



Teacher development as a requirement for school
improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr
Kenneth Kaunda District

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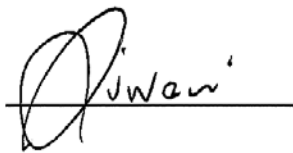
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DECLARATION

I declare that, **Teacher development as a requirement for school improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district** is my work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'SV Tiwani', is written over a horizontal line.

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20 February 2020

Date

ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study was to investigate and understand the problems of teacher development for school improvement in the rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district. The theoretical framework underpinning this study is the constructivist learning and adult learning theories.

This study was qualitative in nature and data was collected through analysis of documents which was corroborated by in-depth individual interviews with 4 principals, 8 departmental heads and 8 teachers from four rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district. Data was analysed using Hycner's (1999) five phases of (a) bracketing and phenomenological reduction (b) delineating units of meaning (c) clustering of units of meaning to form themes (d) summarising each interview, validating and modifying it, as well as (e) formulating general and unique themes for all interviews. The interviewees were purposively selected from two underperforming rural primary schools and two performing rural primary schools of the two Sub-Districts of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district, JB Marks and Matlosana Sub-Districts. The objectives of this study were to describe available development opportunities for rural primary school teachers, to explain the implications of current systems of holding teachers accountable for their development; to describe teachers' perceptions of teacher development opportunities available, to describe challenges teachers encounter and ultimately provide a model or guidelines to address problems detected.

The research provided fresh ideas of professional development "not as a direct means to improve school improvement" but as a long-term strategy of building instructional capacity in rural primary schools. Furthermore, the research revealed that rural schoolteachers still prefer workshops, conferences, short courses and professional support forums as their development platforms. According to the research findings, teachers are exposed to several development opportunities from school level to district level, however, these were not enough from the side of the school as schools rarely initiate teacher development activities on their own.

KEY TERMS

Adult development, development, learner performance, performing schools, professional development, rural schools, school improvement, teacher development, training, underperforming schools.

OPSOMMING

Die hoofdoel van hierdie studie was om die probleme van onderwyserontwikkeling vir skoolverbetering in die landelike laerskole in die Dr Kenneth Kaunda distrik te ondersoek en te verstaan. Die teoretiese raamwerk wat hierdie studie onderlê, is die konstruktivistiese leer- en volwasseneleerteorie.

Die studie was kwalitatief van aard en data is versamel deur die ontleding van dokumente wat bevestig is deur in-diepte individuele onderhoude met 4 skoolhoofde, 8 departementshoofde en 8 onderwysers van vier landelike laerskole in die Dr Kenneth Kaunda distrik. Die deelnemers is doelgerig gekies uit twee onderpresterende landelike laerskole en twee presterende landelike laerskole van die twee Dr Kenneth Kaunda distrikte, naamlik die JB Marks- en Matlosana-subdistrikte.

Die doelstellings van hierdie studie was om beskikbare ontwikkelingsgeleenthede vir onderwysers in landelike laerskole te beskryf, om die implikasies van huidige stelsels om onderwysers aanspreeklik te hou vir hul ontwikkeling te verduidelik, om die persepsies van onderwysers oor beskikbare onderwysers te beskryf, om uitdagings wat onderwysers teëkom te beskryf en uiteindelik 'n model of riglyne te gee om probleme wat opgespoor word, aan te spreek.

Die navorsing het vars idees van professionele ontwikkeling “nie as 'n direkte middel om skoolverbetering te verbeter nie” gelewer, maar as 'n langtermynstrategie om onderrigvermoë in landelike laerskole op te bou.

SLEUTELTERME

Presterende skole, onderpresterende skole, landelike skole, skoolverbetering, onderwyserontwikkeling, leerderprestasie, professionele ontwikkeling, volwassene-ontwikkeling, ontwikkeling, opleiding

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANA – Annual National Assessments

APIP – Academic Performance Improvement Plan

APP – Academic Performance Plan

ATP – Annual Teaching Plan

CK – Content Knowledge

CPTD – Continuing Professional Teacher Development

DBE – Department of Basic Education

DoE – Department of Education

DH – Departmental Head

DSG – Developmental Support Group

EFAL – English First Additional Language

EIP – Educators' Improvement Plan

ELRC – Education Labour Relations Council

ETDP-SETA – Education, Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority

GCIS – Government Communications and Information Service

GDE – Gauteng Department of Education

GET – General Education and Training

HL – Home Language

HSRC – Human Science Research Council

ICT – Information and Communication Technologies

ILST – Institutional Learner Support Team

INSET – In- Service Training

IQMS – Integrated Quality Management System

LOLT – Language of Learning and Teaching

LITNUM – Literacy and Numeracy

MCRE – Ministerial Committee on Rural Education

MEC – Member of Executive Council

NEEDU – National Education Evaluation and Development Unit

NSFAS – National Student Financial Aid Scheme

NPDE – National Professional Diploma in Education

NPFTED – National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development

NSNP – National School Nutrition Programme

NWED – North West Education Department

NWPA – North West Provincial Assessment

PAM – Personnel Administration Measures

PCK – Pedagogical Content Knowledge

PD – Professional Development

PDP – Professional Development Plan

PGCE – Postgraduate Certificate in Education

PGP – Personal Growth Plan

PIRLS – Progress in International Reading Literacy Study

PLC – Professional Learning Community

PSF – Professional Support Team

REQV – Relative Educational Qualification Value

RSA – Republic of South Africa

SACE – South African Council of Educators

SACMEQ – Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality

SBA – School Based Assessment

SDT – Staff Development Team

SES – Senior Education Specialist

SGB – School Governing Body

SIP – School Improvement Plan

SMT – School Management Team

TIMSS – Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

WIL – Work Integrated Learning

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CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Creemers, Kyriakides and Antoniou (2013:3) argue that, together with teacher training, professional teacher development is regarded as an essential mechanism to enhance teachers' content knowledge and to develop their teaching practices for them to teach to high standards. Professional teacher development, according to Hart and Lee (2016: 478), seeks to improve teachers' skills in order to enhance their quality. Furthermore, Yoon, Duncan, Yu-Lee, Scarloss & Shaples (2007:4) concur that professional teacher development enhances teachers' knowledge and skills and thus improves their classroom teaching which ultimately leads to better student achievement. However, Yoon *et al.* (2007:1) maintain that, while there are calls for high quality professional teacher development, there is still a shortage of development programmes that are characterised by coherence, active learning, sufficient duration, collective participation, focus on content knowledge and a reform approach rather than a traditional approach. The latest Annual National Assessment (ANA) results of 2014 bear testimony to the shortage of such development programmes in South Africa. When justifying the slight improvements that were observed in Mathematics, English First Additional Language and Home Language by Grade 1 to 6 learners during the 2014 ANA results, the Department of Basic Education (2014: 18) maintained that:

"...Each provincial department has implemented teacher development programmes to support the use of ANA results... Each district has conducted workshops and training sessions with teachers to implement improvement programmes...Best practice programmes in this area are the strategies in Gauteng (Gauteng Province Literacy & Mathematics Strategy), Western Cape (Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (LITNUM)) and Free State (IBT)". Contrary to the above assertions, there have never been coherent teacher development programmes characterised by collective and sufficient participation of teachers with a focus on content knowledge during the period between the 2013 Diagnostic Report that followed the ANA 2013 results and the 2014 Framework for Improvement that preceded the writing of ANA 2014.

