e. the education system becomes a functionary of the broader economic imperatives of the post-apartheid era (see Amin, 1993; De Clerq, 1997; Hinchcliffe, 1993 and Sayed, 1999). The analysis of this phenomenon is located more directly in the third analytic item in
this section, the 'historical emergence of the discourse', which follows after the analysis based on intertextuality.

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

Following from the above analysis, the construction of reality is a world of curriculum, teacher development programmes and the like, which are generated by the need to grow an economy. It is clearly necessary, in the post-apartheid era, to address the massive inadequacies of apartheid education and training provision. What emerges from this analysis, is the need to interrogate the market discourse in the light of the focus of this research, namely the impact on teacher professionalism and teacher identity within the SACE Act of 2000.

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

The key reinforced institution in this discourse is the private sector. The analysis then moves, in keeping with the discourse analytic approach, to ask who is silenced in this discourse. Taking the discourses of co-operation prevalent in forums like NEDLAC, which is a forum for consensus-building between (traditional foes) business, organised labour and the State, it is difficult to state unequivocally that it is labour who is silenced. As this research is being undertaken, labour federations in South Africa, though, are protesting against privatisation of state assets. The traditional antagonisms appear to be resurfacing in the country, and are placing labour squarely against the private sector, notwithstanding the existence of NEDLAC and other such 'consensus-building', but not policy-making forums.
Issues arising from the analysis of the data

1. Current international and South African policy initiatives are underpinned by economic imperatives.

2. Instrumentalism is a distinguishing feature of the discourse of marketisation in education.


4. Democratic discourses are framed in the language of equity and redress, (rhetorically and materially, in part) favouring the oppressed majority under apartheid.

Data item 7: professional image [Section 5(b)(i)]

a) Unit of analysis: Object

The object “image” is here read in terms of two constructions. Firstly, in terms of synonymy, “image” delineates aspects of representation, illustration and iconism. This aspect of the object is examined later in this analytical section. Secondly, the term ‘status’ is invoked in texts (spoken and written) which imply that (educators) achieve increased (conferred) ‘status’ from other stakeholders (parents, students, bureaucrats) when the educators’ “image” is acceptable and pleasing to those groups. This research takes as a point of departure this interconnectedness. The location of this section (dealing with ‘professional image’) of the SACE Act of 2000 is interesting. After dealing with [section 5(a)] the ‘(P)owers and duties of Council’ with respect to the “registration of educators”, the next section deals with the ‘power and duty’ of the SACE Council, in the following order:

1. “must promote, maintain and develop a professional image”;


2. "must advise the Minister on matters relating to the education and training of educators" in such areas as minimum entry requirements to the profession, standards of INSET and PRESET programmes, promotion requirements, and finally, but not restricted to, "educator professionalism", which is not defined here.

3. a "professional development policy" "must" be researched;

4. INSET "must" be promoted;

5. resource materials for development workshops and programmes "may" be produced;

6. the production and distribution of a "professional journal" "may" be attempted;

7. a "professional assistance facility for educators" "may" be established.

The boldfaced words in the "powers and duties" of the SACE Council, as per complete section 5(b) is intended to introduce, in the next chapter, a discussion of the priorities of SACE in relation to its "powers and duties" as per the Act. The prioritisation of the enforced ("must promote") promotion, development and maintenance of a "professional image" may be analysed in terms of the discourse analytic approach of Parker in the form of the following question: is the prioritisation of this "duty" of the Council in order to counter the negative image of educators by the (media-inspired) public?

b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references

The SACE Annual Report 2000 (p. 8) asserts that "(A) professional image of SACE means no less for the profession in general". We are here dealing with the status discourse. From the context of the statement, it appears as if the reference is to the quality of the report itself. This emphasis on the externalities or 'public-face' "image"
is what appears to underpin this section of the SACE Act. In the context of teachers and teaching in South Africa, the literature review explicated several items of relevance in this regard. Baxen and Soudien (1999: 140), writing in the context of identity-making processes vis-à-vis participation in the process of curriculum change in South Africa, posit an interesting set of contrasting discourses which produce identities of efficiency for those who are “self-sufficient, time conscious and agenda driven”, and “identities of deficiency...for those unable to operate within these parameters”. In the same context, Harley and Parker (1999: 197-8) write:

To implement OBE and the NQF, teachers may well need first to shift their own identities, their understanding of who they are and how they relate to others. This requires a high degree of interpersonal skills, self-reflection and adaptation.

The discussion in the next section will attempt to unravel the discourses which enable/empower educator professionalism, and those which impose/construct “identities of deficiency” in the same project.

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

Lieberman (1956: 452) states that people have many “statuses” (wife, mother, mathematics teacher, sister, lover, surfer)\(^{15}\), each of which contains a “cluster of expectations concerning (her) behavior and the behavior of others toward (her)”. He continues: “(C)ertain rights, privileges and obligations are typically associated with each of these statuses”.

In its historical perspective, the notion of teacher status has been derived from economic conditions. Smyke (1985) asserts that shifts in educational costs to the private sector set in motion a natural movement of teachers to unions which will look after their material interests. Sanders (1968: 23-4) has argued that teachers, in fact, have little, if any, professional “mystique”. Any movement or association, in this case

\(^{15}\) These examples are my own.
unions, which can offer teachers some form of “power”, symbolically enacted through strike action, will be seized upon by teachers. In this scenario, teachers re-define their “professional” status in the new context of being ‘intellectual workers’ (see Kihn, 1993).

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

The construction “professional image” presupposes that a ‘non-professional image’ exists which is countered by the adoption/maintenance of a “professional image”. The inter-relatedness of this construct with issues of teacher development programmes is, perhaps, stating the obvious. However, taking as the point of departure the earlier prioritisation of section 5(b) of the SACE Act of 2000, it is reasonable to posit that the policies of educator development may be (initially at least for the SACE Council) in the service of the overarching “duty” of the Council to “promote, develop and maintain a professional image”, which, in the words of the Professional Development Officer of the SACE Council of 2000 (see ‘Intertextual references’ in this section), is interpreted in terms of ‘what is good about SACE is good about educators’, or, we speculate, ‘what is good for SACE is good for educators’. This construction is not frivolous, as it intends to foreground the contested prioritisation of elements of the debate around teacher professionalism, as contained in the SACE Act of 2000, and related texts.

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

The issue of class emerges from the discussion above. The literature review elicited two strong South African voices (Shalem, 1990; Kihn, 1993) which argued powerfully that the middle-class aspirations of the (apartheid) teacher professionalism project had been summarily rejected by progressive, democratic voices of the time,
which called for a more community-inspired model of teacher professionalism, which aligned itself with the struggles of the (majority) working class parents and children whom they lived with and taught. Class issues in the context of teacher professionalism, then, will be discussed in relation to the model of professionalism as emerges from this reading of the SACE Act, as well as taking as its context the period of (apartheid-era) contestation over the term professionalism from which South Africa has emerged.

**Issues arising from the analysis of the data**

1. Teachers' professional image is defined in terms of 'representation' and 'status': the public face of teaching and teachers is seen to be synonymous with public acceptance of teaching as a profession.

2. SACE posits itself as the 'protector' of the teaching profession *vis-à-vis* SACE’s professional code of ethics.

3. Rapid policy initiatives, primarily in curriculum, result in identities of efficiency and deficiency respectively in terms of teachers who find themselves (seemingly) able or unable to cope with such rapid intellectual and structural change.

4. Teachers are often willing to trade rhetorical sources of power inherent in an apolitical definition of professionalism, for a material discursive presence in unions, where professionalism is redefined as solidarity with the working class.
Data item 8: *educator professionalism* [Section 5(b)(ii)(dd)]

a) **Unit of analysis: Object**

Linda Eisenmann (quoted in McCulloch, Helsby and Knight, 2000: 14) distinguishes between the terms ‘professionalisation’ and ‘professionalism’. Writing in the context of the United States, she asserts that

whereas professionalization denotes issues of status, professionalism concerns the rights and obligations of teachers to determine their own tasks in the classroom, that is, how teachers use their own knowledge.

This distinction is vital here, in that the political project usually identified with claims to status resides in the domain of professionalisation. We are here concerned with the discourses of autonomy as they have a bearing on “rights and obligations of teachers”, insofar as these impact on the domains of, for example, curriculum design, interpretation and implementation; pedagogy and the like. At issue in this research, then, are discourses pertinent to teacher professionalism.

The specific context of this data item (“educator professionalism”) is the following: one of the SACE Council’s “duties” is to “advise the Minister on matters relating to...educator professionalism”. As pointed out in the previous section of analysis, this item is last in a list which, it was argued, may be read as items enjoying greater and lesser priority, *vis-à-vis* the “powers and duties” of the SACE Council. The term is not defined in the Act, but, used as it has been in the sections quoted earlier, its usage is taken to mean the behaviour or conduct of educators, as per its usage in the *SACE Report of 2000*, page 15:

Review the code of conduct to determine its effectiveness, and to ensure that it complies with the *generally accepted “good practice” in the profession*. This issue is taken further in the sections of analysis following this entry. (emphasis my own.)
This ‘generally accepted practice’ may be suitable for an activity like accounting, with its GAAP, but, as will be discussed in the next chapter, to define the core definition of the work of SACE in such abstract and non-specific terms, is debatable.

**b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references**

The oft-used, but seldom defined concept of educator professionalism is evident in most of the literature reviewed by this writer. The notion of professionalism is used interchangeably with ‘professionalisation’, professional development and the like. In their *Preface and Acknowledgements*, McCulloch, Helsby and Knight (2000: v) assert that “(P)rofessionalism is a crucial aspect of the work of teachers worldwide, and is much invoked but remains little understood”. The literature review, as a unit, though not defining teacher professionalism (which would be most useful for this research), use the term to relate to issues of classroom autonomy, decisions about the curriculum, and pedagogical concerns, as in the earlier quotation by Eisenmann. As outlined in the analysis of data item 1 (educator), international concerns about educator professionalism centre around the “need to move to a more outcome-based model (South African usage: outcomes-based) of professionalism – to devolve as much as possible, and then to hold people accountable” (*Times Educational Supplement*, 13 February, 1998). The analysis of data item 1 in this chapter posited that the South African *Norms and Standards for Educators* (2000) argued in much the same way.

**c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse**

This section of the analysis uses the earlier conception of educator professionalism as per its parameters of meaning within discourses of autonomy *vis-à-vis* curriculum and pedagogy, amongst other earlier cited items, and, critically, about the behaviour and
conduct of educators. In this sense, Lieberman (1956: 419) alludes to the fact that issues around the professional conduct of teachers "arose very early in the history of Western civilization". He cites the legacy of the Sophists, who were "severely criticized" by luminaries such as Socrates and Plato, who believed that a teacher's conduct (read: sense of professionalism) was based on principles of "mutual love and respect" between teacher and pupil (Lieberman, 1956: 419). If any money entered this relationship, it was to be condemned. Lieberman (1956: 419) cites the example of medicine, which asserted its professionalism in terms of the discourse of autonomy, in that its Hippocratic Oath (now over two-thousand years old) served as an internal mechanism of regulation of the medical 'profession'. If one takes the view, as I have, that professionalism has to do with attitudes and behaviour, then it is appropriate here to locate this historical discourse in terms of publishing of codes of professional ethics for teachers. In the United States, the first such code was adopted in 1896, whilst in the United Kingdom, from a reading of McCulloch, Helsby and Knight (2000), this time-frame is probably also appropriate. The point made here is that views of teacher professionalism appear late in the nineteenth century, in keeping with the advent of mass schooling. Whilst Socrates and Plato had views on the issue, mass education and notions of professionalism in the present context are just over a century old.

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

The identity of the educator, defined in frameworks of meaning derived from behaviour, attitude and values, locates this discussion not merely in terms of the educator him/herself, but in a nexus which includes those persons and agencies which are closely connected with education, namely students, parents, administrators, the 'public', and the media. The discussion in the next chapter will refer to these contexts, and will focus on prevailing social and political norms as these impact (or otherwise
do not) on the concept of teacher professionalism, and hence on the ‘creation’ of a model of what constitutes an educator.

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

The principal, though not exclusively reinforced person in this discourse is the educator. Allied to this, the beneficiaries of learning possibilities which emanate from a definition of educator professionalism premised, as argued, on notions of educator behaviour, attitudes and values, will be students, who will benefit from a learning environment which is secure, and provides (in a democratic society) the intellectual and social ‘space’ in which meaningful learning activities can potentially occur. Although the analysis is careful not to venture into traps of idealism per se, it is nonetheless this multi-faceted empowering which will form the basis of the discussion in the next chapter.

Issues arising from the analysis of the data

1. The project of professionalism (having to do with ethics and teacher identity) is contrasted with a narrower discourse of professionalisation, which concerns itself (primarily) with material gains.

