A Descriptive Analysis of Major Organizational Developments in Teacher Training School Administration in the Democratic Republic of Congo Since 1960

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A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF MAJOR ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS
IN TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN THE
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO SINCE 1960

by

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of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts

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1969
LIFE

William Gilbert Collins was born in Royal Oak, Michigan on November 4, 1937. He graduated from Royal Oak High School on June 17, 1955, and received his Bachelor of Arts degree in history from Asbury College, Wilmore, Kentucky, on May 30, 1960. He was ordained and commissioned a Salvation Army Officer on June 17, 1962.

On October 7, 1964, he went to the Democratic Republic of the Congo where he was principal of the William Booth Teacher Training School for three years. He was also the director of the Laboratory School at Kasangulu, which included the responsibility for the mission station.

He returned to the United States on September 27, 1967, and on February 1, 1968, began his studies at Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois, in preparation for the degree of Master of Arts.
PREFACE

This study of the teacher training school in the Congo is limited in scope to include only government and government-subsidized schools. While it is true that a large majority of schools in the Congo today are private or religious in nature, their regulation by the government has done much to ensure a more uniform educational system. Government standards and an enforced national curriculum have enabled this present study to examine on a more national scale the organization and administration of Congolese teacher training schools. Because of the confusion originating from the recent nationalization of local names and places, the geographic names in the study remain as they were in 1960, which enables the reader to establish some point of reference.
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Chapter I

AN INTRODUCTION TO CONGOLESE EDUCATION

Current patterns and reforms in Congolese education can best be understood in their pre-colonial and colonial past. Because this study is concerned with developments in Congolese education since 1960, a brief introduction serves as a review of Belgian educational policy prior to Congolese Independence on June 30, 1960.

The former Belgian colony has been strongly influenced not only by an inherited Belgian educational system—which will be discussed later—but by French educational philosophy and language. In her African territories, France's educational policy did not take firm shape until the early part of this century. In the beginning, as in the British territories, the official role consisted chiefly of providing some financial assistance to pioneering missionaries. By 1900, there were only seventy state schools in all of French West Africa, with a total enrollment of some 2500 pupils. Beginning about 1903, however, efforts were begun to bring the schools in France's African colony under closer central control, and to establish an increasing degree of uniformity in the approach to the schooling of the African child, whether in Abidjan, Conakry or Rabait.

Although the French government continued to grant subsidies to mission schools (and at least forty per cent of all primary school children in
French-speaking West Africa are still educated in church schools) it was required after 1924, that all mission schools conform to a state model. This model was, in turn, patterned closely on the schools of metropolitan France—indeed, so closely that African children learned the botany of French lands rather than of African ones, and the provinces of France rather than the districts of their own country.¹

The educational philosophy of this colonial period is looked back upon with a great deal of bitterness by the many black educational leaders of today. In a current work, Education in Africa, Abdou Moumouni demonstrates this sentiment quite clearly:

The curriculum and texts of the period show that everything was directed at convincing the young African of the 'congenital' inferiority of the Blacks, the barbarity of his ancestors, and the goodness and generosity of the colonizing nation which, putting an end to the tyranny of the black chiefs, brought with it peace, education, health measures, and so forth. The machinery of falsification is particularly evident in history courses (and with reason). Many Africans will remember all their lives the un-truths they recited without understanding them: 'Our ancestors the Gauls' ... 'Celebrate the brave chiefs who took the Samory! No more irons, no more slaves, to our conquerors, thanks' ... 'In her colonies France treats the natives like her sons,' etc., etc.²

The overriding objective of the system was to create a political and professional elite of high intellectual quality—and in the French image. This implicitly required the use of French as a medium of instruction from the earliest grades, the concomitant use of a high percentage of expatriate teaching staff in the schools, and the maintenance of a careful relationship

between demand and supply in the higher levels of education. The resolution on education passed at the 1944, Brazzaville Conference on French colonial policy set forth these goals simply: while instruction must be directed to teaching the mass of the people how to improve their standard of living, its result must also be "aboutir a une selection sure et rapide des élites."\(^3\)

As late as 1955, it was regarded as radical heresy when a Belgian professor proposed self-government for the Congo in thirty years. Under the paternalistic rule that was in force in Belgium's major colony until the very eve of independence, neither the elaborate educational system nor the country's political institutions were designed to produce or train personnel for leadership positions. Literacy was estimated at an impressive forty percent, facilities for technical education were among the best in the continent, and the Africans shared many material and social benefits of the country's economic prosperity. However, the total number of university graduates was reportedly fewer than twenty, and none of these had served in positions of major responsibility in government or industry when the decision was suddenly made in Brussels in 1952, to grant the Congolaise full independence in less than a year's period.\(^4\)

The opening of the first school in the Congo occurred in 1892, when the country was the Congo Free State, with Leopold II, King of the Belgians, as monarch. The educational policies for the Congo, as developed by the

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\(^3\)Sloan, op. cit., p. 5, "the immediate establishment of a group of elite".

\(^4\)Ibid., p. 6.
Belgians between 1892, and the new era that began with the 1959, negotiations for independence, reflected a concept of colonization sharply different from that of the other major European powers in Africa. While Britain and France focused, in their educational systems, on cultivating a small, well-educated African elite capable of sharing almost from the beginning—and one day assuming—the responsibilities of administration and government, Belgium set its sights on building a social pyramid from the bottom to the top. The stated objective of Belgium was to lift the Congolese masses to a fuller economic and social life, and thus give the population as a whole a personal share in a productive and prosperous nation.

However, the progressively "fuller life" was to be within the African's native milieu. The Congolese were not to be turned into pseudo-Europeans. There was to be no African participation whatsoever in the political process until the pyramid had been firmly established. Pending the development of a stable bourgeoisie to serve as the base, creation of the apex of the pyramid—university trained professional men capable of leadership roles in society—was to be given low priority. The time when Africans of the Congo would be able to act politically was placed vaguely somewhere in the future.5

In order to understand the impact—positive as well as negative—of the Belgian system of colonial education, it is first of all necessary to recall briefly the philosophical context under which Belgian colonialism operated. While Britain invoked "the White Man's Burden", the United States spoke of "Manifest Destiny", and France took upon herself a "Civilising Mission".

5Ibid.
Belgium's colonialism was frankly and openly paternalistic. In the words of a recent American writer, Bernard B. Fall,

The ruling policy of paternalism has never wavered. The African was to be regarded as a child until such time as, by Belgian help, he achieved adulthood. Belgian civilization was initially superior, but it was the task of the Belgian colonizer to share this civilization with the African.6

To be sure, this paternalism, i.e., this superior-to-inferior relationship between colonizer and colonized, was not considered permanent. Room for growth for the African definitely existed under the Belgian system, in contrast to what the same author calls "pseudopaternalism" of the Portuguese and Spanish possessions in Africa. In fact, the next step up from paternalism already had become part of the colonial vocabulary during the tenure of Belgium's next to last governor-general (1952-1958), Leo Petillon. That step was to be known as "Fraternality"—the colonizer power ceased to be a "father" and tried to become an "alder brother" instead, leading the younger brother on the slow road to self-realization.7

The whole structure of Belgian education in the Congo was overshadowed by the philosophy of paternalism-fraternality which also pervaded the other aspects of colonial administration. In their desire to elevate the African, a heavy emphasis was placed upon primary education; followed in importance by practical and vocational education which even—an almost unique situation in Africa—extended to the girls (the latter being usually the forgotten


7 Ibid.
element of education in Africa.)

The bulk of the Belgian educational effort went into the primary and vocational school system; a far smaller portion of the effort was devoted to secondary schooling, and university education within the confines of the Congo began only in October, 1954. Until 1954, non-religious schools were almost non-existent and schools run by the Catholic church were in the heavy majority. The Catholic mission schools exercised in fact a quasimonopoly in the field of education until 1920, with government subsidies and grants being paid to the missionaries. Only in 1920, did the Protestant missions win equal recognition and government subsidies. The grant system operated along lines of "matching funds". Those schools which were willing to meet Belgian educational standards received grants-in-aid. Those which did not had to forego outside aid. According to George H. Kimble, only one-half of the Congolese primary schools had met those standards by 1959.8

The creation of a school system entirely under government control contributed significantly towards the general improvement of the level of the primary education in the Congo, since the government schools conformed to the high Belgian standards. Some of the early Congolese leaders (President Kasavubu, the late Patrice Lumumba, et. al.) were largely products of the Catholic mission schools. Some of the large industrial corporations, particularly in Katanga province, maintained extensive school systems entirely supported by company funds. As of August, 1960, more than 22,000 Congolese children attended primary and technical schools of the Union

Ministère du Haut-Katanga: the technical schools—in view of the fact that their graduates provided many of the skilled workers and lower-echelon supervisors for the corporation—were excellent and were said to possess "equipment that schools in the most advanced countries would be proud to own."  

The primary school system encompassed in 1957, according to Kimble, 28,500 schools staffed with 46,000 teachers (40,000 of whom were African) and 1.64 million pupils. The primary program covered four full school years and also included a regular two-year "pre-primary" school system of écoles maternelles (nursery schools) in which four and five-year-olds were admitted and taught elements of French along with rudiments of religion and Western culture. This system, which was quite extensive, for the first time liberated the African woman from some of her crushing burdens and in itself no doubt contributed to important social changes.

The first four-year cycle was followed by a second higher primary cycle lasting from two to four years, depending upon the program which the student wished to choose and which was very flexible. In actual fact, many students completed the first four-year cycle in five or even six calendar years, but as in the French school system, selection of the brighter students began early, generally as early as the second year of the primary cycle. The more promising elements were pre-selected at eight or nine years of age to

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9 Fall, op. cit., p. 269.
11 Fall, op. cit., p. 269.
continue the full six-year secondary cycle if they so wished. The others could, after completion of their four years of primary studies, switch to vocational or technical schools, or attend a teacher-training school which qualified young Africans for teaching at the primary level.