Consequently, the Department of Basic Education (2014:17) conceded that "... some of the challenges that were discussed in the 2013 Diagnostic Report continued to factor in the ANA 2014 results" and that "...to facilitate the remediation of this situation the Department of Basic Education will intensify and strengthen monitoring and support of teachers". According to the Department of Basic Education's Integrated Framework for Teacher Education and Development's Technical Report (2011:11), teacher development in South Africa is seen by many role-players as being badly coordinated, poorly monitored, confusing and burdensome. The report singles out the Integrated Quality Management Service (IQMS) in particular as time-consuming, bureaucratic and ...being exacerbated by the fact that neither teachers nor district officials have the capacity or are adequately trained to use it. Furthermore, the Department of Basic Education (2011:4) argues that too many continuing professional development (CPD) programmes lack relevance and practicality and are sometimes simply of poor quality.

Echoing reports on international trends, participants at the Teacher Development Summit held in 2009, according to the Department of Basic Education's Technical Report (2011:4), called for the establishment of well-resourced, properly staffed and locally accessible centres for teacher development and improvements in the capability of subject advisors, other support officials, principals and teachers to promote teacher development, cooperative and collaborative working, networking and partnerships among all role-players at all levels, better coordination of and use of time for continuing professional development, the separation of teacher development from performance appraisal and development and recruitment processes that take better account of teachers' and curriculum needs. If constraints in mainstream schools are as the Technical Report suggest they are about teacher development for school improvement, one cannot help but wonder how much this negative state of affairs has affected rural schools and primary schools in particular.

1.2 CLARIFICATION OF TERMINOLOGIES

Performing Schools: - The Department of Basic Education's 2015/16 Academic Performance Plan (Department of Basic Education, 2015a:7) describes performing schools as schools that perform above set performance standards in subjects such as Mathematics (40-49%), English First Language (40-49%), Natural Sciences (40-49%), Technology (40-49%) and Home Languages (50-59%) in the Foundation Phase (Grade 1, 2 and 3), Intermediate (grade 4, 5 and 6) and Senior Phase (grade 7, 8 and 9). For the purposes of this study 'performing schools' referred to schools where more than 60% of its learners performed at level 4 and above (meaning 50-59%; 60-69%; 70-79%; 80-89% as well as 90-100%) in subjects such as Mathematics, English First Language, Natural Sciences, Technology and Home Languages in the Foundation Phase, Intermediate and Senior Phase.

Under-performing Schools: - The Department of Basic Education (Circular D2 of 2017:2) differentiates between underperforming primary schools and underperforming secondary schools. According to the Department of Basic Education (Circular D2 of 2017), a primary school is deemed to be underperforming if less than 60% of learners perform in Literacy and numeracy (LOLT) at level 4 and above (meaning 50-59%; 60-69%; 70-79%; 80-89% as well as 90-100%), while a high school is deemed underperforming if learner performance in NSC is below 60% and it produces less than 30% bachelors and diploma passes. For the purposes of this study 'underperforming schools' referred to schools where less than 60% of learners perform in Literacy and numeracy (LOLT) at level 4 and above (meaning 50-59%; 60-69%; 70-79%; 80-89% as well as 90-100%).

Rural Schools: - The Department of Basic Education (2013a:2) describes rural schools as schools that are in traditional authority areas (*community owned land in former homelands*) and formal rural areas (*commercial farms in former white areas*) of South Africa. According to Pasensie (2015:1), schools in Scotland are deemed to be rural depending on the population size of the community where they are located, as well as their remoteness and inaccessibility while in USA schools are classified rural if they are in rural "fringe" areas, rural "distant" areas or rural "remote" areas.

On the other hand, Pasensie (2015:1) argues that Japan defines rural schools by how remote and isolated the area in which they are situated is. For the purposes of this study rural schools referred to schools that are in formal rural areas (commercial farms in former white areas of South Africa), villages as well as those schools located near migrant workers' hostels and informal settlements of South African townships.

School Improvement: - According to Cauley and McMillan (2010:160), school improvement relates to the improvement or development of knowledge, skills and dispositions of individual staff members, the co-ordination of the school's program for student and staff learning as well as the development of a high-quality curriculum, instructional material, assessment instruments and workspace. School Improvement, in this research refers to any activity that involves school leadership, teachers, school culture, school resources, pedagogy and the entire school community working together with the view of changing school practices for improved learner achievement.

Learner Performance:- Learner performance, according to James and Pedder (2006:110), relates to learner achievement levels as a result to assessment *for* learning (*formal assessment tests that also includes Annual National Assessment in South Africa*) that seeks and interprets evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there as well as assessment *of* learning (summative tests that include common provincial assessment such as North West Provincial Assessment (NWPA)) in South Africa for learner grading and reporting to parents. Learner performance, in this research is used as referring to the extent to which a learner has achieved his/her short- or long-term educational goals.

Development, Training and Teacher development: - Development is a values-based approach to systems change in organisations and communities that strives to build the capacity to achieve and sustain a new desired state that benefits the organisation or community and the world around them (Haneberg, 2005: ix). The concept of teacher development, on the other hand, according to Bush and Bell (2002:103), relates to an ongoing process of education, training, learning and support activities that take place in an external or work-based setting.

Van Wyk (1995:46) describes training as a more focused kind of individual or personal growth that is utilised to acquire new skills in order to keep up with changing events and situations that are directed towards needs satisfaction. In this research, the concept of teacher development as it relates to an ongoing process of education, training, learning and support activities that take place in an external or work-based setting was studied. For the purposes of this research, development has been used as referring to the process of creating growth, progress and positive change to the environment, social and demographic components over a period of time; training has been used as referring to teaching or developing oneself or others, acquiring any skills and knowledge or fitness in relation to specific useful competencies while teacher development has been used to refer to policies, procedures and provisions that are designed to equip teachers with knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills needed to perform their teaching tasks effectively in the classroom, school and the broader community.

Adult development: - Mezirow (2009:30) describes learning for adults as the process in which adults make meaning of their experiences through acquired frames of reference, sets of orienting assumptions and expectations with cognitive, affective and conative dimensions that shape, delimit and sometimes distort their understanding. For the purposes of this research, adult development has been used to refer to gradual or rapid changes that occur in biological and psychological domains of adult human lives while reflecting positive, negative or no changes from their previous levels of functioning.

Professional development: - Plotz, Froneman & Nieuwoudt (2012:70) maintain that professional development relates to development programmes that attempt to improve content knowledge of educators and, as Hart and Lee (2003:478) put it, general teacher skills, thereby enhancing their qualities. According to Whitworth and Chiu (2015:121), professional development aims to improve teacher learning and practices and student learning. Professional development is regarded as a cornerstone for the implementation of standards-based reforms (Fishman, Marx, Best and Tal, 2003:643).

As such, professional development is part of teacher development as it is aimed at developing teachers professionally by enhancing their content knowledge and pedagogical skills through a series of continuous education processes, learning and support activities. In this research professional development has been used to refer to intensive and collaborative learning that is aimed at earning or maintaining professional credentials such as academic degree or diploma, attending conferences and informal learning opportunities that are situated in the job practice.