2. Teacher professionalism is defined in terms of measurable outcomes, attitudes and behaviours.

3. The social context of teacher identity is foregrounded.

Data item 9: registered educators [Section 5(d)(i)]

a) Unit of analysis: Object

The data item “registered educators” is located in section 5(d) which has to do with the “powers and duties of (SACE) council…with regard to fees”. We are here dealing
with discourses of power and control. Section 5(d)(i) indicates that fees have to be
paid to council by registered educators, whilst section 5(d)(ii) deals with monetary
deductions from educators’ salaries. Chapter 3 of the Act is wholly reserved for the
“(R)egistration of Educators” (analysed in more detail under heading ‘Intertextual
References’ below). The issue of the registration of educators is not elaborated upon
in the Act in terms of the positive – rather, punitive powers are accorded the SACE
Council [sections 5(d)(iii)(aa-bb) and 5(d)(iv)].

b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references

The Act reserves, as already stated, a separate chapter (chapter 3) for the
“Registration of Educators”. Section 21(2) makes it impossible for an educator (“no
person”) to be employed by “any employer unless the person is registered with the
council”. No person may be appointed as an educator (see data item 1 for definition
scope of this term) in terms of the SACE Act unless he/she is a bona fide (registered)
member of SACE. Section 22(4) legislates that provisional registration of an applicant
is possible, even “(I)f the applicant does not satisfy all the (registration)
requirements...”. The proviso is that desired registration requirements “will be
satisfied within a reasonable time”. Sections 22(7) and 22(8) further allow the council
to extend provisional registration in terms of section 22(4), on the strength of there
existing “a reasonable basis for the differentiation”.

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

Already in the Education Renewal Strategy (Republic of South Africa, 1991) of the
last apartheid government, a “Professional Council for Educators for the registration
of teachers” had been mooted (NEPI, 1992b: 37). The key aspect of registration was
the only reference to such a body, with no further details present in the ERS. As
emerged in the analysis of data item 3 (ELRC), SACE was brought into being by virtue of ELRC Resolution 4 of 94, and culminates in the promulgation of the SACE Act of 2000. Two contextual issues arise. Firstly, the chaotic administrations which characterised the (apartheid-era) race-based education departments (and which continues to characterise current practices) militated against any credible teacher census occurring (see Appendix 6, which refers to fraudulent practices in the KwaZulu-Natal region). Prior to the advent of SACE, teacher numbers were always estimated to be ‘roughly in the area of...’. SACE represents an opportunity for the production of South Africa’s first credible teacher census.

d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

The discourses of managerialism, power and control are the key to this section of the analysis. The attempt by SACE to “create and maintain a registry (of educators) that has integrity” (SACE, 2001: 10) is an attempt at undoing the racist legacy of separate education departments, and its concomitant administrative ineptitude due to the sheer unwieldiness of such a fragmented (though centrally controlled) system.

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

A number of parties (institutions and persons) are potentially empowered by this section of the SACE Act. Firstly, the apparatus of the State, with regard to its information management systems, is potentially enhanced through vigorous registration of educators. Secondly, educators are able to utilise the apparatus of SACE in order to ‘validate’ their occupational standing. Schools and other institutions as defined in the various acts which have been referred to in this research are also able to verify that a potential employee’s (educator) qualifications have been recognised by a national, legislated registration body, and can submit enquiries about potential
employees to the council in this regard. This analysis posits that practical problems may emerge in the above contexts, in terms of the general nature of centralised information systems to prove cumbersome to administer.

**Issues arising from the analysis of the data**

1. The SACE Council as locus of control w.r.t. educator registration is a characteristic of the SACE Act of 2000.

2. The extended definition of ‘qualified for registration’ has implications in terms of standards and quality of the education system.

3. The SACE Council’s registration drive can be seen as the first (credible) census of South Africa’s educator corps.

4. In the context of the fragmented system of education in the apartheid era, SACE represents an opportunity for an enhanced set of attitudes towards statutory bodies by teachers, who may find that teacher issues are dealt with expeditiously by SACE.

**Data item 10: (council) may advise the Minister on any relevant educational aspect**  
[Section 5(e)(v)]

**a) Unit of analysis: Object**

The SACE Council, in terms of section 5, is conferred “powers”, which have been analysed under previous headings, e.g. data item 5. Data item 10 is located in the context of “general” powers and duties of the Council, and is the fifth of five such items. Three items in the list allude to staffing matters [section 5(e)(ii)], establishment of committees [section 5(e)(iii)] and procedures for the smooth running of the council [section 5(e)(iv)]. The SACE Council is allowed to (“may”) advise the Minister (of Education - national) “on any relevant educational aspect” which the council regards
as necessary. The Council is thus not obligated to initiate such interaction between itself and the national education ministry on matters which it (SACE) identifies as being of educational relevance.

b) Unit of analysis: Intertextual references

Section 5(e)(i), the first entry in the "general" powers and duties of the Council, states that "(the Council) must advise the Minister on any educational aspect which the Minister may request it to advise on". The items are different in terms of the obligatory ("must") response required of SACE when required to do so [section 5(e)(i)] and the voluntary ("may") nature of the Council’s ‘power and duty’ to “advise the Minister on any relevant educational aspect” [section 5(e)(v)]. The discussion in the next chapter will focus on this compulsory/voluntary dichotomy, specifically in relation to the discourses of autonomy as analysed in data item 3 (Education Labour Relations Council) earlier in this chapter.

c) Unit of analysis: Historical emergence of the discourse

The antagonistic relationship which existed between democratic teacher activists (and bodies) and the apartheid state have been captured in the works of Kihn (1993), Shalem (1990) and others in the literature review in chapter two. Kihn (1993: 123) asserts that (teacher) professionalism at this stage in South African history was politically untenable, as it would have conflicted with the democratic movement’s stance of non-collaboration with organs of the apartheid state. The democratic nature of the new South African state changes this scenario fundamentally.
d) Unit of analysis: World constituted by the discourse

The SACE Council is posed significant challenges in the form of the two items in the two respective sections [5(e)(i) and 5(e)(v)] of the Act. This challenge is aptly summarised by its chief executive officer in the *SACE Report of 2000* (p. 5):

The new Council needs to forge and assert its integrity and identity. As it strives in this direction it needs to be guided by the twin notions of independence from, and cooperation with the various components of the profession.

The ‘integrity’ of SACE, especially as regards its public stance on issues which directly affect educators, will be decisive in its achieving its desired identity of ‘integrity’. As stated earlier in this section of the analysis, other policy forums which include educators as forum members, such as the ELRC (see analysis of data item 3 in this chapter), have to be taken into account when the role and potential influence of SACE is assessed.

e) Unit of analysis: Institutions and categories of persons reinforced or subverted by employment of the discourse

The principal institution which is foregrounded in this analysis is SACE itself. The earlier dichotomy in terms of SACE’s advisory role to the Minister is a potentially definitive area in terms of SACE’s defining itself as regards its locating itself in debates which will involve political choices on its part. To contextualise this statement, the issue of teacher rationalisation in terms of ELRC Resolution 3/96 would, had SACE existed in the form it does as at year 2001, have signalled the direction SACE would take *vis-à-vis* its most direct ‘constituency’, namely the educator corps of South Africa. The discussion in the next chapter will address the issue of possible educator expectation with regard to SACE. Further, the discussion will attempt to contextualise this discussion within the framework of the analyses
already undertaken earlier in this chapter in terms of data items 2 (organised profession) and 3 (ELRC).

**Issues arising from the analysis of the data**

1. The role of the SACE within the broader SA educational policy context is emphasised.

2. The SACE seeks to maintain its independence from state organs, but functions within the state’s apparatus.

3. The formation of the SACE raises teacher expectations.

4. SACE’s position w.r.t. education policy proposals will define the role which SACE will play in a broader policy context.

**4.5. Conclusion**

The analysis undertaken in this chapter has foregrounded issues which have been consolidated under the heading “Issues arising from the analysis”, completed after the analysis of each of the ten data items. These have been consolidated in Table five on the following page (Summary – issues arising from the analysis).

The next chapter is a discussion of these issues as they have arisen from the analyses. This discussion will be completed in the context of the initial research question, which seeks to identify and map the construct of the teacher as professional as this emerges from the discourses of teacher professionalism in the SACE Act of 2000.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Data Item</th>
<th>Discussion points arising from the analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Educator</td>
<td>SACE Act located within broader SA policy context; inclusion of independent schools in Act; competency and OB models; differential status of educators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organised profession</td>
<td>Representivity; educator numerical superiority on SACE Council; union-professional historical discourse; autonomy; ELRC represented/not represented educators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ELRC (Education Labour Relations Council)</td>
<td>Educator bargaining council; contentious history vis-à-vis educators e.g. Resolution3/96; parties to both ELRC and SACE - implications for educators; power configurations and implications for SACE and educators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td>Relative priority of ‘professional development’ esp. w.r.t. ‘professional image’; democratic frameworks; outcomes-models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ethical and professional standards</td>
<td>Powers of SACE; interests of educators and interests of profession; ‘extended’ definition of educator professionalism in context of Norms and Standards for Educators; the ‘new’ professionalism in relation to the democratic ideal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Education and training profession</td>
<td>Economic discourses underpin current policy initiatives; outcomes-models; educational instrumentalism; educator as economic subject; roles and rights of ‘clients’ in education system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional image</td>
<td>Image as ‘representation’ and ‘status’; SACE as ‘protector’ of the profession; identities of efficiency and deficiency; vague conceptualisation - implications for ‘professional development programmes’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Educator professionalism</td>
<td>‘Professionalism’ and ‘professionalisation’; now defined in terms of outcomes-models; defined in terms of attitudes and behaviour; social context of educator subjectivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Registered educators</td>
<td>Defined in terms of loci of control; extended definition of ‘qualified-for-registration’ - implications w.r.t. elitism; first credible census of educators in SA; possible role of SACE w.r.t. policy proposals re. access to the profession.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>(Council) may advise the Minister on any relevant educational aspect</td>
<td>SACE w.r.t. broader role within SA education policy context; compulsory/voluntary dichotomy re. ministerial policy advice/proposals; SACE as ‘independent yet co-operative’; SACE w.r.t. educator expectations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table Five - Summary – Issues arising from the analysis of the data
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Introduction

The discussion in this chapter requires us to revisit the research question: What discourses of teacher professionalism are present in the SACE Act of 2000, and how do they construct the professional identity of the teacher in post-apartheid South Africa?

The previous chapter, analysing as it did those data items from the SACE Act of 2000 which had a bearing on the concept ‘teacher professionalism’, facilitated the emergence of a number of issues for discussion, summarised at the end of each separate section of the analysis under the heading “Issues arising from the analysis of the data”. In an attempt to systematise these summaries, I compiled Table Five, which identifies, in key words, the issues which arose relative to each data item. The tabulation of these key terms, it is hoped, will allow a discussion in two planes, as it were: firstly, horizontally, in terms of the key terms relative to the data item itself, e.g. Data Item 1: “educator”, as well as vertically, in that the key terms across the data items will be shown to have coherence in terms of the discourses which generate these terms. This approach will become clear as this chapter develops.

Broadly speaking, two discourses of teacher professionalism have been foregrounded by the analysis. Firstly, persistent references to outcomes, efficiency and accountability appear to locate these elements of the analysis within a discourse of marketisation, which had emerged from the review of the literature (chapter 2). Secondly, the emphasis in the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) on the role of the educator as the “uphold(er) (of) the constitution and promot(er) (of) democratic
values and practices in schools and society” locates elements of the analysis within a
discourse of democratic professionalism. The summary table which has emerged from
the analysis (Table Five) facilitates the further discussion of a number of analysis
items, e.g. the organised profession and professional development (data items 4 and 2)
within the democratic professionalism discourse.

This chapter will develop along the following lines. First, I discuss the elements of the
analysis which are located within discourses of marketisation. Secondly, discourses of
democratic professionalism as these emerge from the analysis are discussed. Third, I
will discuss the implications of these discourses as they impact on teacher
professional identity in South Africa. Finally, the chapter will conclude with a brief
summary of the findings of the chapter, and possible directions for future research
which emerge from this project. The reader is reminded that the analysis in the
previous chapter recruited the literature (chapter 2) as an integral part of the chapter.
The discussion in this chapter thus incorporates the literature as a feature of the
methodology of this dissertation.

5.2. Referencing notation in this chapter

Throughout this chapter, reference will be made to specific sections of the analyses in
chapter five. References are in the form (Data item number, analysis heading, e.g.
5(b) refers to Data item 5, analysis heading (b), hence a reference to analysis section
“Ethical and professional standards”, heading “Intertextual references”). This method
of referencing is employed in order to:

1. Provide a systematic referencing system for the reader, in order that (s)he is easily
able to inspect the source data on which the discussion is based.
2. To provide for a systematic appraisal of the integrity of the discussion, to substantiate the claim that the discussion is wholly based on the analysis in the previous chapter.