Although no racial discrimination _de jure_ existed in the Belgian school system, a separate system of primary schools which accommodated the overwhelming majority of the African pupils and which was entirely geared to meet specifically local needs existed _de facto_; while most of the non-African children went to mission and public schools whose curriculum was an exact replica of the Belgian metropolitan curriculum; thus permitting their graduates to transfer directly to institutes of higher education in Europe. While the system was theoretically in force until 1956, it was in fact a "spectacular failure"; very few Africans bothered to apply, and admission to the European-type schools became simply a matter of academic ability. 12

"Blue collar" training of the Belgian educational system made its most significant contribution to education in Africa. Any other African nation makes an extremely poor showing in this so vital field (see Table 1). It must not be forgotten that, besides brilliant politicians trained in the finer points of Anglo-Saxon law and Cartesian philosophy, a newly independent country needs mechanics to run trains, lathe operators to make tools and skilled workers to perform the thousand-and-one minor chores upon which a modern economy is dependent. The Republic of the Congo has them in a far greater measure than most underdeveloped areas anywhere in the world, thanks

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12 Ibid.
to the 650-odd vocational schools.  

**TABLE 1**

**TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN SEVEN AFRICAN COUNTRIES, 1958**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Technical Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congo</td>
<td>13,500,000</td>
<td>19,613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>36,000,000</td>
<td>5,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>1,805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>6,500,000</td>
<td>1,114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanganyika</td>
<td>9,000,000</td>
<td>2,935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malagasy</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>1,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo Republic</td>
<td>790,000</td>
<td>1,365</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, a Belgian philosophy of Paternalism—in spite of its many evils—established in the Congo one of the best systems of primary and technical education in all of Africa. As a result, the literacy rate for the Congo was to become one of the highest on the Continent.

It is in secondary education—which, of course, opens the way to advanced education—that the Belgian record is a great deal more open to criticism, for here the existence of an overwhelmingly large primary cycle which did not provide for continuation into more advanced studies almost automatically shut off the majority of the Congolese from a university education. Formally, of course, secondary education was open to Africans

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13 Fall, op. cit., p. 270.
14 Ibid.
15 Belgian figure. Kimble shows 22,000 for 1957.
16 Ex-French Congo.
as well as to Europeans in the Congo—all government-aided education at all levels being entirely free of charge at every level. In actual fact, only a small fraction of Congolese outside of those who already attended Belgian-type primary schools could hope to close the gaps in their native primary education to "make the grade" in the very difficult secondary six-year cycle which leads to the high school diploma.17

Yet, how different is the Belgian record in the secondary education field from that of other colonial powers, or from that of other independent African states? Here again, a brief perusal of existing statistics may lead to some rather surprising findings. Table 2, showing the ratio between primary school attendance and secondary school attendance in various African states is sufficiently eloquent:

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congo</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>1:83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>2,500,000</td>
<td>88,000</td>
<td>1:26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>1:50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya (All Races)</td>
<td>600,000</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>1:40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya (Africans only)</td>
<td>600,000</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>1:150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanganyika (All Races)</td>
<td>366,000</td>
<td>11,000</td>
<td>1:33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanganyika (Africans only)</td>
<td>366,000</td>
<td>3,500</td>
<td>1:104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malagasy</td>
<td>321,000</td>
<td>17,000</td>
<td>1:18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo Republic</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>3,300</td>
<td>1:30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17Fall, op. cit., p. 270.

18Ibid., p. 271.
As Table 2 clearly shows, the Congo's ratio of secondary students to primary students is certainly far from brilliant, and homage must be paid to Nigeria's surprisingly high ratio in that field, out-stripped here only by the French-built education system of the Malagasy Republic. In East Africa, however, the number of Africans going on to secondary education (as contrasted with local Europeans and Asians) is dangerously low.

The Belgian record, however, is not really being judged on its overall performance in the field of education as much as in its signal failure to provide the Congo with an adequate superstructure of university trained leaders. As the Congo emerged from colonialism straight into chaos, well-meaning individuals, including some who should have known better, took up the cry that there were only "sixteen college graduates" in the country when the Belgian tricolor was hauled down in Leopoldville. A good part of the confusion simply arises from the fact that few non-specialists were qualified to judge the educational equivalence of diplomas from varied educational systems.

The hard fact remains that only in October, 1954, did the first university founded in the Congo—Louvania, an off-shoot of Belgium's venerable Catholic University of Louvain—open its doors to young Congolese in search of higher learning at home. Situated at Kinwenda, twelve miles from Leopoldville, it has an ultra-modern $15,000,000 campus which includes

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19 Probably the highest ratio of secondary school students to primary school students in Africa can be found in Senegal. There, one out of every nine students goes on to a secondary education.

20 Fall, op. cit., p. 271.
a medical school, a 300-bed university hospital, an engineering school, a law school and the regular European-type arts and letters departments. It has also, as a visible sign of its future importance as a center of higher learning, the only experimental nuclear reactor in Africa. However, even during the last years of Belgian rule, the specifically African character of the establishment was not ignored: as of 1958, courses in African philology and sociology; tribal law, African history and literature, among others, were part of the standard curriculum.

In addition to the Congolese attending universities in the Congo, seventy-six Congolese students attended Belgian universities at the time of independence, while yet another 300 had been admitted to an accelerated advanced training program designed to enable them to take over high administrative responsibilities. In addition, a dozen Congolese were undergoing officers' training at the Belgian Military Academy at the time of independence; they, too, must be counted as Congolese endowed with a college education.

Thus, as one attempts to clear the propaganda fog which surrounds the actual performance of higher education in the Congo, it becomes obvious that the record—though still far from brilliant—is not as dismally poor as one has generally been led to believe. The present chaos in the country cannot be explained merely by the absence of a sufficiently large number of college graduates.

In regard to the organization of the curricula, as has been stated before, there existed in the Congo a primarily native-oriented elementary and kindergarten school system in which instruction was dispensed in local
languages, with French being taught as a foreign language only. A small
group of mission schools dispensed a fully Belgian-patterned education which
permitted its students to transfer directly to schools outside the Congo
without loss of school standing; that education, though not denied to
Africans on a racial basis, remained closed to most of them at least until
1954, the date at which the Belgian colonial administration established a
state-run network of schools designed to constitute a transitional stage
between the native-oriented primary schools and the wholly Belgian-patterned
secondary cycle.

The secondary schools, like their counterparts in Belgium, had two
educational "tracks"—moderne and classique. In the moderne track, emphasis
is laid upon mathematics, science and modern languages, while in the
classique track, emphasis is placed upon the classical languages, philosophy
and literature. Needless to say, only a sprinkling of Africans could
qualify for such studies. According to Stewart Easton, only 258
non-Europeans attended the European-type secondary schools in 1958, which
easily explains why so few Congolese were ready for college training later
on. The bulk of the Congolese attending secondary schools went to the
technical and vocational schools, "well equipped and well staffed," which
created a body of trained artisans and specialists in mechanical skills and
trades essential to the Congo's developing economy.  

21 Stewart C. Easton, The Twilight of European Colonialism (New York,
22 Kimble, Tropical Africa, p. 117.
In 1959, no less than 14,038 girls attended the special secondary cycle of études ménagères (Home Economics), as against 19,643 boys attending technical and vocational schools and 17,552 others (no breakdown by sex available) attending teacher training schools. This shows the particular importance given to extending the benefits of education to the African woman as a means of raising the standard of living and education of the population. Courses cover basic hygiene, midwifery, dressmaking, nutrition, and homemaking, all of them well-adapted to local conditions rather than geared to Western standards of housing, cooking, and kitchen refrigeration, obviously unavailable in most African homes. The percentage of girls attending school rose from five per cent in 1948 to more than twenty per cent in 1958, probably one of the highest in Africa. 23

More than anything else, what qualifies for the exercise of the reins of government is not academic training but actual experience in the exercise of executive power. The fact that African leaders in formerly British or French colonial areas were able to rise to high positions in the colonial administration is far more important for the future of good government in their countries than the fact that they did (or did not—quite a few of them did not) attend the Sorbonne or Oxford.

College graduates on both sides could not prevent the American Civil War and the rebellion of the Southern forces against their legal government. College graduates in France could not prevent the mutiny of French generals in Algeria in April, 1961, and college education had very little bearing on

23Fall, op. cit., p. 274.
the lawlessness in Alabama in May, 1961. Demagoguery—with or without college education—can win everywhere. What usually keeps it in check is the determined exercise of executive and judicial power, based upon a more or less long practice in the exercise of such power. This precisely is where Belgium failed in the Congo, but this has very little to do with education as such. The gap is harder to bridge in governing experience than in education. 24

After the Declaration of Independence in June, 1960, and to some extent even before, the Belgian teaching corps started leaving the country because of the general state of insecurity which prevailed in most parts of the Congo. This insecurity was caused largely by the outbreak of tribal disputes and the rivalries of political parties, the latter not easily distinguished from the former because political parties and tribes often coincided. The departure of the greater part of the Belgian teaching staff, however, inaugurated a terrible period of stagnation in the educational system generally. In many places in the country the latter almost came to a complete standstill, in others it functioned only partially. Schools were closed, opened, and closed again. In addition, a great many Belgian-trained executives in the provinces and in Leopoldville had by this time left the country. This added further to the general state of disorder and confusion, for no Congolese trained executives existed to take their place.

After a special organization had been set up to help the Congo—the Organisation des Nations Unies pour le Congo (ONUC)—the United Nations
Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization was enabled through its special fund to put up a program for a revised educational system in the country. This program not only included the reconstruction of the educational system as such, but included reforms and provision for extension of primary, secondary, and technical education as well. Clearly, this plan called for a much larger number of teachers than had been in service before independence, and thus a large foreign teaching staff was engaged under special contract with UNESCO.