1.3 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The dawn of democracy in South Africa brought about several changes almost in all spheres of government from 1994 onwards. Political parties called for a radical change in the system of education that had been in place for many years (Republic of South Africa, White Paper in Education, 1995:19). Almost nineteen years after the dawn of democracy, schools, especially rural schools, still lag in a number of issues that range from infrastructure development to teacher development (Department of Basic Education, 2013a: 2). The North West Province, the majority of which is rural, is not an exception. The Department of Basic Education (2011:186) concedes that the North West Province has no teacher development institutes but just support centres that do not adequately fulfil their purpose of assisting educators in their development needs. According to the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa's Technical Report (Department of Basic Education, 2011: 186), the North West Province does not have a framework for teacher development.

However, in its Five-Year Strategic Plan for 2015/16 – 2019/20 period (DBE, 2015b: 14), the Department of Basic Education provides a number of initiatives in response to the National Development Plan's goals that include, among others, initiatives to improve "human resource development and management of schools" and a promise to implement a more effective teacher development programme to improve teacher competency. Teacher training in the province, according to the report is not centralised but dispersed across two sub-directorates, namely Quality Assurance and General and Further Education and Training Services with institution-based Integrated Quality Management Services for educators and PMDS for non-educators.

Teachers, according to Collective Agreement No 8 of 2003 (Republic of South Africa, Education Labour Relations Council, 2003), are developed from their individual schools by their Developmental Support Groups which are comprised of their individual immediate seniors and a peer per teacher based on their identified development needs as contained in their Personal Growth Plans. The rationale for this study is threefold – personal, professional and theoretical. Teachers need to be developed in order to boost their confidence, self-motivation on the job and further to make them competent in the job market and be able to compete with other world teachers as they would have skills, subject knowledge and expertise to teach and facilitate learning in the world stage using modern technological devices. It is further imperative that teachers be developed to inspire confidence and motivate up and coming teachers and to bring back the dignity that teachers once enjoyed from their communities. Governments should also invest in the development of its workforce, teachers in particular, as it is through human capital development that a nation can boost its economy and be able to meet the Global Development Goals. In this study I propagate for a shift from the traditional deficit-approach to teacher development which focuses on the needs assessment or what teachers and learners cannot do to an asset-based approach to teacher development which focuses on the strengths, skills, talents, interests and competencies of teachers.

1.4 THE BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AND RESEARCH STATEMENT

In the North West Province, learner performance in Annual National Assessments, specifically grade 3 and 6 in both English First Additional Language (EFAL) and Mathematics has been alarmingly low, prompting the district officials to embark on accountability reports for low performing primary schools as well as the introduction of “English Teaching Across The Curriculum” and the North West Provincial Assessments which are commonly set quarterly examination papers for grades 1 to 9 (Department of Basic Education, ANA Reports 2011; 2012, 2013 & 2014). However, currently, the North West Province’s Department of Education and Sports Development no longer administers the Annual National Assessments but embarks on accountability sessions for underperformance and as a compliance to Section 58B of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 as Amended by the Basic Education Laws

Amendment Act No 15 of 2011. The Minister of Basic Education (Circular D1 of 2014) maintains that Provincial Education Departments have been found to be struggling to comply adequately with Section 58B of SASA since its insertion in 2007 which requires principals of public schools to prepare and submit annual academic performance of the school in relation to minimum outcomes and standards and procedures for assessment determined by the Minister in terms of Section 6A and which requires principals (of schools found to be performing below prescribed standards) should prepare and plan an academic improvement plan. According to Circular D2 of 2017, a primary school is deemed to be underperforming if, using Literacy and Numeracy as a proxy, it has less than 60% of learners performing at level 4 and above while a secondary school is deemed to be underperforming if its pass rate in the National Senior Certificate examinations falls below 60%.

The North West Province is the main maize producing province in South Africa and as a result has many rural and farm schools (Government Communications and Information System, 2014/15: 143). This indicates that many teachers in these rural schools need continuous teacher development opportunities to improve learner performance. This can only be possible if the province could emulate the example of the two top performing provinces in South Africa, Western Cape and Gauteng. In these provinces the teacher training institutes prioritise the development of teachers from schools that are in previously disadvantaged communities and schools that perform poorly in numeracy and literacy (Western Cape Department of Education, 2014 & Gauteng Department of Education, 2014). According to the Department of Basic Education (2013a:66), professional teacher development should be the goal of classroom observation by departmental heads and greater cooperation between peers.

Furthermore, the report (Department of Basic Education, 2013a:66) maintains that, if South Africa is to build a capable state, it is important that teachers are developed according to the highest levels of expertise relevant to their job functions. There are potential problems with the development of teachers in general and specifically in rural areas (Harris & Sass, 2007:3; Akalin & Scuoglu, 2015:4 and Howe & Howey, 2004:8).

According to these researchers, these problems may be categorised in two groups, namely: - structural issues and people issues.

Structural issues are about policies such as the Integrated Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa; processes and procedures such as Integrated Quality Management Services and Continuing Professional Teacher Development and what is supposed to come from these processes. Structural issues also include physical space and places for development as well as distance and people who are knowledgeable to do teacher development.

People issues on the other hand is linked to knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and motivation of the people involved in the development of staff members (Howe & Howey, 2004: 8). Teacher development implies change and change may always be linked to resistance. Van der Westhuizen (1991:650) argues that changing existing practices brings about insecurity and some opposition. Powell and Powell (2015:67) concur in their argument that even the most hard-working, dedicated and experienced teachers may also be the most resistant when a school is faced with adaptive challenges that require teachers to rethink their deeply held values, beliefs, assumptions and at times their professional identities. Resistance to change requires that school principals and school management team members should be aware of it and that teachers should be given an opportunity to internalise it, understand the necessity and take part in its planning and subsequent introduction (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:650). Change requires more effort and more time from the teachers. According to Powell and Powell (2015:67), to overcome the resistance to change teachers must employ two learning initiatives, *nested learning* – in which the levels of learning are nested (*level above includes outcomes of the levels below*) and *transformational learning* - which is a three-stage learning process consisting of re-examining reality, cognitive framing as well as modelling and co-teaching. Educational leaders therefore, especially in underperforming schools, should play a significant role in this process. Van der Westhuizen (1991:650) maintains that, to succeed with this change objective, participants must be positive, motivated, dedicated and possess right attitudes. There are several factors which influence teacher change. Whitworth and Chiu (2015:126) provide the following three factors as influencing teacher change:

(i) differences in teacher backgrounds, differences in teacher confidence levels and motivations as well as different school policies, different approaches and different visions within which schools work; (ii) a variety of issues that motivate teachers to attend professional development such as salary increases, career mobility and gaining new skills and knowledge; (iii) individual teachers' self-efficacy (those teachers with stronger self-efficacy are more likely to change their practices as a result of attending professional development irrespective of their experience); and school culture which influences teacher retention and classroom practices. According to Darling-Hammond (2000:23), teacher development has as its aim the improvement of the academic performance of the learners. Therefore, teacher development and academic performance of learners cannot be separated as there is a direct link between the two (Darling-Hammond, 2000:23). There are numerous factors which can influence the performance of learners which may be outside of the control of the teacher such as the social environment of the learner (Whitworth & Chiu, 2015:126).