5.3. Discourses of teacher professionalism emerging from the analysis

5.3.1. The marketisation discourse

Analysis section 1(b) located the Norms and Standards text within the specific discourse of outcomes-based education models, as discernible from the text itself (section 3), which states that

(T)he cornerstone of this Norms and Standards policy is the notion of applied competence and its associated assessment criteria.

The outcomes discourse is also located within the following sections of the analysis; 4(c) and (e), 5(b), 6(a) and (b) and 8(b). Analysis section 4(c) referred to the perspective that the outcomes model, implemented within schools with "vastly different resource environments" (Jansen, 1999a: 4), entrenches inequities rather than promoting educational parity.

I argue in this dissertation that the shift in educational policy as regards curriculum (and, as will be shown in the context of the Norms and Standards for Educators, in other spheres of these policy shifts) has its roots in an understanding of post-apartheid South Africa which locates policy within a context of economic globalisation. In the analysis [6(a)] I suggest that the South African education system is largely defined in terms of economic discourses (see Amin, 1993; De Clerq, 1997; Hinchcliffe, 1993 and Sayed, 1999).
Stephen Ball (1990: 100) [6(b)] indicates that the current ascendancy of economic discourses has implications well beyond what is traditionally regarded as ‘economics’. It is useful to quote Ball (1990: 100) once more in this regard:

(The) industrial lobby has nurtured, supported and defended a series of innovations in schools and Further Education which are a reaction to the narrow, abstract, academic, elitist nature of the forms of knowledge and teaching predominant in British schools since the nineteenth century.

Ball makes the point that not all policy shifts supported by business are negative. In the South African case, it is accepted that the racist apartheid education frameworks had to be dismantled. The argument is not that change is not warranted. The point being developed is that the shift in South African education policy towards an outcomes-based system has largely emerged from sectors other than the traditional education sector. This debate was driven largely by COSATU, a trade-union federation, whose interests lay in the development of workers who were largely illiterate due to lack of access to education in the apartheid state. I am not suggesting that COSATU’s concerns are retrogressive. What is being argued, though, in the context of the emergence of discourses which are increasingly economic in nature, is that

the debate on the integrated system (of education and training) and competencies was largely confined to and conducted within the labour movement and its expanding relationship with business. There was at the time very little integration or interrogation of educational ideas into this labour-driven debate, at least from those working within schools. (Jansen, 1999a: 6-7)

Muller (1998: 185) draws on the work of Bernstein (1990, 1996), who suggests that the 1960’s saw a “remarkable convergence in all the major social sciences...around the concept of competence”.

Muller (1998: 185) follows Bernstein’s analysis of the nature of the pedagogy implicit in this model. The competence model is purported to announce

‘a universal democracy of acquisition’; the presumed subject of competence is ‘active and creative’ and self-regulating; pedagogues are consequently suspect as interferers
in a natural process; this naturalness of learning as unfolding has an ‘emancipatory flavour’, whether of a liberal-individual, radical or populist sort...

Muller (1998: 191, footnote two) quotes the National Curriculum Development Committee (1996: 14) as stating that, in terms of the NQF:

(T)he perception of teachers as dispensers of knowledge will also have to change to one where learners are valued as equal and active participants in learning and development processes.

Whilst this may at one level ‘undermine’ teacher authority, it simultaneously creates a theoretical space for principled democratic co-operation between teacher and learner in the learning process.

In a second, or performance model, Muller again follows Bernstein in further distinguishing between two forms of the competence model, namely “the autonomous and the market oriented” (Muller, 1998: 187). He attests that

(T)he former is the traditional (élite) secondary and tertiary model where learners are subjected to the regime of disciplinary subjects; the latter is skilling tailored to specific needs, tasks and slots in the increasingly labile occupational hierarchy.

Under the NQF, Muller argues (1998: 187), the two models (autonomous and market-oriented) are in tension as these pertain to teacher education. Whilst on the one hand the competence model assesses “the competence itself through the performance” (Muller, 1998: 186), in the performance model there is greater dependence on “external economic ‘market-oriented’ determinants of desired educational outcomes” (Muller, 1998: 185).

Teachers, in terms of these two models, which are in tension, are located in two discursive modes. In the performance model, the teacher is framed in terms of intensive regulation of the learner her/himself, as the emphasis of the model is on deficit-identification (Muller, 1998: 185). In contrast, the teacher’s role in the competence model is more democratic, as “(C)lassroom relations are personalised”
and the teacher "must be seen to direct the pedagogic process as undirectively as possible" (Muller, 1998: 186).

Amin (1993), De Clerq (1997), Hinchcliffe (1993) and Sayed (1999) et al argue that the overriding sense to be made of current South African educational policy is that it is largely driven by economic imperatives, which seek to tailor the educational 'product' (in the context of this dissertation, the SA school-leaver) in terms of what is required to compete in the international economic arena. Thus, we find, for example, the South African Schools Act's (1996) shift towards increased policies of school choice (Hoadley, 1999) and user fees. Section 36 of the SASA reads as follows:

A governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the State in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners at the school.

Shifting the burden of fee-paying to parents occurs in the current South African context of continuing job losses and increasing wage differentials between the highest and lowest paid workers. Koch (1996), Sayed (1999) and Samoff (1996) have pointed to the anti-equity outcomes of countries which have adopted economic models similar to that of GEAR. With public schools now financially responsible for their own water accounts, telephone bills, and routine maintenance (replacement of broken windows, ground maintenance et al), the descriptive label 'semi-privatised' is perhaps apt to describe current South African public educational policy.

The performance-model in the outcomes discourse has been argued to form part of a larger discourse of (increasing) marketisation of education. Within this framework, cost-shifting, cost-recovery and cost-sharing mechanisms have become features of the South African educational policy landscape. I argue that, in the main, the outcomes discourse in South Africa is located within this framework.
It is my contention that the discourses of teacher professionalism which emerge from this discourse analysis of the SACE Act of 2000 locates the South African debate about teacher professionalism and teacher identity within this international research literature.

Teachers’ roles are defined in terms of prescriptive regulation in the performance-model of outcomes-based education. In contrast, teachers who operate in accord with a competence-model of outcomes-based education are operating in discursive frames of “emancipation, actualisation and learning freedom” (Muller, 1998: 186). Thus, teachers’ identities within these two models are in tension - one identity is largely prescriptive (performance-model) while the teacher identity which emerges from the competence-model is purported to be democratic, participatory, empathetic, and focussed on “learning freedom” rather than prescriptivism.

Sachs (2001: 150) finds three contradictions that characterise the professional identity of teachers in the market discourse:

First, is that the call for teacher professionalism...is occurring at a time when there is evidence that teachers are being deskilled and their work is intensified. Second...fewer resources are being allocated to teacher learning. Third, the teaching profession is being exhorted to be autonomous while at the same time it is under increasing pressure from politicians and the community to be more accountable and to maintain standards.

In her opening statement on the same page, Sachs indicates that “(I)ssues of teacher professionalism and teacher professional identity are now evident in much research literature emerging from the USA, UK and Australia”.

Five of the ten data items in the SACE Act of 2000, analysed in the previous chapter (items 1, 4, 5, 6 and 8 – educator; professional development; ethical and professional standards; education and training profession; educator professionalism) have been shown to be located within a broad discourse of marketisation.
We now turn our attention to a discussion of the democratic discourses of teacher professionalism, as this emerges from the analysis.

5.3.2. The democratic professionalism discourse

The second, albeit less dominant discourse of teacher professionalism emerging from the analysis is that of a democratic professionalism. In broad terms, this discourse stands in opposition to the market discourse which has been discussed in 6.3.1. above.


democratic professionalism...seeks to demystify professional work and build alliances between teachers and excluded constituencies of students, parts and members of the community on whose behalf decisions have traditionally been made either by professions or by the state.

This discourse presupposes a commitment to a professionalism which discourages any exclusivist tendencies. The democratic professionalism discourse, as espoused by Michael Apple (1996) disavows elements of teacher autonomy which locates the profession solely within the ambit of teachers. A more inclusive model of teacher professionalism is envisaged by Apple, one which incorporates teachers, students and community members in principled alliance. Analysis item 2(d) locates teacher autonomy within the parameters of those teachers who are, respectively, members of the ‘organised profession’, and those teachers who are not registered with SACE, and who therefore fall outside of the organised teacher corps in South Africa. This formulation falls within the traditional notion of teacher professionalism, organising teachers only, and mainly serving the interests of teachers, vis-à-vis issues of remuneration, service conditions and the like.

The regulatory mechanisms of the SACE Act, in terms of its directives on registration, training and professional development, act as external loci of control. In
this regard, section 5(c)(i) - referring to the code of professional ethics in the SACE Act of 2000, and sections 5(c)(iii) - the code of conduct regulations in the SACE Act, serve to enforce particular modes of regulation on teachers and their work.

In contrast, the more inclusive democratic professionalism project “facilitates the participation in decision making by students, parents and others and seeks to develop a broader understanding in the community of education and how it operates” (Sachs, 2001: 153).

The SACE Act of 2000 [item 2(a)] utilises the notion of democratic participation in SACE purely on the basis of an understanding of democracy as based on numerical superiority or otherwise. It is worth repeating here that the ELRC and SACE both consist solely of organised teacher representatives and the state. It is thus an ‘exclusivist’ democracy, catering only for the particular interests of teachers (although it can be argued that even teachers’ interests have been compromised by the ELRC, in terms of ELRC Resolution 3 of 1996 - see item 3(b)), without legislating in the area of (enforced) co-operation between teachers, students and community organs. These collaborative initiatives, it seems, have to be established by teachers who take cognisance of the official discourses of teacher professionalism, and who consciously construct spaces for principled interaction on issues which traditionally have been the preserve of the educational sector (bureaucrats, academics, consultants, and to a lesser extent, teachers themselves). These issues include curriculum, pedagogy, learning materials and assessment.

I would argue that Curriculum 2005 does offer possibilities in terms of teachers relying on learners’ own life experiences around which to construct learning situations. However, these spaces are increasingly taken up by corporations keen to
seize the opportunities which are presented in an education system which is overtly oriented towards advancing primarily the economic goals of the post-apartheid state, characterised as it is by its neo-liberal framework encapsulated in GEAR.

Analysis item 5(b) makes reference to one of the seven roles of the educator as per the *Norms and Standards for Educators* document (2000), namely that of the educator in “(C)ommunity, citizenship and pastoral role”. This section reads, in part:

> The educator will uphold the constitution and promote democratic values and practices in schools and society...Furthermore, the educator will develop supportive relations with parents and other key persons and organisations based on a critical understanding of community and environmental development issues.

According to the *Norms and Standards for Educators* document then, there are three ways to achieving democratic professional practice. These are:

1. to remain in keeping with statutory requirements as per the constitution;
2. by proactively seeking relationships with parents;
3. by developing relationships with key community structures within a context of a broad understanding of community issues.

Castells (1997: 350-3) lauds this type of local political action, seeing within this dynamic the emergence of worldwide networks of democratic practice, which go beyond the rhetoric of national democratic discourses. Often issues-based, these practices “re-legitimize the concern with public affairs in people’s minds and lives”.

The educator, framed in this discourse, assumes an identity which will be explored in the next section of this final chapter.

The scant occurrences of the democratic professionalism discourse in the SACE Act of 2000, and the dominance of the market discourses (see 6.3.1.) in the Act, have significant implications for the construction of teacher identity as this emerges from the analysis of the SACE Act of 2000. The next section of the discussion centres
around the notion of teacher professional identity as it emerges from the discourses of professionalism in the SACE Act of 2000.

5.4. Teacher professional identity emerging from the discourses of teacher professionalism

What has emerged from the foregoing discussion is a realisation that no single teacher professional identity emerges from the analysis of the SACE Act of 2000. Rather, multiple identities have emerged. Firstly, the teacher framed within market discourses assumes contradictory identities and fulfils paradoxical professional roles, (see Sachs, 2001: 150, quoted in 6.3.1.). Teachers play their role in the new South African democracy by promoting, *inter alia*, the entrepreneurial skills deemed to be central to Curriculum 2005. Within a state which has shed more than 500 000 jobs during the past seven years, teachers can be seen to be part of a system which is preparing students for an economy characterised by jobless growth. Essentially, education may become utilitarian in this scenario, with the teacher assuming the identity of one who initiates the student into a future in which optimal employment is a misnomer.