The difficulty of primary education was increased because Belgian elementary school teachers were replaced by Congolese teachers whose training, on account of the bad state of the teacher training schools after 1960, left much to be desired. Many Congolese teachers had had only three years of post-elementary school training, but the Government could not but replace the Belgian elementary school teachers by Congolese, in spite of the fact that the latter's knowledge of French was anything but reassuring.

After independence, again, a number of changes were introduced which affected general secondary schools. In a great many of these schools the two-year orientation course (which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Two) was altered so that much more stress was laid on the teaching of French, and mathematics. This innovation aimed at an improvement of the educational level of the pupils in order that they might derive more benefit

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25 Henceforth referred to as UNESCO.

from attending the upper course. Occasionally, a new sectional division of
the upper course was also introduced so that this course now consisted of a
literary, a scientific, a commercial, and a pedagogical section; the last
section being intended mainly for the training of elementary school teachers.

As far as the training of primary school teachers before independence
was concerned, the level of their training was very reasonable, although not
as high as in Europe. But, as we have seen, the decision of the Congolese
Government to replace foreign elementary school teachers by Congolese brought
about a fall in the training level of these schools, with the result that
teachers were in general ill-prepared for their task.

Under Belgian rule there had been two kinds of elementary school
teachers. First, there were those who were called "monitors", i.e.,
authorized to teach only in the primary school of the first degree. For the
most part these were Congolese who had had at least a three year post-
primary training. Second, there were the elementary school teachers
(instituteurs) who had finished their studies at a teacher training college
in Belgium and who, apart from the missionaries, were usually Belgians. The
level of the training of Congolese elementary school teachers, especially of
the monitors (moniteurs), was in general very low.  

Thus, finding its whole educational structure in danger of collapse,
a reorganization of the teacher training school was to receive the highest
priority. The elementary school, which would be the corner stone of the

27 Ibid., p. 102.
28 Ibid., p. 103.
entire system, would have to have its foundation built upon qualified personnel. The newly formed independent government working in cooperation with the United Nations, was soon to inaugurate various crash programs in an effort to fill the vacuum left by the departing Belgians.

With this brief view of Congolese education prior to independence in mind, we can thus conclude that their educational system was based entirely upon Belgian philosophy, methodology and organization—a system very strong in the areas of primary and technical education, but highly lacking in secondary and higher educational opportunities. The latter factor contributed much to the crisis which was to follow independence.

We will examine in the following chapters the current organizational patterns affecting secondary education, and evaluate their relationship to the teacher training school. We will study the development of the laboratory school and analyze its place in both primary and secondary school administration. Finally, current programs for teacher improvement and general supervisory practices will be examined in order to determine possible areas for improvement.
Chapter II

CURRENT ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

The biggest educational problem facing the newly-formed Congolese government was the lack of qualified African teachers. The teacher training or normal school as established by the Belgians was to undergo drastic organizational and administrative changes with the various governmental reforms of 1961, 1962, 1964, and 1966. The school had primarily been a school for monitors (Ecole de Moniteurs) until Independence, with a curriculum centered entirely upon teacher training and an organization which had been basically that of a post-primary school. It was now, with the various organizational reforms, to become a part of secondary education. Those students who had finished six years of primary education and an additional one year of post-primary education were, previous to these reforms, allowed to teach in the elementary school! They were given a certificate equal to their years of post-primary education—usually designated as PFL, PP2, PP3, etc. The deplorable fact is that those teachers who possessed these certificates had little or no teacher training or preparation of any kind.

The teacher training school as established prior to 1960, was generally a four-year post-primary school. Those who were able to complete their studies were granted a diploma entitling them to teach in elementary schools
and were given the designation Dk—signifying teacher status with a four-year post-primary teacher education. Even with four additional years of education, this school and other post-primary schools were not considered an integral part of secondary education as such.

In 1962, the government implemented a primary school reform intended to unify the education imparted over the whole country and to make French the sole language of instruction. Primary education was to cover six years for children between the ages of six and twelve. General secondary education had undergone certain reforms in 1961. The lower cycle—an orientation cycle—covers two years and concentrates on a basic program which comprises the teaching of French, mathematics, and vocational subjects. The upper cycle is of two types: one covers two years and combines instruction in school with vocational training which prepares pupils for entrance to a trade, and the other covers four years and offers courses in the humanities, industrial techniques, agriculture, commerce, science, literature, teacher training and social studies. The course in humanities is composed of classical academic subjects and provides access to university education; the certificates awarded at the end of the courses in industrial techniques and agriculture give access to the polytechnical faculty and to higher technical institutes.

Following the reforms of 1962, the training of teachers was up-graded to a four and then a six-year secondary school. All students who wished to complete their secondary education would now be required to pass the first cycle or orientation cycle, regardless of anticipated vocation or choice. In order to examine the organization of the normal school, a closer
examination should first be made of this orientation required of all students.

Orientation of the child must be a constant preoccupation of all educators, in which the essential role is to aid the adolescent in developing his personality, manifesting his aptitudes and his interests, and at the proper time, to choose those studies which will prepare him for his profession.29

Fundamentally, the philosophy of education used to support the Cycle d'Orientation was, as stated, a period of transition—a bridge between the sixth year of elementary school, and the first year in secondary specialization (the second cycle). The orientation cycle has as its role also, that of social integrator—helping the child develop socially as well as academically. In theory, "these two years of secondary education will lead to a first stage of general education and civic foundation indispensable to citizens of a modern State."30

Admission to this first cycle is by competitive examination organized in the various political districts. The provincial government, or in the case of the capital city the urban authority, will decide the conditions, date and location of the examination centers. Only those students who have completed their primary education, and are less than fifteen years of age as of the thirty-first of December of the current year, and who have passed their

29Republic of the Congo, Ministry of Education, Cycle d'Orientation, No. Ed. NAT./SP/640/509/61,2 (1965), p. 5. (Translation by the writer.) "Orienter l'enfant doit être une préoccupation constante de tout éducateur, dont le rôle essentiel est d'aider l'adolescent à développer sa personnalité, à manifester ses aptitudes et ses intérêts et, le moment venu, à choisir en connaissance de cause les études qui le prépareront à l'exercice de la profession."

30Ibid. "ces deux années d'études secondaires l'auront conduit à un premier niveau de formation générale et civique indispensable aux citoyens d'un Etat moderne."
examinations for the certificate of primary school are allowed to participate in the competitive examinations. An examining board is established in each province and each locality by the provincial authorities.

The competitive examinations are concerned with French and mathematics—each receiving equal treatment based more specifically upon the material covered in the fifth and sixth years of primary school. Those students who pass the competitive examinations are then notified by their primary school principal who receives the results from the Province usually just before the end of the school term. The student then applies to the secondary school of his choice (usually in his district—or if a religious school, the one of his particular persuasion). If, however, the number of students who have applied at a particular school is larger than the number of places available, the principal of the school may organize an entrance examination in order to choose the best candidates for his new freshman class.

The curriculum as established by the Ministry of Education for the first year covers these subject areas: religion or morality, civics, French, mathematics, history, geography, human anatomy and hygiene, botany, technology, art, physical education and music. The curriculum established for the second year includes religion or morality, civics, French, mathematics, history, geography, zoology, technology, art, physical education, music and English.

The school year is organized into four periods with two series of

31 Plan d'études of 1958 was modified in conformity to Ordinance No. 174 of October 17, 1962.
examinations—one given at the end of the school year (or fourth period), and
the other given at a time chosen by the principal (usually on or around the end of December).

The curriculum or subject areas are divided into three groups according to importance and for the purpose of evaluation: Group I - French and mathematics; Group II - history, geography, natural science and technology; Group III - civics, English, music, art and physical education. Religion or morality is not to be considered in the evaluation. The results obtained in each of these three groups determines promotion from first to second year and in the case of the conclusion of the second year, the awarding of the certificate (Brevet). In order to pass from first to second year, the student must have received for the entire year, 50% of the maximum possible points attributed to each one of the three groups of subjects in the curriculum, and he must have satisfactorily completed his required assignments. Students are also allowed to repeat the first year if they meet the age requirement and if they have received 50% in the first group (French and mathematics).  

The same requirements apply for the certificate; however, the 50% requirement is now extended to include the total of two years' work. This rule has some distinct disadvantages. One very obvious disadvantage is that if the student has done well the first year and very poorly the second year, his two-year average might possibly still be above the required 50% and he would therefore pass. However, because of his poor achievement in his second year of orientation, it is highly probable that he will also fail in the more

difficult second cycle (or higher grades).

In educational theory, during this orientation period a prognosis is made of the student and his chances to pass in one type of given studies in the higher secondary cycle. The evaluation is based upon his performances in certain subject areas—a certain readiness to assimilate rules of grammar or concepts of mathematics, for example. Additional factors are involved in this evaluation, however. First, the age of the student is considered. Secondly, his scholastic achievement—probably the most important factor—is reviewed. Thirdly, the opinions of his professors as well as interviews with parents are examined. In ultimate theory—but not in practice because of their non-existence—results obtained by various standardized tests have an important bearing on any decision made. And finally, and unfortunately the least likely to be considered, are the interests and personal desires of the student. The student who receives his certificate also receives notice on the reverse side of it of the branch of study he will be permitted to follow. The areas to which he might be 'streamed' are these: literary section, scientific section, teacher training, industrial arts, business administration or agriculture.