Darling-Hammond (2000:23) argues that there may also be teachers who are well qualified and engaging themselves in frequent new development activities, but learners may not be performing well which is an indication of the link between the structural issues and people issues. According to Darling-Hammond (2000:23), learners' socio-economic circumstances such as poverty levels, language of learning and teaching (LOLT) and minority status are significantly and negatively correlated with their performance levels. Heystek and Terhoven (2015:627) concur with the above assertion in their argument that schools are confronted with the effects of poverty, vandalism, crime, poor infrastructure, lack of resources, absenteeism, high dropout rate and overcrowded classes among other things which negatively affect learner performance.

According to Heystek and Terhoven (2015: 627), these characteristics are also significantly and negatively correlated with teacher qualifications. Darling-Hammond (2000:23) sums it up in her contention that in societies where learners are faced with negative socio-economic conditions it is possible to get teachers who do not have professional certificates instead there would be more teachers without certificates.

In South Africa many unqualified and under-qualified teachers who could not meet the deadline of enrolling for a National Professional Diploma in Education to augment their previous training or experience have since been relegated to school administrator posts, Administration Assistants, and those who completed it were put on Relative Equivalent Qualification Value (REQV) 14. However, the influx or migration of teachers from rural locations to big cities has made it impossible for rural schools to have qualified and specialist teachers in subjects such as Mathematics, English First Additional Language and Science (Department of Basic Education, 2011:12). While rural schools have significant structural problems that are linked to distance and the availability of knowledgeable people to support teacher development there is still an attitude issue of teachers that must be overcome. According to Stan, Stancovici & Palos (2013:1723), teacher participation in developmental programmes is largely influenced by their positive attitudes both towards learning and towards improving their performances. Stan *et al.* (2013:1723) further argue that a combination of teachers' positive attitudes and their favourable self-evaluation lead to stimulating motivation to participate in new learning opportunities. Given these points, one can conclude by saying a teacher's attitude towards education becomes an essential aspect of his/her decisions to participate in professional developmental programmes. The attitude and motivation of teachers as well as their managers in schools is the most important reason why development of teachers is not getting enough attention in schools.

In view of the above discussion the following research question can be stated: -

What problems of teacher development do rural primary school teachers of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District experience?

- i. Which developmental opportunities are available for rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District and how efficient are teacher development opportunities?
- ii. Why should teachers be held accountable for teacher development and learner performance?

- iii. What are the perceptions of teachers about the current teacher development opportunities of rural primary school teachers of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district?
- iv. How can the challenges of teacher development in rural primary schools be addressed?

1.5 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.5.1 The research aims

The research generally aims to obtain a better understanding of the problems of teacher development to school improvement in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda rural primary schools as well as to provide guidelines and adopt an approach for the professional development of these teachers.

1.5.2 The research objectives

- i. To explore and investigate the efficiency of the available teacher development opportunities of rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district.
- ii. To describe the effects and implications of teacher accountability measures for teacher development and learner performance.
- iii. To establish the perceptions of teachers about the current teacher development opportunities from the viewpoint of rural primary school teachers.
- iv. To develop guidelines and adopt approaches that will be used to address problems of teacher development for school improvement in rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district.

1.6 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1.6.1 Teacher professional development and personal development

According to the Department of Basic Education (2013a:58), professional development is a two-fold professional training initiative of teachers that include **pre-service** “*in which newly qualified teachers and those completing post-graduate courses have the content knowledge and pedagogical skills required*” and **in-service** “*in which personnel further their studies by enrolling for degrees or diplomas in any institution of higher learning or enrol for short courses that are offered by the Department of Basic Education sanctioned service providers or short workshops organised by the Department of Basic Education itself or by schools themselves.*” Examples in the school may be development offered by school-level departmental heads focusing on subject content coverage and acquisition of pedagogical skills and development in which school management teams structure and lead systematic learning opportunities for teachers through regular discussions on content matters of curriculum. Personal development on the other hand covers activities that improve self-awareness, self-identity, talent and professional development, building human capital and facilitate employability. Therefore, what separates personal development from professional development is that personal development is intended to motivate, change attitudes and beliefs of individual teachers so that they can benefit from professional development programmes that are meant to instil pedagogical skills and content knowledge in them.

1.6.2 Challenges of teacher development in South Africa and elsewhere

According to the Department of Basic Education’s Technical Report (Department of Basic Education, 2013a:75), teacher development throughout South Africa must contend with challenges that are linked to methodology and structure; specific contextual factors of rural schools as well as limiting factors on the districts’ effectiveness. Ono and Ferreira (2010:60) identify four purposes of teacher development as, *for certification of unqualified teachers; to upgrade teachers; to prepare teachers for new roles as well as curriculum related development or refresher courses.*

Ono and Ferreira (2010:60) contend that these programmes are brief, fragmented, incoherent exercises that are decontextualized and isolated from real classroom situations. Furthermore, Ono and Ferreira argue that in developing countries professional development of teachers has been neglected because of budget constraints but when provided a cascade approach in which information is transmitted from top to lower stratified groups of teachers is followed. According to Du Preez and Roux (2008:77), programme developers are not always able to conceptualise methodological underpinnings of their professional development programmes which result in negative reactions from teachers. Being able to design coherent and purposeful programmes for varying target groups will be a result of thorough conceptualisation of methodological underpinnings.

According to the Department of Basic Education's Technical Report (Department of Basic Education, 2013a:75), teacher development throughout South Africa must contend with challenges that include poor quality teaching and subject matter knowledge which is a legacy of apartheid teacher training, limited knowledge and competence to interpret and utilise teaching resources and learner support materials effectively, among other things. Furthermore, the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education's report (Department of Basic Education, 2013a:1) indicates that there are challenges that are specific to rural schools some of which have been mentioned in previous paragraphs including the lack of infrastructural commodities such as running water, electricity, libraries, laboratory and computers and lack of sufficient and fully qualified teaching staff.

Internationally, Guskey (2002:382) argues that a variety of factors contribute to the ineffectiveness of most teacher development programmes. According to Guskey (2002:382), these are factors such as failure of the programmes to take into account what motivates teachers to engage in professional development and the process by which change in teachers typically occurs, and the presumption by development leaders that changes in teachers' attitudes and beliefs about certain aspects of teaching or the desirability of particular curriculum will lead to specific changes in their classroom behaviours and practices which will result in improved student learning.

Above all, the Policy on the Roles and Responsibilities of Education Districts, published in terms of the National Policy Act of 1998 (Department of Basic Education, 2013b:7) concedes that - some education districts are responsible for too many schools and cannot provide effective services to them; the delegated authority, roles, relationships and lines of accountability of provincial head offices, district offices and schools are not clearly formulated, understood and exercised; and that some district offices do not have delegated authority to plan and develop their programmes, manage their budgets and recruit or deploy staff members in their offices or in education institutions. In the wake of the above challenges, one may argue that rural primary schools of the North West Province generally are bound to experience learner performance challenges if nothing is done to empower the provincial and district offices with enough resources to develop teachers.