In contrast to this identity, a second identity has emerged from the discussion. This second identity is the teacher as democratic agent, who, through critical engagement with communities of parents and students, promotes the democratic practices which are vital at grassroots level, if a broad-based democratic ethos is to infuse South African life. This democratic agent, far from being a bureaucratic functionary, is an agent of liberation, intellectually and politically. Intrinsic to this identity is the notion of the teacher as activist, pursuing, as a committed individual, democratic projects in tandem with his/her community. This concept is adroitly captured in the work of
Edward Said, who writes that, for the teacher as democratic agent and free-ranging intellectual,

(T)he purpose is not to advance careers, strengthen egos, or celebrate status. The intellectual’s representations are not intended exclusively for service within those bureaucracies in which the intellectual works. Intellectual representations are the activity itself, dependent on a kind of consciousness that is skeptical, engaged, unremittingly devoted to rational investigation and moral judgment; and this puts the individual on record and on the line. (Said, 1994: 20)

In the analysis, sections 5(b) and 5(e) refer to the democratic role legislated for the South African teacher. The *Norms and Standards for Educators* legislation of 2000 (see Appendix Two) states (under the heading Community, citizenship and pastoral role) that “(T)he educator...will uphold the constitution and promote democratic values and practices in schools and society”.

It is clear that a tension exists between the two professional identities which emerge from the foregoing analysis. Sachs (2001: 155) posits that the notion of

a fixed teacher professional identity is unproductive...(but that) it can serve the needs of the State by providing a framework for externally initiated controls. These controls set the limits for what can be said about teacher professional identity and at the same time defining what must remain unsaid on pain of censure. In such situations teacher professional identity serves bureaucratic purposes, in so far as control of debates about is (sic.) meaning are taken from outside the people who ‘live’ it on a daily basis, teachers themselves.

The discourses of teacher professionalism in the SACE Act of 2000 thus produce two identities for South African teachers, the two existing simultaneously but in tension. The teacher acting as a functionary of a bureaucratic (economic) state cannot summarily reconcile the second identity of democratic agent, in which she/he is able to be a dissenting voice in democratic spaces. These democratic spaces include communities of parents and students who mobilise with teachers and other social agents in pursuit of the democratic ideal. I use the term “dissent” as defined by Edward Said (1996: xviii); Said defines dissent as “not a knee-jerk reaction to whatever is...but rather an informed, considered analysis”.
The teacher as an independent, critical, democratic agent provides spaces for teachers to develop "communities of practice" (Sachs, 2001: 158). These communities of practice, arising out of the articulation of democratic discourses, "develop in larger contexts – historical, social, cultural, institutional – with specific reference to resources and constraints" (Sachs, 2001: 158). Should teachers choose to develop and create these communities of practice which "articulate around issues of professional practice", Sachs suggests that the impact on teachers’ lives will be highly significant.

Engagement with the public is critical. Sachs proposes that the challenge for teachers "is how to facilitate public debate about the nature of teaching" (Sachs, 2001: 159). In order to achieve this, what is necessary is an appreciation on the part of teachers that the era in which we work is one characterised by "rapid change, ambiguity and uncertainty, while at the same time having a clear and articulated sense of what it means to be a teacher in contemporary society" (Sachs, 2001: 159).

Table Five (Summary – issues arising from the analysis of the data), consolidating as it does the key issues which emerged from the analysis, points to the fact that the SACE Act of 2000, and its (intertextually) associated texts are concentrated on a fairly limited set of discourses around the notion of teacher professionalism. Table Two in chapter two confirms this assertion, indicating as it does that the Act is permeated with neo-liberal discourses which inform educational transformation within a globalised economy (market discourses) and, simultaneously, discourses which frame the constitution of democratic professionalism.

In this regard, one can conclude with a degree of assuredness that the discourses which emerge from this analysis of the SACE Act of 2000 locate the Act within the international neo-liberal discourses of the marketisation of education (see Ball, 1990
and 1994; McCulloch, Helsby and Knight, 2000; Hyland, 1995; Chisholm, 1997). Teacher identity as it emerges from this reading of the Act points to an identity which is located within discourses of economic imperatives, with a simultaneous space reserved for a more educationally sound democratic, independent and critical professional teacher identity.

What has emerged from this research, then, is that the SACE Act of 2000, functioning as part of the neo-liberal market discourse, also opens up the democratic space which teachers may exploit in order to offer students in particular, and society in general, a sense of what the demands of the present global order are. The political project defined by this democratic discourse locates the teacher within a social movement which is progressive, and signals the possibility of teachers becoming the authors of their own professional identities.

Thus, teacher identity as ‘rescued’ from discourses of professionalism in the SACE Act of 2000 is complex, multi-layered, and contested. The seeming tension between these two discourses suggests that teacher identity in the SACE Act of 2000 is complex and contested. Navigating these identities will doubtless be reflected in teachers’ practices, as they interpret and re-interpret their roles vis-à-vis their multiple, ‘oppositional’ subjectivities.

It is hoped that this study will contribute to a larger project which seeks to construct a more informed view in terms of what the construct ‘teacher professionalism’ signals in the post-apartheid era.
5.5. Limitations of the study, and possibilities for future research

This study has limited itself to an analysis of texts in an attempt to identify the teacher professional as this is located discursively in the post-apartheid legislative context, more specifically in the SACE Act of 2000. This was attempted as my research has produced little evidence of legislative documents being analysed in terms of discourse analysis.

It is hoped that this study will contribute to a broader research base on teacher identity in South Africa. It would be valuable if teachers’ perspectives were to be elicited in terms of their professional identities. A research project which attempts to establish the degree of association with either or both of the operating discourses identified in this study would enhance our understanding of teachers’ perceptions of themselves and their roles in the new democratic South Africa. This is especially valuable in a period in which teachers’ roles and value to society are publicly debated, and when teachers’ work is increasingly criticised.
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The sequencing convention followed throughout is that 'Mc' reads as pronounced, thus 'Mac'. Also, 'St.' is read as 'Saint', and inserted as such in the alphabetical sequence.


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Appendix 1

The South African Council for Educators (SACE) Act of 2000:
Act No. 31 of 2000
It is hereby notified that the President has assented to the following Act which is hereby published for general information:


Hierby word bekend gemaak dat die President sy goedkeuring geheg het aan die onderstaande Wet wat hierby ter algemene inligting gepubliseer word:

ACT

To provide for the continued existence of the South African Council for Educators; to provide anew for the functions of the said council; and to provide anew for the composition of the said council; and to provide for matters incidental thereto.

BE IT ENACTED by the Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, as follows:—

CHAPTER 1
INTERPRETATION AND OBJECTS OF ACT

Definitions

1. In this Act, unless the context indicates otherwise—

(i) “adult learning centre” means a public or private centre which provides basic education to adults and of which the educators are employed in terms of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (Act No. 76 of 1998); (viii)

(ii) “council” means the South African Council for Educators referred to in section 4; (vii)

(iii) “educator” means any person referred to in section 3 and who teaches, educates or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and educational psychological services, at an institution; (vi)

(iv) “further education and training institution” means a public or private further education and training institution defined in section 1 of the Further Education and Training Act, 1998 (Act No. 98 of 1998), or any technical college, youth college, community college, state college or other college which is wholly or partly funded by the state; (iii)

(v) “institution” means any school, further education and training institution or adult learning centre; (ii)

(vi) “member” means a member of the council appointed in terms of section 6; (iv)

(vii) “Minister” means the Minister of Education; (v)

(viii) “organised profession” means all trade unions or federations of trade unions which are members of the Education Labour Relations Council; (i)

(ix) “school” means a public or independent school defined in section 1 of the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996). (ix)

Objects of Act

2. The objects of this Act are—

(a) to provide for the registration of educators;

(b) to promote the professional development of educators; and

(c) to set, maintain and protect ethical and professional standards for educators, by means of the functioning of the council.
Application of Act

3. This Act applies to all educators appointed—
   (a) in terms of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (Act No. 76 of 1998);
   (b) in terms of the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996);
   (c) at an independent school;
   (d) in terms of the Further Education and Training Act, 1998 (Act No. 98 of 1998);
   (e) at a further education and training institution;
   (f) at an adult learning centre.

CHAPTER 2

CONTINUATION, POWERS AND DUTIES, COMPOSITION AND GOVERNANCE OF COUNCIL

Continuation of council

4. The South African Council for Educators referred to in section 27 of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (Act No. 76 of 1998), continues to exist as a juristic person despite the repeal of that section by section 28 of this Act.

Powers and duties of council

5. Subject to this Act and the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act No. 27 of 1996), the council—
   (a) with regard to the registration of educators—
      (i) must determine minimum criteria and procedures for registration or provisional registration;
      (ii) must consider and decide on any application for registration or provisional registration;
      (iii) must keep a register of the names of all persons who are registered or provisionally registered;
      (iv) must determine the form and contents of the registers and certificates to be kept, maintained or issued in terms of this Act, the periods within which they must be reviewed and the manner in which alterations thereto may be effected; and
      (v) may prescribe the period of validity of the registration or provisional registration;
   (b) with regard to the promotion and development of the education and training profession—
      (i) must promote, develop and maintain a professional image;
      (ii) must advise the Minister on matters relating to the education and training of educators, including but not limited to—
         (aa) the minimum requirements for entry to all the levels of the profession;
         (bb) the standards of programmes of pre-service and in-service educator education;
         (cc) the requirements for promotion within the education system;
         (dd) educator professionalism;
      (iii) must research and develop a professional development policy;
      (iv) must promote in-service training of all educators;
      (v) may develop resource materials to initiate and run, in consultation with an employer, training programmes, workshops, seminars and short courses that are designed to enhance the profession;
      (vi) may compile, print and distribute a professional journal and other publications;
      (vii) may establish a professional assistance facility for educators;
   (c) with regard to professional ethics—
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SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR EDUCATORS ACT. 2000

(i) must compile, maintain and from time to time review a code of professional ethics for educators who are registered or provisionally registered with the council;

(ii) must determine a fair hearing procedure;

(iii) subject to subparagraph (ii), may—

(a) caution or reprimand;

(b) impose a fine not exceeding one month’s salary on: or

(c) remove from the register for a specified period or indefinitely, or subject to specific conditions, the name of, an educator found guilty of a breach of the code of professional ethics; and

(iv) may suspend a sanction imposed under subparagraph (iii)(bb) or (cc) for a period and on conditions determined by the council;

(d) with regard to fees—

(i) must, in consultation with the Minister, determine fees payable to the council by registered educators and educators applying for registration;

(ii) may require from the relevant employers to deduct fees from the salaries of educators and to pay it over to the council;

(iii) may, after a fair hearing—

(a) caution or reprimand; or

(b) remove from the register for a specified period or indefinitely, or subject to specific conditions, the name of, an educator found guilty of failing to pay the fees determined by the council; and

(iv) may suspend a sanction imposed under subparagraph (iii)(bb) for a period and on conditions determined by the council; and

(e) in general—

(i) must advise the Minister on any educational aspect which the Minister may request it to advise on;

(ii) may appoint staff and determine their conditions of service;

(iii) may establish committees and assign duties to them;

(iv) must perform any duty which is necessary for the proper functioning of the council; and

(v) may advise the Minister on any relevant educational aspect.

Composition of council

6. (1) The council consists of the following members, appointed by the Minister with due consideration to representation in respect of race, gender, disability and geographic distribution:

(a) the chairperson, subject to section 7;

(b) 18 educators collectively nominated by the organised profession;

(c) five persons nominated by the Department of Education;

(d) two persons nominated by the national associations representing school governing bodies contemplated in section 20(3) of the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996);

(e) one person nominated by the Council on Higher Education established by section 4 of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997);

(f) one person nominated by the councils of further education and training institutions contemplated in section 8 of the Further Education and Training Act, 1998 (Act No. 98 of 1998);

(g) one person nominated by national bodies representing independent or private institutions recognised by the Minister;

(h) the chief executive officer of the council, subject to section 17.

(2) The members referred to in subsection (1)(b) must consist of educators, including principals, employed at or in each of the following institutions or sectors:

(a) a public ordinary school;

(b) an independent school;

(c) a public further education and training institution;

(d) a private further education and training institution;

(e) an early childhood development sector;

(f) an adult learning centre;

(g) learners with special education needs sector.
(3) If the organised profession is unable to reach agreement collectively with regard to the 18 nominations referred to in subsection (1)(b), the Minister must appoint 18 members from the nominations by individual organisations from the organised profession.

(4) When any nomination becomes necessary in terms of subsection (1), the council must invite the relevant bodies or authorities in writing to nominate persons who qualify for nomination within a specified period of at least 30 days.

(5) No person may be nominated or appointed as a member of the council if that person—
   a) is removed from an office of trust by a court of law; or
   b) is convicted of an offence involving dishonesty or an offence for which the sentence imposed is imprisonment without the option of a fine.

(6) If the council receives any nomination it must, within 30 days after the expiry date specified in the invitation, submit the nomination to the Minister.

(7) If the council receives no nominations or receives insufficient nominations within the period specified in the invitation, the Minister may, after consultation with the council, appoint persons who meet the requirements up to the number required, as members.

(8) The Minister must by notice in the Gazette, as soon as practicable after the appointment of the members, publish the name of every person appointed as a member, together with the date from which the appointment takes effect and the period for which the appointment is made.