The notice of orientation (avis d'orientation) is not sent to the child or to his parents as if it were an examination passed or failed. Instead, after various interviews and conferences a mutual choice is made and the result of this 'choice' is in fact pre-determined long before the end of this cycle. Thus, it is assumed and hoped that those students entering, for example, the business administration section or the teacher training section are most likely to succeed in that area.
Other factors, however, enter in and obstruct such a dangerous assumption. First of all, various social factors affect choices. Since the training of a teacher and the prestige that goes with this profession is considered high by Congolese society, the tribe, clan and family of a student are apt to not only pressure the administration of the school in the placement of their child in this or that section, but almost unbearable pressure is placed upon the child himself to succeed in an area in which he may have little or no interest. Secondly, there are economic pressures to consider. One section or another might lead to a diploma which will enable the student to obtain a relatively large salary in business or government. These sections no doubt would have the largest number of applicants (from experience these have been the scientific, teacher training and commercial sections ranking first, second, and third). Therefore, in spite of academic achievement, psychological testing, and determined aptitudes, the student can often find himself in a section for which he is either not prepared or in which he could never hope to achieve.33

In partial summary, therefore, the orientation cycle is theoretically a bridge that helps the child leave primary education and enter high school. It is in fact, however, a rather haphazard 'tracking' system, lacking in both sound educational philosophy and practice.

Admission to the second cycle (known as 'humanities' for the majority of sections) is usually by competitive examination organized by the various

secondary schools. In its earlier stages of development, there were actually two types of second cycles. There was a two-year program called "short cycle" which was organized to meet the needs of those students preparing themselves for various vocations. Many of them received the designation école moyenne or middle school. Although many teacher training schools were under this designation, their curriculum and programs were not considered adequate for secondary education. Those who completed this middle school received a diploma (DM) and were certified to teach in the elementary school. With the reforms, however, the teacher training middle school was no longer to exist.

The official second cycle was for four years, and was quite appropriately known as the "long cycle". It is this second "long cycle" of the teacher training section upon which this study focuses.

Following a government circular (EDNAT/E&BP/354/65.1) of June 8, 1964, the organization of the primary teacher training school was modified in structure and program. It stated that "the formation of school teachers will take place within a cycle that will include, after the orientation cycle, four years of studies, followed by a one-year probationary period. These four years resulting in the diploma of humanités pédagogiques and the one-year probationary period which entitles the student to an additional diploma of instituteur (fully certified teacher) will constitute the normal channel through which one passes into the teaching profession. 34

Recruitment of students for this cycle is made at two levels; those for

the third year and those for the fifth. Those students who have received a certificate from the cycle d'orientation and who have passed any competitive exams required are admitted to the third 'form' (third year of secondary education). Those students admitted into the fifth year are only those students who have finished successfully the fourth year of the same section (teacher training), and who have finished the fourth year of a 'long cycle' school. They will be admitted to the fifth year provided that they have received 50% of the total points and 50% in each one of the subject areas.

For all general purposes, the courses and curriculum of the third and fourth years are identical with that of the scientific section. The fifth and sixth forms follow very closely the curriculum of the literary section. However, as can be seen by Table 3, teacher formation is begun as early as the fourth year and is intensified in the fifth and sixth years.

It should be observed that only one hour per week is consecrated to teacher formation in the fourth year. During this one hour students become acquainted with some of the problems of teaching and are challenged by the teaching vocation. The instructor responsible for this hour is to "observe their reactions in order to eliminate from the profession those who lack the desire or do not have the disposition necessary to teach." 35

During the course of the first semester, the hour is given over to a debate on themes chosen in advance. Some of the suggested theme topics are as follows: Children's Games, Mistakes Often Made in the Classroom, etc. At the laboratory school in the second semester, the students observe model lessons

35Republic of the Congo, Humanités Pédagogiques, p. 15.
given by chosen primary school teachers which are followed by a short discussion.

TABLE 3
PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOL CURRICULUM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>3rd. yr.</th>
<th>4th. yr.</th>
<th>5th. yr.</th>
<th>6th. yr.</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A) General Courses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion or morality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African sociology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political economy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology/hygiene</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B) Teacher Formation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C) Special Courses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art, writing, personal work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music education/theater</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>141 hrs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the fifth and sixth forms, the philosophy is that the student-teacher must be an apprentice. "He must never believe that he knows it all, and he

36Ibid., p. 10.

37In those schools which are capable of doing so, a course in African linguistics can be organized in the fifth and sixth forms. This would give three hours to English and two to African linguistics in each of the two years.
must show to his future students how to learn that which they do not know by using what they already know. The professors of these two classes are urged to instill in their students by every means possible the principles and usage of the apprenticeship. "In particular, the pedagogy professor will prefer a living classroom; a kind of workshop or apprenticeship in teaching; a conference-type room where are exposed those abstract educational theories for examination." 

The eight hours of teacher preparation are divided up into model lessons (given by the laboratory school teacher), trial lessons given by the student teacher, and educational theory. In the first semester the weekly hours are divided as follows: model lessons - three hours; trial lessons - three hours, theory - two hours. In the second semester the division of hours is changed: model lessons - one and a half hour; trial lessons - one and a half hour; half a day in the classroom - three hours; theory - two hours.

The sixth year has an additional preparation in the area of practical student teaching. Each trimester a student teaching period of from six to twelve days is organized. (The vacations of the sixth form students are arranged so as to ensure the required thirty hours in the curriculum.) In principle, each student teacher will have an opportunity to teach in each of the three degrees or cycles at the primary school—elementary, middle, and superior cycles. During this student teaching period, the student is supervised by the laboratory school teacher. He is also observed and

39 Ibid., p. 16.
evaluated regularly by his teaching advisor during each of the three periods.

It is not our purpose to elaborate in any greater detail on the curriculum and the procedures used to evaluate the student teachers. It will suffice to say that the future teachers work very closely with their teacher training instructor in preparing daily assignments and perfecting techniques.

When the student finishes his sixth year successfully, he becomes a candidate for the government comprehensive examinations for his section. These examinations were required by the Ministry of Education following the reforms of secondary education in September, 1966. Each province and the federal capital of Leopoldville are responsible for the examinations. Prior to this much needed reform, each secondary school issued its own diplomas. Each diploma differed in format, requirements, and the curriculum covered. Yet, even though different in all of these various areas, they were considered "equal" because before the government they were secondary school diplomas.

One can easily visualize the confusion facing those administrators in institutions of higher learning when it came to the evaluation of a diploma. Many schools did not conform to the government curriculum, or did not follow government regulations regarding the recruitment of students, etc. Following the reforms of 1966, this confusion was hopefully to be eventually eliminated. Those who succeeded in passing the competitive examinations were then granted a diploma of humanities, to be designated D6. In the case of the teacher training section—a diploma of humanités pédagogiques was given which entitled the student to then qualify during his one year probationary period for the diploma of instituteur or fully certified teacher. The student must then sign a contract with the Ministry of Education through his province to serve for a
period of four years as a primary school teacher, which included the one year probationary period. During this trial year, the salary scale is equal to those designated D6 (six years of secondary education). Meanwhile, the stagiaires will be evaluated by the primary school principal, the pedagogy instructors at the teacher training school, and the principal of the teacher training school.

Before receiving his diplôme d'instituteur, his file or dossier containing various reports is evaluated in regard to his personality; preparation of his lessons and his class records; general teaching ability; discipline of the classes; examination of the primary students' notebooks and examinations; his rapport with the class and his counselors; punctuality; participation in extra-curricular activities; and contacts with the parents.

Those students who complete this year successfully are then fully certified primary school teachers. At the time of the writer's departure there were only a very select few of such students finishing their probationary year. It is assumed that the provincial government is the agency authorized to confer this additional diploma.

There is another program for primary teachers which was established by the Ministry of Education during the reforms of 1966, that should be noted. The "Year of Professional Preparation" is a one-year preparation, very similar in curriculum and objectives to the regular fifth and sixth year long cycle. It is, in fact, a compression of two years into one. Whereas the fifth and sixth years total sixteen hours of teacher training, the "Year of Preparation" totals eighteen. In every true sense it is an extended fifth year for those incapable of continuing the long cycle, either because of
ability or finances. Table 4 illustrates the many similarities which are found in this program and that of the fifth year of the long cycle.

**TABLE 4**

**YEAR OF PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Preparation</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and African languages</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Training</th>
<th>18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special Courses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art, handcrafts, writing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music/theater</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 36 hrs.

The teacher formation at the laboratory school is given more importance in this type of program. Model lessons, given each week, constitute eight hours. Trial lessons by the student also total eight hours, with two additional hours spent in record keeping procedures. After the completed year, the student can qualify for the teaching certificate (not to be confused with the diploma for the six-year program) called a brevet. This technically gives the student a classification of D5, that is, recognition of having completed five years of secondary education.

40 Ibid., p. 40.
Those who wish to teach and who have completed six years in another section such as the scientific or commercial section are required to complete this year of teacher preparation in addition, before they are allowed to teach. Because of the teacher shortage, however, this requirement never seems to be enforced. From the author's experience, those students who manage to complete their six years of secondary school in nearly any section will be hired immediately by various principals of primary and secondary schools. These secondary principals use those of D6 category to teach in the orientation cycle, even though this is not officially allowed.

The current organizational patterns, then, of the teacher training school are so intricately woven into the fabric of secondary education in general, that it is almost impossible for it to do justice to the purpose of training teachers. Many feel, as we shall see in concluding chapters, that teacher training should be separate from and subsequent to secondary education as in the majority of countries of the modern world.