1.6.3 School improvement through teacher development

Sandholtz (2002:816) observes that it frequently happens that almost all teachers in a school are required to attend full day in-service sessions on topics that are selected by administrators and presented by people with expertise through direct instruction. In South Africa the Personnel Administration Measures (RSA, 2016: 18) stipulates that teachers are required to spend at 80 hours per annum doing teacher development activities. Teachers describe these once-off workshops as boring, irrelevant and, according to Sandholtz (2002: 816), tend to forget 90% of what they learnt there.

Adults want learning opportunities that are meaningful and practical to them, opportunities that offer an immediate pay-off and involve reflection on many experiences including social and active learning. Most adult learning theories reflect a constructive view of learning in which learners acquire new knowledge by constructing it for themselves. Many traditional teacher professional development models, according to Sandholtz (2002:816), incorporate teacher development strategies that oppose research on adult learning. A review of adult learning theories, according to Sandholtz (2002:816), identified areas that promote adult learning in the workplace, such as opportunities for individuals to work and learn from others of similar positions continuously; collaboration in group work and learning as well as variation and opportunities that provide participants with choices in work roles and tasks.

Contrary to these opportunities, current teacher development opportunities are mandatory, uniform for all and happen periodically. Therefore, adult learning is very important and beneficial to both individual teachers and institutions as espoused by the human capital theory.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

1.7.1 Research paradigm and theoretical framework

There are several learning theories which are either of behaviourist, brain-based, control theory of motivation, observational, constructivist or of cognitive origin (Schwandt: 2007:19, 37, 211 & 292). O'Donoghne (2007:15) contends that any research rests on existing theories and concepts. The underlying theory that guided this study and the interpretation of results is the symbolic interactivism. Symbolic interactivism is a major framework of sociological theory. According to the symbolic interactivism, Golding (1999:5) argues, individuals engage in a world which requires reflective interaction as averse to environmental response. These individuals act and react to environmental cues, objects and others according to the meaning they hold for them. Golding contends that such meanings evolve from social interaction which is symbolic because of interpretations attached to the various forms of communication such as language, gestures and significance of objects.

Symbolic interactionism relies on the symbolic meaning that people develop and rely upon in the process of social interaction. The central principle of this theory is that the meaning we derive from and attribute to the world around us is a social construction produced by everyday social interaction. As such this theory is focused on how we use and interpret things as symbols to communicate with each other, how we create and maintain the reality that we believe to be true. Vygotsky's social cognition learning theory (Kozulin, 2004:3) is one example of symbolic interactionism. The use of this social cognition learning theory for teachers' learning instead of behaviourism, control theory of motivation or brain-based learning theory is informed by Darling-Hammond (2000:3) assertion that there is correlation between student achievement and teacher professional development which is focused on specific subject content knowledge.

Ono and Ferreira (2010:62) suggest that a new perspective of professional development should, among other things, be linked to school reform and be perceived as a process that takes place within a context. Vygotsky is one of the theorists who developed theories of learning and development that pivoted on the roles of social and semiotic mediation. According to Vygotsky (Dimitriadis & Kamberelis, 2006:192), through culture learners acquire much of the content of their thinking and their surrounding culture provides them with the mediational means for their thinking, which are language and other systems. Vygotsky maintained that, "it is through others that we develop into ourselves" and that "...development does not proceed towards socialisation but towards the conversion of social relations into mental functions" (Dimitriadis & Kamberelis, 2006:192). According to Ono and Ferreira (2010:62), the principles of learning and their implications for designing learning environment apply equally to child and adult learning. Ono and Ferreira maintain that professional development programmes should be learner-centred, knowledge centred, assessment centred, and community centred to "optimise" teacher learning. Dimitriadis and Kamberelis single out three themes as the most outstanding throughout Vygotsky's theories, namely: his insistence on developmental methods, his claim that higher mental processes in individuals originate or are a result of the social process and his belief that mental processes can be understood if we understand the social and semiotic instruments that mediate them.

To understand Vygotsky's theory of social learning, Dimitriads and Kamberelis (2006:192) maintain that one must look closer at the claim that higher mental processes in individuals are a result of social processes and its implications of learning and development. Merizow's transformative learning theory, according to Christie, Crey, Robinson & Grainger (2015:9), can help educators and prospective school teachers to understand that social structures and belief systems can influence student learning, and that learners, children and adults, make meaning of their experiences in several ways which influence the sort of value systems they develop or transform to. This assertion by Christie *et al.* is what makes Merizow and Vygotsky's theories complementary. According to Christie *et al.* (2015:12), an important element of Mezirow's theory is communication so that internal and external conflicts which are the result of changes in perspective can be resolved through rational discourse.

It is on this basis that facilitators of teacher development or mentors should be aware and respectful of emotional, physical, spiritual and behavioural concerns of their educators. Christie *et al.* (2015:428) contend that, throughout the journey of identifying and questioning long-standing “habits of mind” or premises or assumptions, adults need an objective person to walk with, ahead of and behind them. Another theory that is closest to teacher development is the human capital theory which, according to Nafukho, Hairston and Brooks (2004:546), seeks to explain the gains of education and training as a form of investment in human resources. Human capital theory posits that education and schooling are deliberate investments that prepare the labour force and thus increase productivity of individuals and organisations while at the same time encourage growth and development at a higher level (Nafukho *et al.*, 2004:546). According to Nafukho *et al.* (2004:546), the fundamental principle underpinning human capital theory is the belief that people’s learning capabilities are comparable to other resources that are involved in the production and services.

1.7.2 The literature study

According to Geldenhuys and Oosthuizen (2015:204), South African research conducted so far regarding teacher professional development focused mainly on three themes. **Theme one** dealt with certain aspects of CPD such as perceptions, experiences, challenges and expectations of teachers; **theme two** dealt with the implementation of Developmental Appraisal System and the **third theme** focused on the implementation of Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) and how school management teams view and experience such management. Information from the NEXUS’s National Research Foundation indicates that much international research conducted on teacher development has only been concerned with the influence that teacher professional development has on learner achievement in certain subjects, such as Hart and Lee’s (2003) study, Darling–Hammond’s (2000) study and Polly, McGee, Wang, Martin, Lambert and Pugalee’s (2015) study on student performance in Mathematics. No current research exists regarding teacher development challenges for rural primary schools, either from the database of Sabinet, Scopus or Ebscohost.

The only completed study, titled *Exploring professional development interventions for improving the teaching practice of primary school teachers*, investigated development interventions of primary school teachers in Mozambique (Tembe, 2011). However, not much has been researched about the challenges of teacher development in rural schools. When searching Google scholar and Ebscohost, specifically looking for teacher development and rural schools in South Africa, only two research projects were found, namely one by Duma and Buthelezi, titled *Staff development in rural schools in South Africa: Experiences of Principals in Uthungulu District* (2016) and the other by Okeke and Mpahla, titled *Continuing Professional Teacher Development: The case of junior teachers in one rural education district in South Africa* (2016). Reporting on the findings of the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education (MCRE) that were put in place in 2004 to investigate the conditions of rural schools to provide recommendations to the Department of Education for improving the quality of schooling in rural areas, it was noted that the findings (Department of Basic Education, 2013a:1) provided a picture of the context of South African rural schools. According to the Department of Basic Education (2013a:2), rural schools of all types, monograde and multi-grade, in South Africa, are less well provided with infrastructure than their urban and suburban counterparts as many of them still lack running water, electricity, libraries, laboratories and computers. Apart from the infrastructural challenges of rural schools of which some emanate from the historical contexts of their setting, farm schools, according to the Department of Basic Education (2013a:2), have a unique history and legal status that set them apart from other rural schools.