Chairperson and deputy chairperson of council

7. (1) (a) At the first meeting in a new term of office of members, the members must nominate five persons, of whom one must be appointed by the Minister as chairperson.
   (b) A person who is not a member may be nominated by the council for appointment as chairperson.

(2) The chief executive officer must act as chairperson until such time as a chairperson is appointed.

(3) After the appointment of the chairperson by the Minister, the members must elect one of their number as deputy chairperson of the council to act as chairperson when the chairperson is not available.

(4) The chairperson and deputy chairperson hold office during the term of office of the members.

(5) In the event of the chairperson being appointed from the members of the council, the vacancy that arises must be filled in accordance with section 10.

(6) Whenever both the chairperson and the deputy chairperson are not available, the members must, from among themselves, elect a member to act as chairperson.

Term of office of members

8. Subject to section 10(2), all members, excluding the chief executive officer, hold office for a period of four years.

Termination of office of chairperson, deputy chairperson or member

9. The term of office of the chairperson, deputy chairperson or any other member is terminated if the member—
   (a) resigns by giving notice in writing to the Minister and the council;
   (b) is absent from three consecutive meetings of the council or from a committee of which the member is a member without leave of the relevant chairperson, or in the case of the chairperson, the leave of the executive committee of the council;
   (c) brings the council or the profession into disrepute;
   (d) no longer meets the requirements referred to in section 6(1) and (2);
   (e) (i) is declared insolvent;
       (ii) is removed from an office of trust by a court of law;
       (iii) is convicted of an offence involving dishonesty or an offence for which the sentence imposed is imprisonment without the option of a fine; or
       (iv) is declared by a competent court to be of an unsound mind or under a legal disability.
Filling of vacancies

10. (1) If the term of office of a member is terminated in terms of section 9, the vacancy must be filled, with the necessary changes, in accordance with section 6.
   (2) The term of office of a member appointed in terms of subsection (1), is the remainder of the term of office of the relevant predecessor.
   (3) (a) If the office of chairperson becomes vacant in terms of section 9, the remaining members and the Minister must act in accordance with section 7(1).
       (b) The person so appointed as chairperson holds office for the remainder of the term of office of the relevant predecessor.

Executive committee

11. (1) The executive committee of the council consists of—
   (a) the chairperson of the council, who is the chairperson of the committee;
   (b) six other members appointed by the council of whom at least one is a member referred to in section 6(1)(c); and
   (c) the chief executive officer.
   (2) The council must, subject to this Act, determine the functions of the executive committee.
   (3) A decision of the executive committee is regarded as a decision of the council, unless the decision is revoked by the council at its ensuing meeting.
   (4) Anything done in implementing the decision of the executive committee before it is revoked by the council, is not invalid by reason only of the fact that the decision is subsequently revoked by the council.

Registration committee

12. (1) The registration committee of the council consists of—
   (a) the chairperson, who is a member of, and appointed by, the council;
   (b) four other members appointed by the council; and
   (c) the chief executive officer.
   (2) Subject to Chapter 3, the registration committee must—
       (a) consider and make recommendations to the council on minimum criteria and procedures for the registration or provisional registration of educators;
       (b) consider and make recommendations to the council on any application for registration or provisional registration;
       (c) recommend the period of validity of the registration of an educator to the council; and
       (d) exercise or perform any other power or duty delegated or assigned to it by the council.
   (3) The registration committee must keep a record of its proceedings.

Professional development committee

13. (1) The professional development committee of the council consists of—
   (a) the chairperson, who is a member of, and appointed by, the council;
   (b) four other members appointed by the council, of whom at least one must be a member referred to in section 6(1)(c); and
   (c) the chief executive officer.
   (2) The professional development committee must, subject to this Act—
       (a) consider and make recommendations to the council in relation to powers and duties contemplated in section 5(b); and
       (b) exercise or perform any other power or duty delegated or assigned to it by the council.
   (3) The professional development committee must keep a record of its proceedings.

Disciplinary committee

14. (1) The disciplinary committee of the council consists of—
   (a) the deputy chairperson of the council, who is the chairperson of the committee:
(b) four other members appointed by the council, of whom at least one must be a member referred to in section 6(1)(c); and
(c) the chief executive officer.

(2) The disciplinary committee must—
(a) compose, maintain and from time to time review a code of professional ethics;
(b) ensure that an alleged breach of the code of professional ethics is investigated;
(c) establish panels to investigate and hear complaints against educators;
(d) ensure that a fair hearing, in accordance with the procedure determined by the council in terms of section 5(c)(ii), is conducted;
(e) on the basis of a recommendation of the relevant panel, recommend a finding and appropriate action, if any, to the council; and
(f) exercise or perform any other power or duty delegated or assigned to it by the council.

(3) A relevant panel must make a recommendation to the disciplinary committee in regard to a finding, and, if any, disciplinary action concerning a complaint referred to it.

(4) For the purposes of the investigation and hearing, a panel may summon any person who—
(a) may be able to give information of material importance concerning the subject of the investigation or hearing; or
(b) has possession, custody or control of, or over any book, document or object which may have a bearing on the matter, to appear before the panel and to produce the book, document or object, if any.

(5) The summons must be in a form prescribed by the council and be signed by the chairperson of the disciplinary committee or the chief executive officer and be served on a person by way of—
(a) delivery by hand;
(b) telefax; or
(c) registered post.

(6) The date on which the summons is served is regarded as, in a case of—
(a) service by hand, the date of delivery;
(b) service by telefax, the dispatching date reflected on the telefax; and
(c) service by registered post, the date on which the letter was signed for, in the absence of proof to the contrary.

(7) The disciplinary committee and a panel must keep a record of the proceedings of every investigation and disciplinary hearing.

Committees of council

15. (1) The council may establish other committees to assist in the performance of its functions and may co-opt other persons to attend committee meetings on the basis of their expertise.

(2) Any committee, other than the executive committee, may include persons who are not members of the council.

(3) Subject to sections 11 and 14 the chairperson of a committee must be appointed by the council from among its members.

(4) Members of committees referred to in subsection (1) may be appointed for such period as the council may determine.

(5) Members of a panel referred to in section 14(2)(c) need not be members of the council.

Meetings, and procedure at meetings of council and committees

16. (1) The council must hold at least two meetings during each calendar year at its head office, and may in addition hold such other meetings as the chairperson of the council may determine.

(2) The council may make rules relating to the procedure at meetings of the council and its committees, and on any other matter necessary for the performance of its functions.
(3) A majority of the members of the council or a committee constitutes a quorum at any meeting of the council or committee.

(4) (a) A decision of the majority of the members of the council or of a committee present at any meeting constitutes a decision of the council or committee.

(b) In the event of an equality of votes, the presiding member has a casting vote in addition to a deliberative vote.

(5) A decision taken by the council or a committee is not invalid by reason only of a vacancy on the council or a committee, as the case may be, at the time when the decision was taken.

Appointment and functions of chief executive officer and staff

17. (1) The council must appoint a chief executive officer and may appoint other employees as it may deem necessary to assist it in the performance of its functions.

(2) The chief executive officer is the accounting officer of the council.

(3) The chief executive officer is, subject to the directions and in accordance with the policy of the council, responsible for the—

(a) formation and development of an efficient administration;

(b) organisation, control, management and discipline of the staff; and

(c) implementation of the decisions of the council.

(4) As accounting officer the chief executive officer is responsible for—

(a) all income and expenditure of the council;

(b) all assets and the discharging of all liabilities of the council; and

(c) the proper and diligent implementation of the operational plans of the council.

(5) The council is the employer and must determine the conditions of service of its employees.

Remuneration and allowances of members of council and committees

18. The chairperson of the council, the deputy chairperson, every member and any person appointed as a member of a committee or panel who is not in the service of the State may, in respect of services rendered by them in connection with the affairs of the council, a committee or panel, be paid by the council—

(a) such travelling, subsistence and other allowances; and

(b) in the case of the chairperson of the council, such additional remuneration, as the council may determine.

Funds of council

19. (1) The funds of the council consist of—

(a) compulsory fees;

(b) money received from donations, contributions, interest or fines; and

(c) other money received by the council from any other source.

(2) The council—

(a) must during each financial year, at such time and in such manner as the Minister may determine, submit to the Minister for approval a detailed statement of its estimated income and expenditure for the ensuing financial year;

(b) may during any financial year submit to the Minister for approval adjusted statements of its estimated income and expenditure; and

(c) may not incur any expenditure which exceeds the total amount approved in terms of paragraphs (a) and (b).

(3) If the Minister does not approve the statement of estimated income and expenditure of the council, the Minister must request the council to submit a revised statement of its estimated income and expenditure within a specified period.

(4) (a) The funds contemplated in subsection (1) must be used by the council in accordance with the approved statement referred to in subsection (2).

(b) Any unexpended balance must be carried forward as a credit to the following financial year.

(5) Subject to subsection (4), the council may invest any portion of its funds in such manner as the council may approve.
(6) The books of account and financial statements of the council must be audited at the end of each financial year by a chartered accountant registered in terms of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Act, 1991 (Act No. 80 of 1991), appointed by the council.

(7) A copy of the audited financial statements must be submitted to the Minister within three months after the end of the council’s financial year.

Annual report

20. (1) The council must, within three months after the end of each financial year, submit a report to the Minister on the performance of its functions during that financial year.

(2) The Minister must table the report in Parliament as soon as is reasonably practicable.

CHAPTER 3

REGISTRATION OF EDUCATORS

Compulsory registration of educators

21. (1) A person who qualifies for registration in terms of this Act must register with the council prior to being appointed as an educator.

(2) No person may be employed as an educator by any employer unless the person is registered with the council.

Application for registration

22. (1) (a) An application for registration must be made to the council in the manner and form determined by the council.

(b) The applicant must submit the documentation and information required by the council together with the registration fee referred to in section 5(d)(i).

(2) The council must consider an application for registration in terms of the requirements for registration determined by the council.

(3) If an applicant for registration satisfies the requirements referred to in subsection (1), the council must register the applicant and issue a registration certificate to the educator.

(4) If an applicant does not satisfy all the requirements but the council is of the opinion that the requirements will be satisfied within a reasonable time, the council may register the applicant provisionally on such conditions as the council may determine.

(5) When an educator who is provisionally registered as contemplated in subsection (4) satisfies all the requirements for registration and the conditions referred to in that subsection, the council must register the educator in accordance with subsection (3).

(6) If an educator referred to in subsection (4) does not satisfy the requirements for registration within the period specified, the provisional registration lapses and the name of the person is removed from the register.

(7) The period for which an educator is provisionally registered may be extended by the council, and different conditions in respect of different applicants may be determined if there is a reasonable basis for the differentiation.

(8) Different categories of registration may be determined by the council—

(a) to allow for special circumstances of different sectors in education; or

(b) if there is a reasonable basis for such differentiation.

Removal of name from register

23. (1) The council may direct the chief executive officer to remove the name of an educator from the register if—

(a) after having been registered, the relevant qualification of the educator is withdrawn or cancelled by the higher education institution which issued it;

(b) the educator was registered by error or by means of fraud;

(c) the educator was found guilty of a breach of the code of professional ethics;

(d) the educator requests de-registration, permanently or for a specified period:
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(e) the educator fails to pay the fees prescribed by the council within a specified period; or

(f) the educator dies.

(2) Notice of the removal of the name of an educator from the register must be given by the chief executive officer to the educator concerned by way of certified mail addressed to the relevant address appearing in the register.

(3) The name of an educator contemplated in subsection (1)(a), (b), (c) and (e) may not be removed from the register unless the educator was given a reasonable opportunity to make representations to the council.

(4) As from the date on which notice contemplated in subsection (2) has been given to the educator any registration certificate issued to the educator concerned is regarded to be cancelled.

**Registration certificates**

24. (1) A registration certificate must be issued and sent to the educator upon registration by the council.

(2) If the chief executive officer is satisfied, on proof submitted by a registered educator, that a registration certificate has been destroyed or lost, a duplicate registration certificate must be issued to that educator upon payment of the fee prescribed by the council.

**CHAPTER 4**

**GENERAL**

**Transitional provisions**

25. (1) The terms of office of the members of the council in office immediately prior to the commencement of this Act, expire on the day prior to the date on which the appointment of the members takes effect in terms of section 6(8).

(2) Any function performed by the council prior to the commencement of this Act, is regarded to have been performed in terms of the corresponding provision of this Act.

(3) Despite the provisions of subsection (2), any disciplinary proceedings instituted against an educator for an alleged breach of the code of professional ethics prior to the commencement of this Act must be continued and concluded in terms of the procedure determined in terms of Chapter 6 of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (Act No. 76 of 1998).

(4) The constitution, registration procedure, code of professional ethics and other procedures of the council existing immediately prior to the commencement of this Act, remain in force until amended or repealed by the council under this Act, except where they are in conflict with the provisions of this Act.