Thus, the organization of secondary education as examined, is determined by various cycles. The first, an orientation cycle—which is in truth a 'streaming device'—channels children into various areas of specialization for a second cycle. The second cycle (either short—two years, or long—four years) is a preparation for vocational or higher education. Teacher training is thus caught up in this very complicated system of secondary education with its various tracking cycles. It should in fact, specialize in providing the best possible education for the training of future primary school teachers.
Chapter III

LABORATORY SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

Among the problems that the teachers' colleges and normal schools face is that of furnishing teachers-to-be with the appropriate laboratory experience as a part of their preparation. Modern psychology affirms the value of learning through guided activity. Sound educational theory attests that theory and practice, as two phases of the teaching process, must go hand in hand in learning. The emphasis which the normal schools and teachers' colleges have traditionally placed upon the training school grows out of the "faith that the best way of learning to teach is through actual contact with real teaching, and a philosophy which declares that a useable theory will work in practice." \(^{41}\)

Educational theory, the results of educational research, and the pragmatic judgments of students and teachers affirm the necessity of the laboratory experience in the preparation of teachers. An important American study of the 1920's declares:

The training school constitutes the characteristic laboratory equipment of a normal school or teachers' college, and the courses in observation, participation, and practice teaching should be looked upon as the

central and critical elements in each of the curricula. 42

As early as 1916, Judd and Parker asserted that "the zone of the normal school should be limited by its practice facilities."43 No normal school can fulfill its obligation to prospective teachers without providing opportunities for practice under conditions which are as nearly typical as possible, thus affording a certain amount of experience. Mission endeavors in Africa have a long period of closely supervised observation and practice for those who are to engage in the work dealing with the physical body, such as medical assistants, but they often have not been so careful in the education of those whose work has to do with the guidance of the mental activities of people.

Practice teaching is indispensable to the education of the teacher, but it will not afford him the solution to all the problems that he will encounter in his professional career. It will, however, aid him in building up a technique that will enable him constantly to increase his ability to master the art of teaching.

The function of the training school is to help the student teacher to become a thoughtful and alert student of education rather than to make him immediately proficient in teaching. When one is actually engaged in teaching, it is hard to secure principles, although teaching does afford splendid opportunity for acquiring and perfecting skill of the more technical type.44

The laboratory school is an excellent aid in teacher education. It


provides an opportunity for observation of teaching, demonstration lessons, supervision of student teaching, and experimentation. 45

The laboratory school, or écule d'application, did not receive a great deal of attention professionally until recent years. While it is true that John Barden of Columbia University and Henry Brown of Seattle Pacific College have done research in this area of Congolese teacher training, their studies have been less concerned with general educational policy or organization in favor of mission or private educational enterprises.

While it is true that such schools existed during the period of colonialism, they were generally speaking, good primary schools that haphazardly adjoined a normal school. There was very little if any government supervision of the laboratory school. Each normal school in the interior developed a program best suited to its own individual religious community—arranging or revising the curriculum as suited local interests. It was unfortunately too often the rule instead of the exception that the majority of laboratory school teachers were not prepared or qualified for such a position. John Barden elaborates upon this weakness:

One factor which determined the type of work that could be done was the education of the teachers. They had to be taught from the beginning how to do the work that was planned, and even then they would fall back upon the methods used by their teachers when they were in school. This was especially true of the classes in handicrafts. They had never learned to make the articles they were trying to teach, and some of them felt it beneath their dignity to try to learn along with the pupils. They still believed that a son

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45 John Glenn Barden, A Suggested Program of Teacher Training for Mission Schools among the Batetela (Columbia University, 1941), p. 84.
should not learn to make anything unless his father knew how. 46

There was, therefore, little or no detailed organization or control of laboratory schools during the period prior to independence. Their teaching personnel was composed of former graduates of the same primary school or the same district.

Following the changes in the Constitution of the Republic after Independence in June, 1960, the laboratory school was to be organized according to government regulations. Following a revision of the same Constitution on August 1, 1964, and various additional reforms enacted by ordinances 213 (June 29, 1964), 85 (April 3, 1964), 174 (October 17, 1962), and an Executive Order of March 20, 1965, various details regarding the organization, recruitment of teachers, administration, etc., were elaborated for the first time. 47

The laboratory school was to be, ideally, the best of all primary schools. For government and government-subsidized schools, this meant that entry to primary school would be fixed at six years of age, and the child could not be older than eight years old for boys and nine years old for girls. The language of instruction would be French. (This requirement itself has been the subject of a great deal of research as to whether or not such a language from a colonial power should have been or should now be imposed upon the African.) The use of Congolese dialects (such as Lingala, Kikongo, or Swahili) could be used in cases of necessity (i.e., on first entering school) and would

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46 Ibid., p. 86.
be controlled by the government.

The length of primary education is now set at six years, divided into three sections of two years each: degré élémentaire, degré moyen, degré terminal. A single national program has replaced the former separate programs for Congolese Metropolitan, Boys and Girls, Ordinary and Selected Schools, etc. Now, emphasis is laid on adapting the basic lessons to the milieu the child knows and understands. Table five gives the recommended number of hours per week to be devoted to each subject:

**TABLE 5**

RECOMMENDED PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECTS</th>
<th>CLASS</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5½</td>
<td>5½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious and Moral Instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2½</td>
<td>2½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History and Geography</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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A Certificate d'études primaires is awarded at the close of the primary program, provided that the school has conformed to government regulation and supervision. Successful completion of the examen sélectif (government

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selective examination given the same day in each province) is required for entrance into secondary education.

Attached to each secondary school which contained the humanités pédagogiques section for teacher training (as discussed in Chapter II) was to be one or if possible, more than one école d'application for the specific purpose of training teachers. These "schools of application" which were primary schools so chosen by the government for laboratory schools were obliged to have as required for their organization, a complete cycle of primary studies as defined by the national curriculum, and would be schools in which the number of classes could not exceed twelve.\(^49\)

The laboratory school was to depend pedagogically and administratively upon the principal of the teacher training school to which it was attached. The school would be controlled and/or supervised by an inspector of pedagogy. Class size was set by the government at thirty and could not exceed forty pupils per class.

The teachers who were assigned to the laboratory schools were to be recruited by way of competitive examination organized at the provincial level. The requirements for such an examination were that the candidate must possess a diploma from a secondary school which maintained a complete cycle of teacher training (that is, a four-year program). In theory, this meant that the government desired that every teacher in the laboratory school should have an an official designation of D6—having completed six years of secondary education, and even more specifically having spent those six years in a

\(^{49}\)Republic of the Congo, Humanités Pédagogiques, p. 8.
teacher training section. Realizing the impracticability of such a
requirement at the outset of such a program, it would also include those
candidates who possessed a diploma from a "Monitor School" (post-primary
school or école des moniteurs) which had had a complete four-year teacher
training program. Additional exception could be made for those candidates
who had obtained the brevet d'Instituteur—granted by those secondary schools
which still maintained the short-cycle organization. The organization,
recruitment of candidates, and material covered by the examination—including
the composition of the examining board—was to be established by the Ministry
of Education. 50

The supervision of the laboratory school was to be by the principal of
the designated primary school who has, himself, the formation and training
necessary for such a position. It was recommended that he have a diploma from
a secondary school which was also organized for the six-year program of
teacher training.

The teaching personnel for the laboratory school would be graded on the
first salary level established by the Ministry of Education by an equal
evaluation by the principal of the laboratory school and the instructor of
pedagogy from the normal school. If the teacher was considered inferior
during his periodic ratings, he could be replaced at any time during the
school year. The teaching assignments for demonstration lessons and student
teaching supervision were to be determined by the instructor of pedagogy as
pre-planned with the principal of the normal school.

50 Ibid.
In addition to maintaining a model and perfect classroom, the laboratory school teachers were to keep up-to-date on current techniques and methods. This rule was an encouragement for laboratory school teachers to participate in the observation of lessons given by the instructor of pedagogy at the teacher training school. It was hoped by the government that this would help keep the teachers up-to-date on new techniques and developments. These teachers would also have the responsibility for giving demonstration lessons and the assigning of work to the student-teachers. They would help correct and evaluate the student-teacher in his work. Their personal evaluation of the student's progress was to have equal weight in the total evaluation made by the instructor of pedagogy.

Article ten of the new reform of 1965, was also to provide an incentive to the recruitment of excellent teachers for the laboratory schools in the form of a financial bonus which would be four per-cent of their total salary. However small this percentage may seem, it was a step taken by the Ministry of Education unprecedented in the history of Congolese education.

The laboratory school, therefore, as organized by the Ministry of Education, was to depend entirely upon the normal school for its organization, administration and supervision. The principal of the teacher training school is, therefore, the final authority for both the primary-laboratory school and his own (see Table 6). All reports required by the provincial or urban education authority are given directly to the principal of the normal school who then forwards them to the proper authority.
This does not mean, as the reader might think, that the laboratory school principal becomes a mere subordinate to the normal school principal. He is still responsible for the selection and control of his own personnel and staff. He is still the person responsible for all demands made by parents and/or relatives of his proper primary school students. He is in every real sense under this dual educational system, the assistant principal—even though this title does not exist in the Congo. Or even, perhaps a more accurate label would be co-principal or even part of a "team principalship". The writer, having worked under the conditions which the reforms established, found that the laboratory school principal was in every real sense a co-principal. As the government has organized this two-school relationship, both principals must know every detail and program instigated by the other. It is perhaps one of the first experiments in team supervision in Africa.
Prior to these reforms, the administration and supervision of the laboratory schools was separate from that of the normal schools. This separation was the cause of many professional misunderstandings in regards to interference in scheduling and curriculum. With this organizational reform, curriculums, schedules, and in fact all planning became a collaboration—a unifying force existing for the sole purpose of training teachers.

Thus, the laboratory school, neglected by administrators for many years, had little or no detailed organization during the period prior to independence. Following the reforms of 1960, laboratory schools were then regulated by the government. It was to be, ideally, the best of all primary schools. Improved methods of recruitment of personnel, and the gradual up-grading of program has made the laboratory school a vital part of the teacher training program.
Chapter IV

SCHOOL SUPERVISION AND PROGRAMS FOR TEACHER IMPROVEMENT

School supervision in the Congo as in France and Belgium is primarily a function of the national government. As has been pointed out, all education in the Congo is a function of the state, like almost all other governmental activities. It is under the supervision and control of a Ministry of Education, headed by a cabinet minister, who is appointed by the President. The Ministry is a complex organization. There are numerous bureaus, sections, and subcommittees attached to the directorates of the Ministry. This ponderous and cumbersome piece of machinery does not provide for speedy handling of educational matters, especially since so many decisions affecting schools in remote parts of the country must be made in the central office.