1.7.3 Research approach

Denzin and Lincoln (2008:31) argue that all research is interpretive and guided by the researcher's set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and ultimately studied. This study was orientated along constructivist paradigm lines. Denzin and Lincoln (2008:32) contend that a constructivist paradigm assumes a relative ontology (a doctrine denying universal truth), a subjectivist epistemology (in which the knower and respondent co-create understandings) and a naturalistic set of methodological procedures.

Schwandt (2007:40) differentiates between social and radical constructivists. According to Schwandt (2007), there are weak and strong versions of social constructivism, depending on their respective views of social constructivism of everything in life. Both versions share the view that our concepts, theories, ideas and so on do not straight forwardly represent or mirror reality. Schwandt (2007:40) contends that the weak version does not hold the belief that every object or idea in the world and every aspect of the world and everything is a social construct but rather focus on how our experience of some object or idea, our classification of the world and our interest in the world are socially constructed. Weak social constructivism does not deny reality in the ordinary sense of the term. Schwandt (2007:40) further maintains that strong social constructivists deny any ontology of the real whatsoever but argues that everything in the world and about the world is nothing but a sociolinguistic product of historically situated interactions, a kind of linguistic or semiotic idealism.

Strong social constructivists maintain that our experiences, thoughts and speech about reality are functions of the particular conceptual framework such as culture, form of life, language etc. in which we live and that different conceptual frameworks yield incommensurable understandings of experience and reality (Schwandt, 2007:41). For the purpose of this research, the strong version of social constructivism was used.

1.7.3.1 Study population and sampling

According to Maree (2007:79), sampling is a process that is used to select a portion of the population for the research study. Generally, in qualitative research, non-probability and purposive sampling are used instead of probability or random sampling (Maree, 2007:79). For this study, purposive sampling was used. Maree (2007: 79) contends that purposeful sampling relates to the selection of research participants based on their characteristics that link them to the data that is needed for the study. Purposive sampling decisions, according to Maree (2007:79), also involve the settings, incidents, events and activities to be used for data collection. As part of this research, the criterion sampling strategy, in which the researcher decides from the study design stage the typical characteristics of participants that should be included in the study as well as the number of participants, was used.

These included age, place of residence, gender, class, profession, marital status, use of a strategy, a specific learning barrier and many others. Principals, departmental heads and teachers of rural primary schools of the North West Province's Dr Kenneth Kaunda District formed the population from which two primary schools, one underperforming and one well performing from each of the two sub-districts offices [Matlosana and JB Marks] of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District were selected. The Sub-District Managers of the two Sub-Districts of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District assisted the researcher by providing him with the list of performing schools not listed in a departmental circular issued by the Chief Director in Curriculum Management on the 6 April 2018 (NWED, 2018). This circular invited principals and SGB chairpersons of underperforming schools to share information with schools that work (NEEDU's reference to performing schools).

This list provided me with all underperforming schools of all four districts of North West Province including the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district. This ensured that each sub-district was equally represented in the study. From each school, the following participants were purposefully chosen: one principal, two heads of department and two teachers. The principal was included as participant in his capacity as the head of the school and in line with his job description of ensuring that the education of learners is promoted in a proper manner and in accordance with approved policies as well as that of managing the school satisfactorily (Republic of South Africa, Employment of Educators Act No 76 of 1998). A total of 20 interviews was conducted. Participants were selected based on the fact that they were between the ages of 25 and 55 and were residing in the rural area in which the school was situated. Three females and two males from each school (except school B which had only one male teacher) were selected. Participants held either three-year diploma certificates which are an equivalent of REQV 13, Bachelor's degrees plus Post Graduate Certificates in Education (PGCE) or Bachelor of Education degrees. The criterion for selecting the departmental heads per school was that he/she should have been at the school for five years or more and during that time should have overseen the same phase or grade. School departmental heads oversee teacher development and further participate in agreed school/educator appraisal processes to regularly review their professional practice to improve teaching, learning and management (Department of Basic Education, 2016:36).

Teachers on the other hand were selected based on having taught the same subject in the same phase or grade for three years or more provided that the researcher could find such teachers. From each school, two teachers from the foundation phase and two from the intermediate phase were selected. This enabled me to determine whether the programmes of ongoing professional development that teachers must attend (80 hours per annum), in line with the requirements of the teachers' employment contracts as contained in the Personnel Administration Measurements (Department of Basic Education, 2016:18) have benefitted teachers or not.

1.7.3.2 Data Collection, methodology, instruments and procedure

O'Donoghue (2007:12) asserts that methods of data generation are techniques to gather and analyse data that is related to some research question. This assertion should be understood in line with Maree's contention (2007:81) that most qualitative studies do not treat data collection and data analysis as two separate processes, but as an ongoing and iterative process. Scott and Morrison (2006:152) categorise method in three types of "rule-focused procedures", namely the one that pertains to establishing key elements of the study, the one that pertains to rules of collecting data and the one that pertains to rules for analysing and interpreting data. Various methods of data collection such as individual interviews, focus groups, observations and document analysis may be used (Petty *et al.*, 2012:380). According to Maree (2007:79), unobstructive data collection techniques such as interviews and observations are more dominant in the naturalist (interpretive) paradigm which defines qualitative research. In this study, the following data collection methods were used: *individual interviews* with school principals, heads of development and teachers as well as *analysis of documents* such as minutes of departmental or staff meetings which may provide some information about teacher development as it happens in each specific school; IQMS documents such as minutes of individual teachers Developmental Support Group (DSG); as well as commentaries by the DSG in development meetings with individual teachers. Furthermore, IQMS provincial, district and area/circuit office policy documents and reports were studied in-depth.

Maree (2007: 82) contends that the use of **documents** as a data gathering technique requires researchers to focus on the types of written communications which include

published and unpublished documents. Furthermore, Maree (2007:82) differentiates between primary and secondary sources of data with primary sources referring to unpublished original documents such as minutes of meetings, reports and correspondence while secondary sources refer to any material that includes books and articles which are based on previously published works.

For the purposes of this research, primary source documents such as *minutes of subject committee meetings, foundation phase, intermediate phase and senior phase departmental meetings, staff meetings, school budget meetings as well as school development team (SDT) meetings* were used. The advantage of using primary sources is that they are the original source documents that easily corroborate the evidence from what has been gathered from the interviews. Secondary source documents such as policy documents on IQMS as well as reports on teacher development were also used. The disadvantage of secondary sources is that, according to Maree (2007:83), they often contain the author's own selective interpretation of data used to substantiate his/her own viewpoint. To cope with such tendencies, Maree (2016:88) contends that researchers should take care to evaluate the authenticity and accuracy of the records before using them.