(5) The compulsory registration fees and other fees payable to the council immediately prior to the commencement of this Act, remain in force until amended or repealed by the council under this Act.

(6) The agreements of employment existing immediately prior to the commencement of this Act between the employees of the council, and the council, continue to exist subject to applicable labour law.

(7) Practising educators to whom the provisions of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (Act No. 76 of 1998), do not apply and who are required in terms of this Act to register are, subject to subsection (8), regarded to be provisionally registered with the council, irrespective of their qualifications.

(8) Provisional registration contemplated in subsection (7) remains valid until a date determined by the Minister, prior to which date the educators concerned must apply for and obtain registration in terms of Chapter 3 in order to remain registered.

**Information to be furnished to council**

26. (1) A higher education institution and the employer of an educator must furnish the council, at its request, with such information as is reasonably required by the council for the performance of its functions.
(2) In each case where disciplinary steps are taken against any educator by the employer resulting in a sanction other than a caution or reprimand, a certified summary of the record of the proceedings at the hearing and of the sanction imposed must be forwarded to the council by such employer.

Offences and penalties

27. Any person who—
   (a) has been duly summoned under section 14(5) and who fails without sufficient cause—
      (i) to attend at the time and place specified in the summons; or
      (ii) to remain in attendance until excused by the panel from further attendance;
   (b) refuses to be sworn or to affirm as a witness; or
   (c) fails without sufficient cause—
      (i) to answer fully and satisfactorily any question lawfully put to that person; or
      (ii) to produce any book, document or object in that person’s possession or custody or under that person’s control which that person was required to produce in terms of the said section 14(5),

is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a fine or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months.

Repeal of law


Short title

29. This Act is called the South African Council for Educators Act, 2000.
Appendix 2

National Education Policy Act (Act No. 27 of 1996): Norms and Standards for Educators
Government Notice 82 of 4 February 2000
NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY ACT, 1996

NORMS AND STANDARDS FOR EDUCATORS

The Minister of Education has, in terms of section 3(4)(f) and (l) of the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act No. 27 of 1996), determined Norms and Standards for Educators as National Policy, and which policy is, in terms of section 7 of the said Act hereby published.

Professor Kader Asmal, MP
Minister of Education
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GLOSSARY

Applied competence means the ability to put into practice in the relevant context the learning outcomes acquired in obtaining a qualification.

Credit means that value assigned to a given number of notional hours of learning.

Critical Outcomes or Critical Cross-field Education and Training Outcomes means those generic outcomes which inform all teaching and learning, and are as defined in these regulations.

Education and Training Quality Assurance body (ETQA) means a body established in terms of section 5(1)(a)(ii) of the Act, responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of national standards and qualifications, and to which specific functions relating to the monitoring and auditing of national standards and qualifications have been assigned in terms of section 5(1)(b)(1) or the Act.

Elective learning or Elective means a selection of additional credits at the level of the NQF specified, from which a choice may be made to ensure that the purpose(s) of the qualification is achieved.

Field means a particular area of learning used as an organizing mechanism for the National Qualifications Framework.

Fundamental Learning or fundamental means that learning which forms the grounding or basis needed to undertake the education, training or further learning required in the obtaining of a qualification.

Integrated Assessment means that form of assessment which permits the learner to demonstrate applied competence and which uses a range of formative and summative assessment methods.

Level Descriptor means that statement describing a particular level of the eight levels of the National Qualifications Framework.

National Standards Body (NSB) means a body registered in terms of section 5(1)(a)(ii) of the Act, responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications, and to which specific functions relating to the registration of national standards and qualifications have been assigned in terms of section 5(1)(b)(i) of the Act.

Notional Hours of Learning means the learning time that it is conceived it would take an average learner to meet the outcomes defined, and includes concepts such as contact time, time spent in structured learning in the workplace and individual learning.

Outcomes means the contextually demonstrated end products of the learning process.
Provider means a body which delivers learning programmes which culminate in specified National Qualifications Framework standards and or qualifications and manages the assessment thereof.

Primary Focus means that activity or objective within the sector or sub-system upon which an organisation or body concentrates its efforts.

Qualification means a planned combination of learning outcomes which has a defined purpose or purposes, and which is intended to provide qualifying learners with applied competence and a basis for further learning; and it means the formal recognition of the achievement of the required number and type of credits and such other requirements at specific levels of the National Qualifications Framework as may be determined by the relevant bodies registered for such purpose by the South African Qualifications Authority.

Quality Assurance means the process of ensuring that the degree of excellence specified is achieved.

Recognition of Prior Learning means the comparison of the previous learning and experience of a learner howsoever obtained against the learning outcomes required for a specified qualifications, and the acceptance for purposes of qualifications of that which meets the requirements.

Specific Outcomes means contextually demonstrated knowledge, skills and values which support one or more critical outcomes.

Specialised learning or Specialisation means that specialised theoretical knowledge which underpins application in the area of specialisation.

Standard means registered statements of desired education and training outcomes and their associated assessment criteria.

Unit Standard means registered statements of desired education and training outcomes and their association assessment criteria together with administrative and other information as specified in these regulations.
1. **Scope and Purpose of this Policy Statement**

The term *educator* in this policy statement applies to all those persons who teach or educate other persons or who provide professional educational services at any public school, further education and training institution or departmental office. The term includes educators in the classroom, heads of departments, deputy-principals, principals, education development officers, district and regional managers and systems managers.

As soon as other processes of generating standards and qualifications have been finalised by the relevant stakeholder bodies, the policy will be augmented to encompass the entire range of educators as defined in the Employment of Educators Act (Act no 76 of 1998), including those persons who teach, educate or train other persons in adult basic education centres or in early childhood development centres and those who provide professional therapy and educational psychological services.

The term *educator development* used in this policy refers to ongoing education and training of educators as a continuum, including both pre-service and in-service education and training.

The policy describes the *roles*, their associated set of *applied competences* (norms) and *qualifications* (standards) for the development of educators. It also establishes key strategic objectives for the development of learning programmes, qualifications and standards for educators. These norms and standards provide a basis for providers to develop programmes and qualifications that will be recognised by the Department of Education for purposes of employment. This policy on Norms and Standards for Educators needs to be informed by continued research, and provides a focus for that research.

The roles, their associated set of applied competences and the qualifications described here will be used by the Department of Education for purposes of recognition and evaluation of qualifications for employment as an educator.

2. **Background to the Development of this Policy**

This policy statement derives from the final report produced by the Technical Committee on the Revision of Norms and Standards for Educators, Department of Education, September 1998. The Technical Committee engaged in a variety of activities over a period of nine months culminating in the final report. Besides literature and policy review, the Committee consulted intensively with a range of stakeholders and drew heavily on the work of others, including:

- The regulations and discussion documents of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA);
• The reports of the Education, Training and Development Practices Project;

• The report of the President’s Education Initiative (Getting Learning Right, 1999);

• The Centre for Educational Technology and Distance Education (Criteria for Quality Distance Education);

• Adult Basic Education and Training standards generating task team;

• Early Childhood Development Interim Accreditation Committee;

• The Green Paper on ‘Quality Education for All Learners: The Challenge of Addressing Barriers to Learning and Development’.

This policy statement should be read together with The Final Report of the Technical Committee on the Revision of the Norms and Standards for Educators (Department of Education, September 1998) and with collective agreements of the Education Labour Relations Council, including those on Development Appraisal, the Duties and Responsibilities of Educators and Educator Workloads, as well as the South African Council for Educators’ Code of Conduct.

3. ROLES AND COMPETENCES

The cornerstone of this Norms and Standards policy is the notion of applied competence and its associated assessment criteria.

Applied competence is the overarching term for three interconnected kinds of competence:

• Practical competence is the demonstrated ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.

• It is grounded in foundational competence where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking that underpins the action taken; and

• integrated through reflexive competence in which the learner demonstrates ability to integrate or connect performances and decision-making with understanding and with an ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and to explain the reasons behind these adaptations.

Applied competence also refers to the ability to integrate the discrete competences which constitute each of the seven educator roles. This is important so that competence in a role is assessed, rather than simply the ability to perform a discrete competence. In turn, the seven roles should also be assessed in an integrated and applied manner.
In addition, this applied competence must be demonstrated within the subject or phase specialist role that defines the purpose of the qualification. While all qualifications must develop applied competence, the level at which this competence is demonstrated will differ according to the purpose and nature of the qualification.

All the competences must be developed in all initial educator qualifications. They should not, however, be seen as static. They may be developed in different ways, with different emphases and at different depths. Providers have the responsibility to decide how this should be achieved, and before designing a learning programme it will be necessary to establish the particular nature of the clients and which qualification the learners are to be prepared for.

A number of factors will impact on this decision, including:

- the type of learners in the programme, especially their levels of maturity and experience;
- the context - rural, urban or peri-urban;
- the phase(s) to be catered for;
- language experience;
- whether the courses are to be offered through contact or distance education.

Different qualifications may demand different NQF levels for the achievement of similar competences. For example, an initial teaching qualification on level 6 for the senior phase in the general education and training band will develop and assess the competence of an educator to be a leader, administrator and manager at a lower level and in a more restricted range, focused on the classroom, than an advanced qualification at level 7, aimed at school principals, district managers and education development officers. Some qualifications might require the same level of practical competence, but could differ with regard to their degree of rigour in terms of reflexive and foundational competences. Hence the 'mix' of competences can be manipulated in order to attain the required breadth (range) and depth of the qualification.

Some competences may be seen to be more suitable for experienced rather than beginning educators, e.g. designing original learning programmes, accessing and working in partnership with professional services and other resources in order to provide support for learners. They are nevertheless included in the initial educator programme since the competences will develop as the educator becomes more experienced.

Although teaching practice is recognised as an essential feature that should be included in all educator programmes, no competences are specifically associated with it and there is no prescribed period of time. This is a programme element to be determined by the provider concerned and the relevant quality assurance body.
Teaching practice is seen as a mode of delivery through which all the different roles of educators should be developed and assessed. Time spent in the workplace is considered to be very important and should provide the authentic context within which student educators experience and demonstrate the integration of the competences developed in the entire curriculum.

Educators will need some proficiency in more than one official language. The levels of proficiency required are described in a number of the competences. For employment purposes providers are requested to indicate the language proficiency attained by a graduate in terms of any appropriate language endorsement.

NOTES ON THE ROLES AND THEIR ASSOCIATED COMPETENCES

1. The seven roles and associated competences for educators for schooling provide the exit level outcomes. They are in effect the norms for educator development and therefore the central feature of all initial educator qualifications and learning programmes. The critical cross-field outcomes are integrated into the roles and their applied competence. Providers have the freedom and the responsibility to design their learning programmes in any way that leads learners to the successful achievement of the outcomes as represented in their associated assessment criteria.

2. While providers should develop these roles and competences in all qualifications offered, they will combine and weight the roles differently in accordance with the specific purpose of the qualification. A more advanced qualification may pay less attention to a number of the roles and be focused primarily on one or two roles.

3. The seventh role, that of a learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist, is the over-arching role into which the other roles are integrated, and in which competence is ultimately assessed. The specialisation can take a variety of forms. It can be linked to phase (for example, foundation phase), or to a subject/learning area (for example, mathematics or human and social sciences), or a combination thereof. Qualifications must be designed around the specialist role as this encapsulates the 'purpose' of the qualification and 'shapes' the way the other six roles and their applied competences are integrated into the qualification.

4. A specialisation for teaching will always include both a subject/learning area specialisation and a phase specialisation. In the case of foundation phase educators, the specialisation will be the three learning areas of the foundation phase as well as an understanding of learners and learning in the first years of formal schooling.

5. The role of learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist is described above as it relates to the central role of learning mediation. However, other specialisations, based on the other roles, are possible in 'post-basic' qualifications. For example, educators could specialise in Educational Management that goes beyond the classroom into the management of an institution or department; or in Curriculum Studies that builds on the role of researcher as well as the role of learning materials designer; or Materials Development in which the emphasis on materials and
programmes for the classroom and school shifts to materials development for the public domain.

6. The list of roles and their associated competences below is meant to serve as a *description* of what it means to be a competent educator. It is not meant to be a checklist against which one assesses whether a person is competent or not. The roles and competences must be integrated in the learning programme and should inform the exit level outcomes of a qualification and their associated assessment criteria. Ultimately, the qualification should reflect an applied and integrated competence. This demonstrated ability to integrate theory and practice in teaching must be assessed within all educator qualifications.