The Minister of Education is responsible to his government for the operation of the national educational system. He is responsible for the supervision of all educational institutions in the country, both public and private. He must also carry out the will of the government in executing educational laws passed by that body. He has the power of nominating, for presidential appointment, the most important educational officers in the nation, and he also has the right to make many direct appointments on his own authority. He prescribes curricula, courses of study, and methods of instruction for all public schools in the country. He approves examinations,
requirements for scholarships, and all administrative rules and regulations affecting every type of school. He has disciplinary power over all officials under his control, and he hears appeals when conflicts arise.

One of the many bureaus established under the control of the Ministry of Education is the Office of School Inspection. Inspectors appointed by the Ministry make tours of inspection throughout the country according to various assignments. They visit primary and/or secondary schools and other educational programs, and make reports to the Minister and various directors. Their appointments to this extremely powerful and important position are made on a national level, and they are assigned to the national, provincial, and district level.

Supervision by inspection on the primary level has received greater attention in recent years than that on the secondary level. While each educational district should have both a primary and a secondary school inspector, it is not feasible in most areas of the country, since the districts have difficulty finding qualified secondary school inspectors. There was greater control of secondary education during Belgian colonialism, but following Independence and the subsequent loss of personnel, this method of supervision was no longer possible.

In the rural area of Kasangulu (forty miles from the capital city of Leopoldville), where the writer was principal of a private teacher training school, the primary school inspector acted also as a liaison officer between the Ministry and the secondary schools. His duty of inspection included all primary schools in his area. He nevertheless kept close control over the programs of the various secondary schools and informed secondary school
administrators of up-to-date Ministerial directives, etc.

The inspector's visit to the primary school is always cause for great concern. Prior to his arrival educational bulletins are sent to the various principals informing them which documents are to be inspected, which classes will be visited, etc. If the inspector's visit is to a laboratory school, or école d'application, he must first notify the principal of the teacher training school. He will then be accompanied by both principals during his visit. Each teacher's notebook, school record, and pupil's workbook is examined by the inspector. A detailed evaluation report is filled out for the provincial authority and forwarded to the National Ministry. A copy of the inspector's report is sent to the examined school and must be kept on file to be presented to the inspector at each visit for a comparison of strengths and weaknesses, etc.

Additional or duplicate supervision exists in most private or mission schools that are subsidized by the government. Since this type of school is under government control, it is subject to governmental supervision. At the same time, the religious community or mission organization may have an intricate system of supervision of its own. This seemingly obvious duplication is a benefit to private schools, however, since it helps to control the quality of personnel and type of program run by the mission. On the secondary level, it is, in fact, the private and religious system of supervision or inspection which is active as a control of secondary education in the country. The National Ministry circulates through the country many bulletins regarding the possibility of secondary inspection, but it is the private and religious groups who maintain government requirements and
standards on their own initiative. As a result of this duplicated supervision, the private and religious schools have provided the National Ministry with additional personnel in a highly diversified system of educational supervision.

An important function of the Ministry of Education is to improve the quality of its teachers and to provide additional training for its unqualified personnel. Most African educators would agree with Abdou Moumouni when he asserts that

Teacher training deserves special attention, for numerous reasons, some more obvious than others but all equally important. First of all, however, excellent the concept, orientation and organization of the educational system and however great the care devoted to preparing programmes and texts, concrete translation of it is the responsibility of teachers on the various levels of education. To a degree, the effective achievement of the desired objects will depend on their preparation for the overwhelming responsibilities which are theirs, their understanding of the tasks to be accomplished and their ability to undertake them and carry them out well.51

The pre-service training of many teachers needs to be supplemented by an in-service program as a "refresher" to bring the teacher up-to-date, to stimulate the individual members of the faculty to study, or to inaugurate a new educational service.52

The phrase "training in service" connotes teacher-centered and imposed supervision. The teacher is given devices, techniques, skills, and trained in their use. The teacher is corrected in his detailed techniques through handing out ready-made procedures. The modern concept holds that teachers (and all educational workers) should have opportunities for growth through the

51Moumouni, op. cit., p. 283.

cooperative analysis of problems and through choosing from among several
techniques or devising new ones based on the situation confronting the
teacher. 53

As has been examined in the preceding chapters, the unqualified teacher
poses a serious problem to elementary education and to teacher training in
particular. Since these unqualified teachers are too often put in charge of
the lower classes and since these classes are usually the ones which are most
swollen in size, it can be seen that the situation is a serious one.

There are, of course, several different kinds of unqualified teachers.
Some of them are mature people who have already devoted the greater part of
their lives to the service of education and by the gradual accumulation of
experience and their own devoted love of children have achieved, and are still
achieving, remarkable results in their classrooms. At the other end of the
scale, there is a considerable number of teachers who have no intention of
spending more than a few years in the schools. They are mostly young people,
some of whom have temporarily left school and are accumulating a little money
for school fees and perhaps the maintenance of families before they return to
complete their own education. Others may be marking time before deciding on
the career they hope to follow or while waiting for an opportunity to enter
the career of their choice. Many of these young teachers are people of great
ability and promise, who might well be attracted to remain in the teaching
profession if they were given an opportunity to qualify themselves and were

53 William H. Burton and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision As Social Process
able to see worthwhile career prospects in teaching.

Between these two extremes, there is the large body of unqualified teachers who have already given a number of years to teaching and have family responsibilities of their own, and who are firmly committed to a teaching career. Among this group in particular there is a keen desire for the provision of some means by which they might attain to qualified teacher status.

The school statistics gained through inspection reports have revealed to the Ministry of Education that the number of qualified teachers (diplômes) constitutes less than one quarter of the national total, and is diminishing every year. Out of the 49,912 Congolese teachers in the primary level in 1963/64, only 12,680 were teachers who had completed a normal or teacher training school of four or six-year programs. 54

It was clear to the Ministry of Education that the solution to this problem of unqualified personnel was not the creation of more teacher training schools. In fact, as they had found from their statistics, the total output of all the teacher training schools in 1967, in the Congo, was only 2,500 newly qualified teachers! 55

The Ministry decided to organize a committee for the study of this problem of up-grading or in-service training of primary school teachers. A commission was set up in which, as representatives of the Ministry of


55Ibid.
Education, the members would analyze the national situation and make recommendations. Under the chairmanship of Mr. Jules Issambase, director of teaching personnel and departmental affairs, one unanimous recommendation was made: return the teachers to pupils' desks again, for improvement! Thus was born the idea of the Classes Nationales de Perfectionnement (National Classes for Improvement). Having to overcome serious problems of materials, teaching staff, salaries for teacher-students, and housing caused many doubts and even serious opposition at the beginning of this new venture, but with resourcefulness and determination, the Secretary-General of the Ministry of Education recommended that the first Classes Nationales de Perfectionnement for the primary level be opened in September of 1965.\[56\]

The proposed curriculum for both centers (Leopoldville and Elisabethville) would conform to those courses offered at the regular teacher training schools for qualified primary schools teachers (long cycle organization). The curriculum would also be enlarged by the Ministry's pedagogy office and would be approved by the Commission for Secondary School Reform. In August, 1965, examinations were organized in all of the provincial centers and more than 2,000 primary teachers took the examinations. The examinations were divided into two general areas: French and mathematics. Out of the 2,000 participants, seven hundred and forty-nine passed and were admitted to the first National Classes for Improvement.

At the only two existing centers, Leopoldville and Elisabethville, secondary school buildings were used for classrooms, etc. The classes were

\[56\] Ibid.
usually held in the afternoons after regular secondary school classes had been completed. Under the supervision of a Congolese director, Mr. Jean Nzali, there was also an assisting teaching corps of European professors who were for the most part of French nationality.

Mr. Raphael Willy, in an address made near the end of the first year of this remarkable enterprise verbalized the hope that existed in the heart of many an educator in the Congo:

I will do all that is possible to open new centers throughout the territory of the Republic, in order to enable our pioneer teachers to find again in these classes the new ideas which will add to their experiences, and which will make of our primary schools, schools of value.57

It is not known to the writer if these national classes for improvement have continued operating since his departure in September, 1967. It was becoming extremely difficult financially for the Ministry of Education to continue the program and it is not known at the present time if the entire organization continues or has had to stop because of a lack of funds. Regardless of the present situation, it should still be noted that this is perhaps the only solution to the problem of up-grading and in-service training in the Congo. Because of a lack of materials, personnel and funds, very few schools, if any, could possibly carry on serious teacher improvement programs—even in the capital city.

The Congo is not unique in its having to face this most serious problem

57 "Je ferai tout pour que des nouveaux centres s'ouvrent partout dans le territoire de la République pour permettre à tous nos pionniers maîtres de retrouver dans ces classes de nouvelles notions qui adjugées à leur grande expérience, feront de nos écoles primaires des écoles de valeur."
in primary education. In the new nation of Lesotho (which has had a British educational background) over one third of its teaching personnel are unqualified. Some daring new programs were started in an attempt to remedy this situation. In 1965, through the Ministry of Overseas Development, a Vacation Course Team was to be sent to Lesotho to assist in the up-grading program. 58

The idea was exactly as the name implies—a vacation program or seminar for teachers, given during their Easter and/or Christmas vacation periods. Many problems faced this experiment—the most serious of which might perhaps be the lack of understanding of environmental or national atmosphere. Since the members of the Team were usually British or outsiders, there were many difficulties for national adaptation from the beginning. Lesotho, however, has continued to elaborate on this idea, and has organized various seminars on the local level involving the various inspectorates and school staffs in the hope of upgrading unqualified teachers.