Interviews, according to Schwandt (2007: 163), are classified as either structured, semi-structured or unstructured with unstructured interviews being further subdivided into informal conversational interviews, interview guide approach and the standardised open-ended interview. According to Schwandt (2007:163), the typical in-depth, semi-structured or unstructured interview aims to elicit stories of experience. Creswell (2003:188) maintains that, in interviews, the researcher conducts face to face conversations with participants. These interviews involve unstructured and generally open-ended questions that are few and intend to elicit views and opinions from participants. From each school, the researcher first interviewed the principal as the agent of change and an accounting officer of his/her school followed by the analysis of documents such as provincial, district and area office IQMS reports as well as school summative evaluation reports to corroborate the interview data. Secondly, the departmental heads (DH) from each school were interviewed as the immediate seniors of their teachers followed by an analysis of documents such as teachers' DSG

(Developmental Support Group) reports compiled by the Departmental Head, n-school monitoring reports or class visits reports. Teachers were the last to be interviewed and provided their account of development processes as the recipients of the development opportunities in their schools followed by an analysis of documents such as the minutes of their individual pre and post evaluation discussions with their Developmental Support Groups as well as summative IQMS instruments and score sheets. More documents were then analysed, and the researcher went back to the participants to verify some data as such verification became necessary from time to time.

1.7.3.3 Data collection sites

A departmental circular issued by the Chief Director in Curriculum Management on the 6th of April 2018 (NWED, 2018), inviting principals and SGB chairpersons of underperforming schools to share information with schools that work (NEEDU's reference to performing schools), provided me with a list of underperforming schools of all four districts of the North West Province including the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District. The Sub-District Managers of the two sub-districts of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District assisted the researcher by providing him with the list of performing schools. This ensured that each sub-district is equally represented in the study.

1.7.3.4 Data analyses

Schwandt (2007:6) maintains that analysing qualitative data is the activity of making sense of interpreting and theorising data that starts from organising, reducing and describing data drawing conclusions or interpretations and warranting those interpretations. According to Petty *et al.* (2012:381), methods of data analysis include thematic analysis, content analysis, constant comparison, critical discourse, discourse analysis, conversation analysis and analysis of narratives. Petty *et al.* (2012:381) further maintain that, in qualitative research, the researcher moves back and forth between data collection and data analysis. Schwandt (2007: 291) contends that thematic analysis which is also called *qualitative thematic analysis and interpretive content analysis* is a common general approach to analysing qualitative data.

For the purposes of this research, data was explicated using the five phases identified by Hycner (1999) (see Section 4). According to Maree (2016:105), data-analysis in phenomenology focuses on how individuals experience the world. Maree also maintains that the researcher tries to bracket the “self” out and enter the other person’s perspective and experience and tries to see the world through the eyes of others.

In phenomenological analysis, the initial analytical approach goes beyond content analysis to a nuanced understanding of lived experiences (Maree, 2016:105).

1.7.3.5 The researcher's role

After obtaining ethical clearance, the researcher visited the research sites prior to the commencement of the study to familiarise himself with and get the trust of participants as well as to inform the participants about the purpose of the research and data gathering methods to be used. The participants were told that their participation in the research interviews was voluntary; they were free to refuse to answer any questions at any time; they were free to withdraw from the interview at any time; the research interview would be kept strictly confidential and would only be made available to members of the research team and that excerpts of the research interview could be part of the final research report but the names or identifying characteristics would not be included in the report. The researcher formulated the research questions in a way that would not require participants to disclose sensitive information.

1.8 ETHICAL ASPECTS OF THE STUDY

Creswell (2003:62) maintains that researchers must anticipate ethical issues that may arise during their research studies. Maree (2007:41) concurs as he stresses the importance of highlighting ethical considerations about a research study. Maree (2007:41) further considers the issue of confidentiality of the results and findings of the study and the protection of participants’ identities as the most essential ethical aspect. Coupled to these is the issue of obtaining consent letters from participants which gives the researcher permission to interview them. According to Creswell (2003:62), ethical issues arise in discussions about codes of professional conduct for researchers and in commentaries about ethical dilemmas and potential solutions.

In this research, I obtained an ethical clearance certificate from the North-West University's Faculty of Educational Sciences, Potchefstroom Campus and presented it to the District Director of Education at the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district to seek permission from him for presentation to the principals of the four participating schools to conduct research in their respective schools.

I told the participants that their participation in the research interviews was voluntary; they were free to refuse to answer any questions at any time; they were free to withdraw from the interview at any time; the research interview would be kept strictly confidential and would only be made available to members of the research team and that excerpts of the research interview would be part of the final research report but the names or identifying characteristics would not be included in the report. The research study provided no discomfort, nor pose any risk to the participants as I conducted individual and confidential interviews with the selected participants. Furthermore, I formulated the research questions in a way that did not require participants to disclose sensitive information.

1.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Schwandt (2007:299) argues that trustworthiness of the research is the quality or goodness of an investigation and its findings that make it noteworthy to the readers. In qualitative research, trustworthiness of the study is of utmost importance while in quantitative research, reliability and validity are the key measures (Maree, 2016:123). According to Schwandt (2007:299) and Maree (2016:123), qualitative researchers consider four criteria in pursuit of a trustworthy study, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

1.9.1 Credibility

Strauss and Myburgh (2002:57) contend that credibility relates to the researcher's authority, the researcher's ability to keep a reflective journal as well as his/her preparation for the actual research. This, according to De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport (2002: 351), is aimed at demonstrating that the study was conducted accurately.

Ensuring credibility of the research, according to Maree (2016:123), includes the application of strategies such as the adoption of well-established research methods, a research design that fits the research question and a theoretical underpinning that is also aligned to the research question and the methods. To ensure credibility of the research in this study, I visited the research sites to make preliminary arrangements with the participants. I kept the research journal with notes and decisions taken during the research process as far as data collection and the analysis process was concerned. Furthermore, I provided participants and peers with the raw interview data to check for accuracy and mistakes. I held frequent debriefing sessions with my study supervisor.

1.9.2 Transferability

This criterion is concerned with the research responsibility to provide readers with enough information on the case(s) being studied such that readers could make a link between these case(s) and the case(s) to which findings might be transferred (Schwandt, 2007:299). According to Straus and Myburgh (2002:57), transferability is the extent to which the results of a study can be applied in similar contexts. For the purposes of this research, I ensured transferability by using stratified purposeful sampling in which information-rich participants were used and by the provision of the research context from which other researchers may decide on how replicable research findings could be in similar settings.

1.9.3 Dependability

According to Schwandt (2007: 299), dependability refers to the research process and the researcher's responsibility to ensure that the process is logical, traceable and documented. It is the researcher's account of the changing conditions in the phenomenon under study and the changes in the research design as warranted by the researcher's understanding of the research setting. In this study, an audit trail that consists of written permission from the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district manager and the principals of participating schools was compiled, including a detailed description of how data was collected and analysed.

1.9.4 Confirmability

Confirmability relates to establishing the researcher's independence from bias and the fact that the data and interpretations are not just the researcher's imagination (Schwandt, 2007:299). In this study, semi structured in-depth interviews which followed the viewing of documents helped eliminate any researcher bias and provided reliable research findings.