7. In the descriptions below the seven roles are described in a manner appropriate for an initial teaching qualification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The seven roles are:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning mediator</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The educator will mediate learning in a manner which is sensitive to the diverse needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning; construct learning environments that are appropriately contextualised and inspirational; communicate effectively showing recognition of and respect for the differences of others. In addition an educator will demonstrate sound knowledge of subject content and various principles, strategies and resources appropriate to teaching in a South African context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The educator will understand and interpret provided learning programmes, design original learning programmes, identify the requirements for a specific context of learning and select and prepare suitable textual and visual resources for learning. The educator will also select, sequence and pace the learning in a manner sensitive to the differing needs of the subject/learning area and learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leader, administrator and manager</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The educator will make decisions appropriate to the level, manage learning in the classroom, carry out classroom administrative duties efficiently and participate in school decision making structures. These competences will be performed in ways which are democratic, which support learners and colleagues, and which demonstrate responsiveness to changing circumstances and needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scholar, researcher and lifelong learner</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The educator will achieve ongoing personal, academic, occupational and professional growth through pursuing reflective study and research in their learning area, in broader professional and educational matters, and in other related fields.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community, citizenship and pastoral role
The educator will practise and promote a critical, committed and ethical attitude towards developing a sense of respect and responsibility towards others. The educator will uphold the constitution and promote democratic values and practices in schools and society. Within the school, the educator will demonstrate an ability to develop a supportive and empowering environment for the learner and respond to the educational and other needs of learners and fellow educators.

Furthermore, the educator will develop supportive relations with parents and other key persons and organisations based on a critical understanding of community and environmental development issues. One critical dimension of this role is HIV/AIDS education.

Assessor
The educator will understand that assessment is an essential feature of the teaching and learning process and know how to integrate it into this process. The educator will have an understanding of the purposes, methods and effects of assessment and be able to provide helpful feedback to learners. The educator will design and manage both formative and summative assessment in ways that are appropriate to the level and purpose of the learning and meet the requirements of accrediting bodies. The educator will keep detailed and diagnostic records of assessment. The educator will understand how to interpret and use assessment results to feed into processes for the improvement of learning programmes.

Learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist
The educator will be well grounded in the knowledge, skills, values, principles, methods, and procedures relevant to the discipline, subject, learning area, phase of study, or professional or occupational practice. The educator will know about different approaches to teaching and learning (and, where appropriate, research and management), and how these may be used in ways which are appropriate to the learners and the context. The educator will have a well-developed understanding of the knowledge appropriate to the specialism.

The roles are broken down into:

- *Practical Competence*

- *Foundational Competence, and*

- *Reflexive Competence.*
### LEARNING MEDIATOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field competence</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning mediator</strong></td>
<td><em>(Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Using the language of instruction appropriately to explain, describe and discuss key concepts in the particular learning area/subject/discipline/phase.
- Using a second official language to explain, describe and discuss key concepts in a conversational style.
- Employing appropriate strategies for working with learner needs and disabilities, including sign language where appropriate.
- Preparing thoroughly and thoughtfully for teaching by drawing on a variety of resources; the knowledge, skills and processes of relevant learning areas; learners' existing knowledge, skills and experience.
- Using key teaching strategies such as higher level questioning, problem-based tasks and projects; and appropriate use of group-work, whole class teaching and individual self-study.
- Adjusting teaching strategies to: match the developmental stages of learners; meet the knowledge requirements of the particular learning area; cater for cultural, gender, ethnic, language and other differences among learners.
- Adjusting teaching strategies to cater for different learning styles and preferences and to mainstream learners with barriers to learning.
- Creating a learning environment in which: learners develop strong internal discipline; conflict is handled through debate and argument, and learners seek growth and achievement.
- Creating a learning environment in which: critical and creative thinking is encouraged; learners challenge stereotypes about language, race, gender, ethnicity, geographic location and culture.
- Using media and everyday resources appropriately in teaching including judicious use of: common teaching resources like text-books, chalkboards, and charts; other useful media like overhead projectors, computers, video and audio (etc); and popular media and resources, like newspapers and magazines as well as other artefacts from everyday life.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foundational competence</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Foundational competence</strong></td>
<td><em>(Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Understanding different explanations of how language mediates learning: the principles of language in learning; language across the curriculum; language and power; and a strong emphasis on language in multi-lingual classrooms.
- Understanding different learning styles, preferences and motivations.
- Understanding different explanations of how learners learn at different ages, and potential causes of success or failure in these learning processes.
- Understanding the pedagogic content knowledge – the concepts, methods and disciplinary rules – of the particular learning area being taught.
Understanding the learning assumptions that underpin key teaching strategies and that inform the use of media to support teaching.

Understanding the nature of barriers to learning and the principles underlying different strategies that can be used to address them.

Understanding sociological, philosophical, psychological, historical, political and economic explanations of key concepts in education with particular reference to education in a diverse and developing country like South Africa.

Exploring, understanding, explaining, analysing and utilizing knowledge, skills and values underpinning ETD practices.

Reflective competences

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.)

Reflecting on the extent to which the objectives of the learning experience have been achieved and deciding on adaptations where required.

Defending the choice of learning mediation undertaken and arguing why other learning mediation possibilities were rejected.

Analysing the learning that occurs in observed classroom interactions and in case studies.

Making judgements on the effect that language has on learning in various situations and how to make necessary adaptations.

Assessing the effects of existing practices of discipline and conflict management on learning.

Reflecting on how teaching in different contexts in South Africa affects teaching strategies and proposing adaptations.

Reflecting on the value of various learning experiences within an African and developing world context.

Reflecting on how race, class, gender, language, geographical and other differences impact on learning, and making appropriate adaptations to teaching strategies.

Critically evaluating the implications for schooling of political social events and processes and developing strategies for responding to these implications.

Critically reflecting on the ways barriers to learning can be overcome.

Critically reflecting on the degree to which issues around HIV/AIDS have been integrated into learning.

Analysing the strengths and weakness of the ways in which environmental, human rights and other critical cross-field issues have been addressed.

INTERPRETER AND DESIGNER OF LEARNING PROGRAMMES AND MATERIALS

Practical competences

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.)

Interpreting and adapting learning programmes so that they are appropriate for the context in which teaching will occur.

Designing original learning programmes so that they meet the desired outcomes and are appropriate for the context in which they occur.
Adapting and/or selecting learning resources that are appropriate for the age, language competences, culture and gender of learning groups or learners.

Designing original learning resources including charts, models, worksheets and more sustained learning texts. These resources should be appropriate for subject; appropriate to the age, language competence, gender, and culture of learners; cognisant of barriers to learning.

Writing clearly and convincingly in the language of instruction.

Using a common word processing programme for developing basic materials.

Evaluating and adapting learning programmes and resources through the use of learner assessment and feedback.

(Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.)

Understanding the principles of curriculum: how decisions are made; who makes the decisions, on what basis and in whose interests they are made.

Understanding various approaches to curriculum and programme design, and their relationship to particular kinds of learning required by the discipline; age, race, culture and gender of the learners.

Understanding the principles and practices of OBE, and the controversies surrounding it, including debates around competence and performance.

Understanding the learning area to be taught, including appropriate content knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge, and how to integrate this knowledge with other subjects.

Knowing about sound practice in curriculum, learning programme and learning materials design including: how learners learn from texts and resources; how language and cultural differences impact on learning.

Understanding common barriers to learning and how materials can be used to construct more flexible and individualised learning environments.

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.)

Reflecting on changing circumstances and conditions and adapting existing programmes and materials accordingly.

Critically evaluating different programmes in real contexts and/or through case studies both in terms of their educational validity as well as their socio-political significance.

LEADER, ADMINISTRATOR AND MANAGER

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.)

Managing classroom teaching of various kinds (individualised, small group etc.) in different educational contexts and particularly with large and diverse groups.

Constructing a classroom atmosphere which is democratic but disciplined, and which is sensitive to culture, race and gender differences as well as to disabilities.
Resolving conflict situations within classrooms in an ethical sensitive manner.

Promoting the values and principles of the constitution particularly those related to human rights and the environment.

Maintaining efficient financial controls.

Working with other practitioners in team-teaching and participative decision making.

Accessing and working in partnership with professional services and other resources in order to provide support for learners.

Respecting the role of parents and the community and assisting in building structures to facilitate this.

(Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.)

Understanding approaches to problem-solving, conflict resolution and group dynamics within a South African and developing world context characterised by diversity.

Understanding various approaches to the organisation of integrated teaching programmes and team teaching.

Understanding various approaches to the management of classrooms, with particular emphasis on large, under-resourced and diverse classrooms.

Knowledge of available professional and community support services and strategies for using their expertise.

Understanding current legislation on the management of learners and schools.

Knowledge of educators' unions, the South African Council for Educators and other relevant professional bodies.

Understanding constitutional commitments to human rights and the environment.

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.)

Reflecting on strategies to assist educators working on integrated teaching programmes and in team teaching.

Critically examining a variety of management options, making choices based on existing and potential conditions, and defending these choices.

Adapting systems, procedures and actions according to circumstances.

### COMMUNITY, CITIZENSHIP AND PASTORAL ROLE

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.)

Developing life-skills, work-skills, a critical, ethical and committed political attitude, and a healthy lifestyle in learners.

Providing guidance to learners about work and study possibilities.

Showing an appreciation of, and respect for, people of different values, beliefs, practices and cultures.

Being able to respond to current social and educational problems with particular emphasis on the issues of violence, drug abuse, poverty, child and women abuse,
HIV/AIDS and environmental degradation. Accessing and working in partnership with professional services to deal with these issues.

Counselling and/or tutoring learners in need of assistance with social or learning problems.

Demonstrating caring, committed and ethical professional behaviour and an understanding of education as dealing with the protection of children and the development of the whole person.

Conceptualising and planning a school extra-mural programme including sport, artistic and cultural activities.

Operating as a mentor through providing a mentoring support system to student educators and colleagues.

Foundational competences

(Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.)

Understanding various approaches to education for citizenship with particular reference to South Africa as a diverse, developing, constitutional democracy.

Understanding key community problems with particular emphasis on issues of poverty, health, environment and political democracy.

Knowing about the principles and practices of the main religions of South Africa, the customs, values and beliefs of the main cultures of SA, the Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

Understanding the possibilities for life-skill and work-skill education and training in local communities, organisations and business.

Knowing about ethical debates in religion, politics, economics, human rights and the environment.

Understanding child and adolescent development and theories of learning and behaviour with emphasis on their applicability in a diverse and developing country like South Africa.

Understanding the impact of class, race, gender and other identity-forming forces on learning.

Understanding formative development and the impact of abuse at individual, familial, and communal levels.

Understanding common barriers to learning and the kinds of school structures and processes that help to overcome these barriers.

Knowing about available support services and how they may be utilised.

Knowing about the kinds of impact school extra-mural activities can have on learning and the development of children and how these may best be developed in co-operation with local communities and business.

Reflective competences

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.)

Recognising and judging appropriate intervention strategies to cope with learning and other difficulties.

Reflecting on systems of ongoing professional development for existing and new educators.

Adapting school extra curriculum programmes in response to needs, comments and
| Reflections and Analyses |  |
|-------------------------|  |
| Reflecting on ethical issues in religion, politics, human rights and the environment. |
| Reflecting on ways of developing and maintaining environmentally responsible approaches to the community and local development. |
| Adapting learning programmes and other activities to promote an awareness of citizenship, human rights and the principles and values of the constitution. |
| Critically analysing the degree to which the school curriculum promotes HIV/AIDS awareness. |
| Critically analysing the degree to which the school curriculum addresses barriers to learning, environmental and human rights issues. |

### SCHOLAR, RESEARCHER AND LIFELONG LEARNER

| Competences |  |
|-------------|  |
| **Practical competences** | (Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.) |
| Being numerically, technologically and media literate. |
| Reading academic and professional texts critically. |
| Writing the language of learning clearly and accurately. |
| Applying research meaningfully to educational problems. |
| Demonstrating an interest in, appreciation and understanding of current affairs, various kinds of arts, culture and socio-political events. |
| Upholding the principles of academic integrity and the pursuit of excellence in the field of education. |

| **Foundation competences** | (Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.) |
| Understanding current thinking about technological, numerical and media literacies with particular reference to educators in a diverse and developing country like South Africa. |
| Understanding the reasons and uses for, and various approaches to, educational research. |
| Understanding how to access and use common information sources like libraries, community resource centres, and computer information systems like the internet. |
| Understanding and using effective study methods. |

| **Reflective competences** | (Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.) |
| Reflecting on critical personal responses to, literature, arts and culture as well as social, political and economic issues. |
| Reflecting on knowledge and experience of environmental and human rights issues and adapting own practices. |
### ASSESSOR

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.)

Making appropriate use of different assessment practices, with a particular emphasis on competence-based assessment and the formative use of assessment, in particular continuous and diagnostic forms of assessment.

Assessing in a manner appropriate to the phase/subject/learning area.

Providing feedback to learners in sensitive and educationally helpful ways.

Judging learners’ competence and performance in ways that are fair, valid and reliable.

Maintaining efficient recording and reporting of academic progress.

(Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.)

Understanding the assumptions that underlie a range of assessment approaches and their particular strengths and weaknesses in relation to the age of the learner and learning area being assessed.

Understanding the different learning principles underpinning the structuring of different assessment tasks.

Understanding a range of assessment approaches and methods appropriate to the learning area/subject/discipline/phase.

Understanding language terminology and content to be used in the assessment task and the degree to which this is gender and culturally sensitive.

Understanding descriptive and diagnostic reporting within a context of high illiteracy rates among parents.

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.)

Justifying assessment design decisions and choices about assessment tasks and approaches.

Reflecting on appropriateness of assessment decisions made in particular learning situations and adjusting the assessment tasks and approaches where necessary.

Interpreting and using assessment results to feed into processes for the improvement of learning programmes.

### LEARNING AREA/SUBJECT/DISCIPLINE/PHASE SPECIALIST

(Where the learner demonstrates the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.)

Adapting general educational principles to the phase/subject/learning area.

Selecting, sequencing and pacing content in a manner appropriate to the phase/subject/learning area; the needs of the learners and the context.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selecting methodologies appropriate to learners and contexts.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrating subjects into broader learning areas and learning areas into learning programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching concepts in a manner which allows learners to transfer this knowledge and use it in different contexts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the actions taken.*

Understanding the assumptions underlying the descriptions of competence in a particular discipline/subject/learning area.

Understanding the ways of thinking and doing involved in a particular discipline/subject/learning area and how these may be taught.

Knowing and understanding the content knowledge of the discipline/subject/learning area.

Knowing of and understanding the content and skills prescribed by the national curriculum.

Understanding the difficulties and benefits of integrating this subject into a broader learning area.

Understanding the role that a particular discipline/subject/learning area plays in the work and life of citizens in South African society – particularly with regard to human rights and the environment.

*Reflective competences:*

*Where the learner demonstrates the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.*

Reflecting on and assessing own practice.

Analysing lesson plans, learning programmes and assessment tasks and demonstrating an understanding of appropriate selection, sequencing and pacing of content.

Identifying and critically evaluating what counts as undisputed knowledge, necessary skills, important values.

Making educational judgements on educational issues arising from real practice or from authentic case study exercises.

Researching real educational problems and demonstrating an understanding of the implications of this research.

Reflecting on the relations between subjects/disciplines and making judgements on the possibilities of integrating them.
Appendix 3

Media representation of teachers
*Cape Times*, 11 June 1996, p. 3
Bengu lashes out at drunken teachers

EDUCATION MINISTER Sibusiso Bengu has lashed out at teachers who arrive at work drunk — if they arrive at all.

He told the Senate yesterday that “significant numbers” of teachers were neglecting their work. Introducing the education policy review, Bengu said the “difficulties and uncertainties of transformation ... provide no justification whatsoever for teachers to neglect their basic duty, to put in a full day’s professional work on behalf of their learners.

“Yet... I am appalled by the reports I receive that significant numbers of teachers are bringing their profession and their own integrity into disrepute by chronic absenteeism, late reporting for duty, early knocking off and disreputable behaviour such as drunkenness.

“I want this message to get to the guilty ones (and they know who they are): Clean up your act, or get out of education.

“When I know how hard the majority of teachers work, in taxing circumstances, and when I consider the sacrifices we are asking those teachers who face the prospect of redeployment to make, I say again: The educator profession cannot tolerate ill-discipline.

“If you have no pride and no sense of responsibility, you do not belong in teaching. So go!” — Political Staff
Appendix 4

Media representation of teachers
The Teacher, October 1998, p. 4
TEACHERS REEL AS THABO MBeki LABELS THEM DRUNK AND UNPROFESSIONAL

Mbeki lashes out

Ajith Bridgraj

The keynote address delivered by Deputy President Thabo Mbeki during the recent national conference of the South African Democratic Teachers Union (Sadtu) in Durban has stirred a bonfire amongst educators and educator bodies in the province.

In his controversial address, Mbeki slammed Sadtu and its membership for being uncommitted to the culture of learning and teaching, and of being too prone to resorting to strike action. Allegations of high absenteeism, unpunctuality and drunkenness were also levelled against educators. In addition, Mbeki praised the membership of other teacher unions, often labelled as "reactionary" by Sadtu, for their commitment and contribution to education.

The executive director of the Natal African Teachers' Union (Nalu), Elam Blyela, states that his organisation was one of the "reactionary unions" commended by Mbeki. "We have a professional approach to teaching which is inspired by the children's right to learn, and not given to sudden blame."

He adds that the problems — drunkenness, absenteeism, demoralisation and the lack of a work ethic — are particularly rife in township schools and require urgent attention. "However, I'm not too sure of the situation in the former white, Indian and coloured schools. Also, it would be unfair of me to say that all the teachers who behave irresponsibly belong to Sadtu," concedes Blyela.

Sadtu's KwaZulu-Natal vice president, Rashida Bobat, acknowledges that there is a need for constructive criticism and that Mbeki had the right to express concerns about the progress of education in the country. "Whilst we accept that there are educators outside our ranks, that deserve the sharp rebuke from the deputy president, we believe that the department should also shoulder the blame for the fact that we have such low morale and ill-discipline in our schools," says Bobat.

Stating that the Sadtu constitution provided for expulsion if a member refused to become disciplined, Bobat stressed that teachers were thousands of educators around the country, many of whom belong to the union, who perform "very difficult circumstances."

"Many of our educators are the teaching fraternity "public apology" for the "embarrassment" in extra-curricular activities, believe that Mbeki owes the teaching fraternity a public apology for the "embarrassment" that his comments have provoked. "Mbeki is not part of the education ministry and his comments are therefore tantamount to hearsay," said the educator, speaking on condition of anonymity.

"What gives me sleepless nights, though, is that we were not afforded a platform to respond to allegations," he added.

Also expressing his outrage was another Sadtu-aligned educator from G section in Umzazi. Preferring to remain anonymous, he is concerned at the timing of Mbeki's scathing attack on educators. "The countdown to the country's next elections has already started and such comments are certainly ill-timed," he stated.

"Whilst admitting that there were educators in Umzazi South Africa's second-biggest township — guilty of Mbeki's allegations, he maintains that such individuals constitute only a tiny minority of the teaching profession in his area. "Mbeki's comments were therefore sweeping generalisations and only provide ammunition for those who perceive Sadtu as being a union that is primarily driven by the motivation to secure salary increases for its members," he concluded.
Appendix 5

Community activism around ELRC Resolution 3 of 1996

*Cape Times*, 28 May 1996, p. 8
Teachers sold out by leadership

CURRENT proposals for rationalisation and redeployment of teachers in the Western Cape debase the education of communities which fought long and hard against apartheid, argues EVERARD WEBER.

The agreement was illegitimate. Sadtu's members, at mass meetings throughout the Western Cape over the past month, have dissociated themselves from their leadership because proponents were never collected. School communities which include important constituencies like parents, were never consulted (but are now charged with implementing rationalisation).

The agreement is inimical to the education of the oppressed. Our Forum supported Sadtu's opposition to similar plans by the National Party a few years ago — we marched with them, went on strike with them; today we ask, as one poster aptly put it, "Et tu Sadtu?"

Van den Heever reviews the problem from the perspective of teachers only. Of course, teachers are affected. First, because they can lose their jobs. As Sadtu has explained to its members: You are guilty of "misconduct" and will be sacked if you refuse "voluntary" severance packages or "redeployment", once your post is scrapped.

Who is to help carry out this dirty work? Among others — your colleagues! Second, the working conditions of those who remain in teaching — a kind of crowd control — will deteriorate further. (Pay reductions, further salary freezes, cuts in allowances that teachers predominate among their clients.)

More importantly, the measures constitute an attack on the education of our children. Our Forum is not

against rationalisation or redeployment in principle. We are opposed to it in its present form because it devalues the education of communities which fought long and hard and sacrificed much for better education, in opposition to the NP's gutter education. We must therefore link the present attempt at rationalisation to one of the key features of black education under the Nats: "Minder moordlike onderwys."

Glance at the recent American, British and French literature on the "new sociology of education" and, apart from being embarrassed by how conservative it makes one feel, one is struck by how unimportant the issue of access to schools is to them, and how crucial it was — and remains — to all black people in South Africa.

The number of black pupils who gained access to schools — and remained there until Standard 10 — has increased dramatically over the past 20 years. In 1992

the NP published a policy document, the "Education Renewal Strategy", in which it recommended compul-

sory schooling for all children up to Standard 7 — after that their parents must pay to keep them at school.

In subsequent policy statements the ANC agreed, in fact. In 1994 it asked voters to vote for it, providing them fewer years of free schooling than what they have at present. The ANC has yet to implement this crazy idea; one hopes it never does.

Once a child is inside a school what happens? What can be said about the quality of education received? School budgets have been cut, fewer textbooks are available, and so on. Twenty five percent is enough to pass in any subject at high school. It is not uncommon for whole classes to score averages of around 20% in many subjects.

Every year many rejoice over the matric results. It is time our country stops definding itself and comes to terms with the truth. Any teacher at a black school or any university, college or technician lecturer, will testify to the fact that the majority of matriculants leave school not knowing much and having acquired few academic skills.

Much, much more can be said. The NP started it all, hence it was the only party that was — repeatedly, and at length — condemned over megalomanias for its opportunistic attempts to be associated with the protest march to parliament on May 23, 1996.

From this quick look at access to schools and the quality of education received, it is clear that "education" cannot be reduced to a pupil-teacher ratio and that any attempt to attain it must entail making the work of the Nats.

Surely we cannot, then, get rid of 12 000 teachers, close down teacher training colleges, toy with the idea of fewer years of free schools, making it easier and easier for pupils to pass, etc. We must move in the opposite direction.

Let us remember also that education is socially determined. A point Vasi den Heever ignores completely. Hence racial and other inequalities prevalent in the world outside our schools will be reflected inside its classrooms — some say our schools reproduce them. (Thus when we ask, for example, how much more there is for the education of poor communities, we are, simultaneously, asking fundamental questions about who determines economic and fiscal policies — to whose advantage; to whose disadvantage?).

Yet, as the history of this country shows, struggles in education also determine, and decisively too, what goes on in the broader society. Our thinking is national and non-racial. So are the problems outlined. We intend to do everything in our power to fight the war our children's education. We extend a hand of fellowship to all South Africans to join us. But when we fight, we fight not to betray, but to win.

Everard Weber is a member of the steering committee of the Southern Suburbs PTA/PTSA Forum.
Appendix 6

Credential fraud crackdown, Kwazulu-Natal Dept. of Education
The Teacher, November 1999, p. 3
KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION CRACKS DOWN ON CREDENTIAL FRAUD

To catch a bogus teacher

Adjith Bridgraj

The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture has made good on its promise of zero tolerance for fraud and corruption by using 48 bogus teachers, mainly from the Empangeni and Umlazi regions where 105 cases of fake certificates were discovered.

Of these educators, 41 have already been convicted, 48 cases are currently under police investigation and 18 educators are still awaiting trial. All the convicted educators had falsified their academic certificates, degrees or diplomas.

Msibi Math, representative for the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, said that more fraudulent cases may be unearthed because his department was still in the process of auditing the 85 000 certificates and diplomas collected during the headcount of educators. "We are currently busy with the Ladysmith region and may be poised to sweep on more of these so-called bogus teachers," he disclosed.

Math also revealed that after last year's headcount of departmental employees, the salaries of 1 015 personnel have been frozen. "A physical count of all educators and other departmental employees who had to produce original documentation of all qualifications obtained was carried out," he explained.

"In auditing the certificates, we are checking with our computers. People who passed their matric examinations are not on the department's database. We are also logging on to the databases of universities and colleges to ascertain if people really studied and acquired their qualifications at these institutions," said Math.

"We are even contacting overseas institutions to find out if employees on our payroll have really studied at those places," he added.

Math also issued a stern warning to all departmental officials and employees who know that they were guilty, or who had "bought" their certificates, to hand themselves over. "It is better for you to come forward than for us to get you. By coming forward you will also help us to deal with those from whom you are obtaining your fake certificates."

The saving which stemmed from the entire headcount process was more than R50-million per year, said Math. The saving on the fixed educators amounted to approximately R1.2 million per annum. Math also indicated that the department was currently exploring ways of recouping salaries that had been paid to the bogus teachers on the strength of their falsified documents.

"In addition, the termination of the services of the fake educators creates openings for us to hire unemployed teachers with proper qualifications on a permanent basis," added Math.

He said that the problem of fake certificates or corrupt officials was not only a national one. Math paid tribute to members of the public — especially the teacher organisations, governing bodies and learners — who helped to expose fraud and corruption within his department. Anyone with information could contact the department on the following toll-free number: 0800 31 32 33. Math can be contacted directly on 032 874-3423 or 093 461-6253.