In addition to the National Classes of Improvement, the Congolese Ministry of Education publishes several excellent magazines and journals which have as a primary motivation the improvement of primary school teachers. Each of the various issues includes pages that can be lifted out by the teacher for use in such lessons as French, natural sciences, and arithmetic. New techniques and methods are discussed. Studies of the educational systems of other African nations help to keep the teachers informed of what is going

on around them. New administrative reforms and decisions are included along with discussions of problems and policies.

It would certainly seem clear that to provide some means of improving the lowly qualifications of teachers would be an effective way of raising the whole standard of primary education. Moreover, it might attract to the teaching field recruits who would otherwise not enter the classroom, and prevent other able teachers from leaving teaching to find more advantageous posts elsewhere. The difficulties of such training, however, as we have seen, are also apparent. The additional cost to the education system and the scarcity of human resources for an up-grading program are only two of the many obstacles an under-developed nation has to face in the gradual improvement of its educational system.

In summation, then, school supervision in the Congo depends upon the strength of the National Government and the Ministry of Education for the control and administration of education. The administration and supervision of the teacher training program needs to become a part of the National Inspectorate. When it does become a part, it is felt that the quality of the teacher training school and its program will improve while at the same time providing a standardization of all elementary school teaching certificates.
Chapter V

RECOMMENDATIONS

Over a period of less than eight years, the development of the teacher training school has been phenomenal. Precipitated by the upheaval of premature independence, and the departure of European teaching personnel, desperate reforms were instituted to meet the increasing demand for qualified teachers. The inherited and foreign educational system and the urgent need to Africanize program and policy have caused many vital areas of conflict and frustration. From several years' experience spent in secondary school administration in the Congo, and from the examination of the current organizational and administrative developments, the following recommendations are made for the improvement of teacher training:

First, the normal school should exist for the sole purpose of preparing young people for the teaching profession. Its organization, therefore, should not be included in the structure of general secondary education as is the case at present. With the elimination of the pre-Independence école de moniteurs and the teacher training middle school, the uniqueness of the normal school was sacrificed for a more general secondary education. While it is highly recommended that future teachers have the best secondary education possible, the teacher training program itself needs to be separated from and additional to secondary education. In order to facilitate an immediate up-grading of
unqualified teachers in the various post-Independence crash programs, the writer feels that the necessary intensive teacher training program was completely minimized. Whereas the two preceding schools (monitor and middle) provided from two to four years of professional training, the newly organized secondary section known as *humanités pédagogiques* wedged the needed hours of pedagogy between required secondary school subjects. This recommendation is unquestionably one that will concern long range planning, and it is one the Ministry of Education could perhaps consider when finances and personnel become available. But by requiring present secondary schools to prepare teachers while trying to qualify them for the state secondary school certificate is practically impossible.\(^{59}\)

Second, a greater Africanization of program and personnel is needed if the teacher training enterprise is to be in any way effective. Abdou Moumouni once again emphasizes the absolute necessity for this in the training of teachers:

> It would be a mistake, however, to think that the individual or collective efforts of teachers alone can solve all these problems. Although it is essential for African teachers to come to a clear realization of their role and responsibilities, the question still remains of organizing teacher training with complete reorganization of education in Black Africa in mind. Whether it is a matter of training new teachers or providing additional training for existing teachers, establishing schools and training stages, publishing books and various materials of a pedagogical nature are among the essential measures in the reorganization of education.\(^{60}\)

And Mr. Andre Bols, in an article written for the Congolese Publication

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\(^{59}\)Moumouni, *op. cit.*, p. 284.

\(^{60}\)Ibid., p. 288.
Documents Pour L'Action, explains in more precise terms just what "Africanization" should mean:

"The mental de-colonization no matter how colorful or picturesque it may seem is nothing more than the Africanization of education; that is to say, an integration of African values into our system of education."

To have a total integration of African values in Congolese education is the first step toward a total nationalization of the educational structure. It was the writer's belief while working as a secondary school administrator, that at the secondary level the greatest obstacle or danger to just such an integration was the philosophy of "adaptation". Teaching materials were adapted from Belgian materials. Textbooks were revised to include (perhaps as an after thought) a chapter on Africa, or if fortunate, a chapter on the Congo. It is strongly recommended that the Ministry of Education, with possible financial help from the UNESCO center in the Congo, begin at the primary level to totally re-orient its program and materials to include Congolese attitudes and values. On the teacher training level, careful elimination should be made of techniques and methods which only imitate or copy methods and techniques proven in France, Belgium or other foreign countries. Little attention is given to the psychology of the African child or his problems upon enrollment in school. Robert Framine, professor at the National Institute of Pedagogy in France, warns European educators of the

danger in interpreting African children in areas of personality and psychology with their European counterparts:

The majority of "African" students are from rural areas: (eighty to ninety per cent). From the beginning primary school, they feel themselves living in two different worlds, each one trying to ignore the other: the world of traditions and customs, and the Western world of the school. The school life of the child becomes covered in every aspect of his character by a certain ambiguity. Because of these different conditions, the beginning of school life is like a transplantation to the child; a transplantation for which he has not been prepared and in which his personality will become threatened by an artificial and strange environment.62

Because the majority of staff personnel of the teacher training schools are European or foreign by birth, it should be recommended that a study of the African child and the urgency for an Africanized curriculum—at all levels—be inaugurated.

Third, the selection of candidates for the teacher training schools needs to be up-graded and based upon definitely educational principles. American educators place a high responsibility on the teacher training college to select only the best candidates to be trained. In their book Supervision, A Social Process, William Burton and Leo Brueckner outline that responsibility:

The teacher training institution bears a heavy responsibility in the selection of its students and their certification for teaching positions. The selection process should be carefully conducted so that individuals with serious physical, mental, scholastic, emotional, and social handicaps will be identified at an early stage in their training, so that steps can be taken to protect children and society from serious unfortunate consequences that might result if they become teachers. In many institutions, when limitations of cultural background, interests, and appreciations are discovered, the educational program for the individual is adjusted accordingly.63

63 Burton and Brueckner, Supervision, A Social Process, p. 533.
At the present time in the Congo, there is really no means for selecting those candidates thought best capable of responding to teacher training and formation. The extreme lack of scientific standardized testing with an African orientation is an enormous handicap. As has been stated in Chapter II in relation to the orientation cycle, there are far too many social, economic and other factors which enter into the selection of candidates for the various vocational fields. In fact, it is really too early, at the age of thirteen, for any child to be rigidly fixed into a "stream" or "track". His emotional, physical and psychological development (apart from any question of culture or race) is too immature to make such a selection irrevocable. Psychological testing, secondary school achievement and personality development should be more scientifically studied before selection of candidates for the training of future teachers is made.

Fourth, if because of present circumstances it is impossible to change the organization of the normal school or the laboratory school, it is recommended that the position of assistant principal be created by the Ministry of Education. At the present time, this position does not exist and so does not have a classification in the echelon of official educational positions. With the responsibility for the supervision and administration of both the normal school and the laboratory school (which in most cases is twice the size of his own school) falling to the normal school principal, it is only too obvious that such an arrangement becomes impractical. If, however, there could be an assistant principal, assigned to the general coordination between the laboratory school and the normal school, while allowing the former principal the time to devote to the general supervision
of the teacher training institution, the situation could be immediately improved. This very thing is actually being done—without official sanction, of course—since the administrative duties assigned by the Ministry are so numerous that such a person becomes necessary. The position created by the Ministry could give the person assigned the needed place on the salary scale and at the same time create a valuable administrative position.

Fifth, recruitment of personnel for the laboratory school should be made not only by examination but also by an evaluation of a minimum of four years' teaching experience. As is the case at present, those students completing the teacher training program or who have transferred from other secondary sections, may qualify for the examinations and be hired without having had any past teaching experience. Since the fundamental reason for the existence of the laboratory is to provide practical experience under the supervision of experienced and qualified teachers, such careful evaluation and recruitment should become a primary consideration. The biggest danger which needs to be eliminated in the Congo is the temptation for existing African administrators to hire members of their own tribe, clan or family. Their reasoning is not as obvious as a western educator might think. The first responsibility of any African is for the care and protection of all within his immediate family or clan. Thus, by hiring members of his own area, he may feel completely justified in his choice. With the current trend in political administration to assign government officials to all areas of the country, the same breaking down of tribal ties and clan relationships may occur in education as well.
Sixth, a follow-up training program should be started for recent graduates of the normal school in order to keep them up-to-date of recent developments in the field of teaching. The Congo has a distinct advantage—unique in the world, perhaps—in that it pays its teachers their salary during the summer vacation months, which is in addition to their regular teaching salary for the school year. This means that it is possible for the administration of many teacher training schools to organize conferences or workshops during the vacation months for the purpose of advanced training.

Another distinct advantage most of the schools in the interior have, is that because they are boarding schools they have dormitories which can be made available for the returning teaching personnel. Workshops which could be of several weeks duration could easily be set up under these conditions, without worry on the part of the returning teachers in regards to salary or lodging for themselves or their families. The normal school should also begin a school publication which could be sent regularly to its graduates. These publications could include lesson helps, explanations of new curricula changes, professional problems, etc. Conferences organized during the vacation periods or at other times should also be open to include if possible the teachers from the existing laboratory schools.

Seventh, there needs to be a closer equalization of governmental salaries for primary and secondary school teachers. Because of the great gulf which now exists between the two levels of education, there is a great hesitation on the part of many young teachers to apply for primary education. While it is not immediately possible to equalize or diminish the salary gap, perhaps a gradual increase in prestige, position, salary and benefits for
primary school teachers would help solve the problem of poor recruitment. This recommendation would certainly be unpopular with secondary teachers who feel themselves on such a higher and more intellectual level than their primary counterparts and would receive much opposition from European educators who, because of their own educational systems, perpetuate such a division.

Eighth, the teacher training school should include in its curriculum the teaching of one African language. As we have studied in Chapter III, the government requires that French be the language of instruction in the primary school except in cases of necessity, i.e., on first entering school. To anyone who has observed the absolute confusion which exists in the first grade of primary school because of misunderstandings or differences in tribal dialects and background, this recommendation would seem to deserve serious consideration. The instruction of either of the two major Congolese languages (Lingala or Kikongo) would enable the future teacher to cope with any situation he may encounter when he is assigned to a school in the interior. Because it is the government requirement that the new teacher spend three additional years in public school teaching prior to his pursuit of higher education, it is more than likely he will be assigned to a school far from his own geographical area. If he has had a good fundamental knowledge of both his own native language and the language of the other regions, he will be more effective in his profession. This will also help to instill in the new teacher a sense of pride in his own language which has

heretofore been neglected as being "less civilized" or "unschooled". It will also serve as a ready tool for the explanation of difficult French structure and grammar as well as a good evaluating instrument for pupil comprehension.

Ninth, because of a lack of actual supervision brought to our attention in Chapter IV, it is recommended that a definite inspectorate at the Ministry of Education be set up specifically for all teacher training schools. In view of the importance the schools have in the education of Congolese children, they should have absolute priority in the supervision and inspection program of the government. Since it is not possible to find efficient personnel for both primary and secondary school inspection, it could still be accomplished by designated primary school inspectors who must by governmental requirement include the administrators of the normal school in their visits. Each province could have an appointed official who through regular tours of inspection visit all the normal laboratory schools in his province—since their number does not prohibit such a proposal. It is because of this lack of supervision that the various training institutions are producing teachers who fall short of the government expected standard.

Tenth, it is strongly recommended that the teachers of the laboratory school hold a D5 classification—that is, having finished the four year training course—and that the requirement for principal be at least two years advanced training beyond that. A much larger financial benefit should be given to the staff of the laboratory school, since they will have greater teaching responsibilities than those teachers of a regular primary school staff. There are additional teaching assignments, correction of student
teachers lessons, etc., all of which require many extra hours of work. Perhaps a system of promotion for positions of inspector could be made from the staff of laboratory schools in the province, thus encouraging the better teachers to seek laboratory school positions.

In summation, therefore, teacher training should definitely be separated from the structure of secondary schools as is now the case, and it should concentrate upon the sole purpose of training teachers. A greater Africanization of program and personnel would add not only to the effectiveness but to the stability of the program when foreign assistance leaves the country. In educational practice, more scientific procedures should be used in the selection of candidates for the teacher training school and for the recruitment of personnel of the laboratory school. The creation of an inspectorate for the normal schools and additional salary benefits for laboratory school personnel would contribute much to the supervision and improvement of the laboratory school as an important area in Congolese education.
Chapter VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

As a former colony of Belgium, the Democratic Republic of the Congo has had to adapt a fundamentally European system of education to one with national or African values and interests since gaining its independence in 1960. The early philosophy of mission education with its emphasis on raising the African to the "fuller life" and with its attitude of benign paternalism was swept aside by the new "independence-fever".

The creation of a school system entirely under government control contributed a great deal towards the general improvement of the primary education in the Congo, since the government schools conformed to the high Belgian standards. However, the lack of trained government officials at the time of independence, along with the extremely small number of university graduates, remains as a strong condemnation of the Belgian attitude toward African education. In the area of secondary education as well, the Belgian record as compared to other neighboring countries does not fare so well. It is only in the area of primary education that the Belgian performance proved superior to all other African countries. There existed in the Congo a primarily native-oriented elementary and kindergarten school system in which instruction was dispensed first in local languages, and then in French.

The bulk of Congolese attending secondary schools during this period went
to secondary technical or vocational schools which created a body of trained artisans and specialists in mechanical skills and trades essential to the Congo's developing economy. The other secondary schools, like their counterparts in Belgium had two educational "tracks": moderne and classique. The former placed an emphasis upon mathematics, science and modern languages, while the latter gave attention to classical languages, philosophy and literature. Needless to say, only a sprinkling of Africans could qualify for such studies.

After the declaration of Independence in 1960, the Belgian teaching corps started leaving the country. This sudden departure brought about a general crisis in the educational system of the new nation. The United Nations, through a special organization known as the Organisation des Nations Unies pour le Congo (ONUC) was able to step in with a program to reconstruct the educational system, and included reforms for primary, secondary, and technical education as well.

The difficulty in primary education was increased with the replacement of Belgian school teachers by Congolese teachers whose training left much to be desired. As far as the training of primary school teachers prior to Independence was concerned, its level was adequate, although not as high as in Europe. Under Belgian rule, there had been two kinds of elementary school teachers. First, there were those who were called "monitors", authorized to teach only in the first degree of primary school; and secondly, there were the "instructors" who had finished their studies at a teacher training college in Belgium. The level of the training of Congolese teachers was unfortunately very low.
The school which was to play an important role in the improvement of these conditions, was the normal school or teacher training school. As established prior to 1960, it was generally a four-year, post-primary school. It was considered post-primary, and not additional secondary education. Those who completed this program were given the official designation of Diplôme or recognition for finishing four years with a diploma. In 1962, however, the government implemented a primary school reform intended to unify the education throughout the country, and to make French the official language of instruction. About the same time, general secondary education was reformed. The secondary level or degree of education was to consist of two cycles. The first, an orientation cycle, would prepare the student for a future vocational choice. The second cycle offered courses in the humanities, industrial techniques, agriculture, commerce, science, literature, teacher training, and social studies.

Following these reforms in 1962, the training of teachers was up-graded from four to finally a six-year secondary school. All students who wished to finish their secondary education must now complete the two cycles in the course of the six years, and then take a State Examination for the diploma. Admission to both cycles was by competitive examination, and the teacher training section was now integrated into general secondary education. The highly intensified teacher training courses of the earlier monitor school or middle school, which had been uniquely of a teacher training nature, were now compacted into the latter two years of general secondary education.

The Ministry of Education, being the agency of the government responsible for all education in the Congo, saw the necessity for future teachers to get
practical experience as well and set up a system of organized laboratory schools. Depending upon the teacher training school for its administration and organization, the laboratory school was established to prove student-teaching experiences for the normal school. The recruitment of personnel for the laboratory school was by competitive examination given at the provincial level, and only those teachers who had completed their teacher training education could apply.

The administration and supervision of this newly organized system of education was given to the Ministry of Education by the National Government. The Minister of Education is the sole person responsible for the establishment of various bureaus and commissions concerned with national curriculum, personnel and inspection. It is through the offices of inspection on the provincial level that the Ministry is able to supervise its school in any way. The lack of personnel and finances, of course, make this kind of supervision very ineffective. Tribal allegiances and family ties often enter into the appointment of inspectors thus adding to the ineffectiveness of the entire system.

The greatest problem still facing the Congo today is the necessity to up-grade the poorly qualified primary school teachers. For this very reason, the National Ministry of Education has established Classes de Perfectionnement or National Improvement Classes. Through this advanced teacher training program, many unqualified teachers are able to leave their professions with the help of the government and for a period of from one to three years complete the requirements necessary for certification.
The teacher training school over the past eight years has made phenomenal progress. It has developed from its early post-primary state, to a full six-year, government recognised secondary program. Following a four year contract with the government to teach in public schools, graduates are even able to continue into higher education. But, a great deal needs to be done if the entire level of primary and then eventually secondary education is to be raised.

From our analysis of the major trends in organizational development, the following recommendations are made for the general improvement of the teacher training school:

First, the teacher training school should be raised from its present inclusion in general secondary education to a separate and highly intensified institution for the training of teachers.

Second, a great Africanization of program and personnel is needed if the teacher training enterprise is to be effective.

Third, the selection of candidates for the teacher training schools needs to be up-graded and based upon definite educational principles.

Fourth, the position of assistant principal—until this time non-existent in the Congo—should be created by the Ministry of Education for the sole purpose of helping in the supervision and administration of both the normal and laboratory schools.

Fifth, recruitment of personnel for the laboratory school should be made not only by examination but also by the evaluation of a minimum of four-years' teaching experience.
Sixth, a follow-up training program should be started for recent graduates of the normal school in order to keep them up-to-date on recent developments in their field.

Seventh, there needs to be a closer equalization of governmental salaries for primary and secondary school teachers—thus helping to eliminate the poor recruitment factor for primary schools.

Eighth, the curriculum of the teacher training school should include the teaching of one African or local language for the purpose of helping the new teacher adjust to a geographic area different from his own.

Ninth, an inspectorate needs to be established by the National Ministry specifically to handle all teacher training schools and their adjoining laboratory schools.

Tenth, it is strongly recommended that the teachers engaged for the laboratory school be holders of a D6 classification with a minimum of four years' teaching experience—that is, having finished the six-year program themselves—and that the requirement for Principal of the same school be raised to include two years additional education beyond the teacher training school program.

In conclusion, therefore, it is evident that there has been a parallel development of the secondary school and the teacher training school. Both have been bound by a governmental structure woven out of necessity. The crisis caused by premature Independence and loss of foreign personnel was an important factor in this development. If the teacher training school is to fulfill its true function, it must rise above these circumstances and stand
alone. Since the reforms of 1962, and the establishment of various crash programs for the up-grading of primary teachers in general, this reform is even more urgent. The future of teacher training in the Congo will depend not only upon the finances needed to fulfill the program of training teachers, but the realization within the Ministry of Education that teacher training is the only answer to a general up-grading and improvement of all Congolese education.

As has been observed, over a period of less than eight years the development of the teacher training school has been phenomenal, and one can only be optimistic for the future of education in a country that places such importance upon the education of its children who will one day see the dawn of Africa's greatness.
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**Periodicals**


APPENDIX

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

Public Documents


Books


Periodicals


**Pamphlets**


APPROVAL SHEET

The thesis submitted by William G. Collins has been read and approved by the director of the thesis. Furthermore, the final copies have been examined by the director and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated, and that the thesis is now given final approval.

The thesis is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

[Signature]

Date

June 13, 1961