1.10 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

Generally, the study provided additional empirical evidence that links professional teacher development with improved student achievement. The study confirmed what is already in the literature regarding the influence of teacher development on learner performance. Furthermore, the study specifically:

- Provided preferred development practices of rural primary school teachers such as workshops, courses and many other development opportunities that teachers in their different contexts preferred to use.
- Provided fresh ideas of professional development “not as a direct means to improve school improvement” but rather as a long-term strategy of building instructional capacity in rural primary schools, such as planning lessons together as phase teachers; doing demonstration lessons while peers observe; conducting critical discussions about observed lessons and changing roles to enhance student learning.
- Further developed guidelines on how to form partnering relationships among rural primary school teachers, school staff members and other stakeholders with the view of forming resilient schools in which teachers talk freely about instruction, assessment and schooling as they exchange ideas, recall mistakes and recast them.

- Developed guidelines and adopted an approach on how rural primary school teachers can form collaborative partnerships between schools and communities as the starting point of support initiatives that will allow them to critically examine their work, analyse their beliefs and assumptions about their roles and help them as they grapple with uncertainties that are related to teaching and learning more broadly and specifically to issues that are related to their classroom contexts.

1.11 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

CHAPTER 1

In Chapter 1, the rationale and background of the research study were introduced. Aspects covered mostly included clarification of terminologies, the rationale of the study, the preliminary literature review, the aims and objectives of the study, the research design and methods, ethical aspects of the study, trustworthiness, the contributions of the study, and the outline of chapters and the summary of the chapter.

CHAPTER 2

In Chapter 2, a review of related literature on aspects of teacher development focusing on theories of teacher development and teacher learning such as human capital theory, self-directed learning theory, constructivism theory as well as transformative learning theory was done, followed by a discussion on principles of adult learning and people related issues to teacher development which included attitudes, motivation, teacher pedagogical knowledge and teacher content knowledge.

CHAPTER 3

Chapter 3 dealt with a review of related literature to teacher development, focusing on structural issues of teacher development such as physical space to teacher development, resources and funding of teacher development, time spent for teacher

development programmes and policies that regulate teacher development, how and why do teachers learn, principles of teacher learning and teacher development, trends to teacher developments as well as the summary of the chapter.

CHAPTER 4

In Chapter 4, the research design and methodology of the study which included the main research question, research aims, population and sampling procedures, data collection methods and data analysis as well as methods of selecting participants were dealt with. Furthermore, ethical measures and measures to ensure trustworthiness were done.

CHAPTER 5

Chapter 5 dealt with the discussion of the research findings from the analysed documents and individual interviews with teachers, departmental heads and school principals.

CHAPTER 6

Chapter 6 dealt with the analysis and interpretation of the research findings, how well the results answered the main research question and how well they link with what is written in the literature including the link of the research results with the development and learning theories referred to in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 7

Chapter 7 dealt with the summary, recommendations, conclusion (which included the efficiency of teacher development opportunities, the implications of the teacher accountability systems for teacher development, the perceptions of teachers about their current teacher development opportunities as well as guidelines to address the teacher development problems of rural primary school teachers) and limitations of the study.

1.12 SUMMARY

In Chapter 1, the rationale and background of the research study were introduced. The study investigated how teacher development, as executed by teachers themselves, their schools, the Department of Basic Education and other stakeholders, contributes to improved learner performance.

In its Five-Year Strategic Plan for 2015/16 – 2019/20 period (DBE, 2015b:14), the Department of Basic Education provides a number of initiatives in response to the National Development Plan's long-term and medium-term goals. These include, among others:

- initiatives to “increase accountability for improved learning” in which principals are being held accountable for managing teacher performance and in which an Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) is being reviewed to embody the roles and responsibilities of the principal, School Management Teams, teachers and Circuit Managers; and
- initiatives to improve “human resource development and management of schools” with an emphasis on acknowledging the need to assess the teachers’ content knowledge in subjects they teach and the replenishment of the current stock of teachers and a promise to implement a more effective teacher development programme to improve teacher competency.

However, the success of the efforts of the Department of Basic Education in ensuring the realisation of these initiatives is yet to be confirmed through reviews of the NDPs medium-term and long-term goals. Aspects covered in this chapter mostly included clarification of terminologies, the rationale and background of the study, the preliminary literature review, the aims and objectives of the study, the research design and methods, ethical aspects of the study, trustworthiness, the contributions of the study, the outline of chapters and the summary of the chapter.

CHAPTER 2: TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN CONSTRUCTIVIST PARADIGM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The Department of Basic Education (2011:13) contends that it is generally accepted that there are both an absolute shortage and a relative shortage of teachers who are qualified and competent enough to teach specific subjects in specific phases, in specific languages and in rural and remote schools in South Africa. Studies of teacher effects at the classroom level in the USA, according to Darling-Hammond (2000:2), have found that differential teacher effectiveness is a strong determinant of differences in learners' learning, outweighing the effects of differences in class size and other variables. Teacher development in South Africa, according to the Department of Basic Education (2011:13), is seen by many role-players as badly coordinated, poorly monitored, confusing and burdensome. Research concurs that teacher development should be classroom and curriculum focused and concentrate on improving learner understanding and performance (Department of Basic Education, 2011:13).

This chapter reviews related research and literature on aspects of teacher development and school improvement with special focus on learning theories and principles of teacher learning and development as well as teacher development as it applies in rural South African schools. This served as the theoretical grounding for the empirical investigation. The underlying theory that guides this study and the interpretation of results is the symbolic interaction theory. Symbolic interaction, according to Aksan *et al.* (2008: 902), examines meanings that emerge from continuous interaction of individuals in social environment with each other and concentrates on the symbols and meanings that emerge from such interaction. As lifelong learners, teachers continuously engage in continuing development programmes as required by the Employment of Educators Act as Amended in 2016 (RSA,1998). During such interactions, teachers assimilate new information into their cognitive structures to interpret the environment. This leads to modification of their cognitive structures which is the transformation of previously held frames of reference as espoused by transformative learning theory.

Denzin and Lincoln (2008: 31) maintain that all research is interpretive and the interpretive paradigm along which this study was oriented is the constructivist paradigm. Constructivists view learning as a process in which learners structure their knowledge by changing or rejecting ideas they already have (Basturk, 2016:904). Constructivism, according to Basturk (2016), further views learners as sense-makers who interpret information, rather than record it as it comes from teachers and regards learners as constructors of knowledge, through their interaction with the environment and the reorganisation of their mental structure.

In essence, Basturk (2016: 904) argues that the meaning that emerges from the interaction between individuals is modified through transformative learning processes which entail change in previously held mind-set habits or meaning perspectives as a result of the application of the interpretive processes of the constructivist theory. According to Merriam *et al.* (2007:84), as adult learners, teachers are motivated to embark on continuing development programmes by a number of things. Merriam *et al.* (2007: 84) further argue that, as adults mature, they need to be free to direct their work and choose learning activities that reflect their interests. Many researchers (Nafukho *et al.*, 2004:545; Tan, 2014:412 and Almendarez, 2013:21) agree that the role of education and training, including teacher development, has increased workers' efficiency and productivity and enhanced the productivity and diversity of the labour force, hence the emphasis on human capital. In this chapter, the human capital theory, the transformative learning theory, the self-directed learning theory as well as the constructivist theory are explored. The link between the theories and their appropriateness for teacher development are explored as well.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Teacher development is defined by various scholars (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:11; Guskey, 2002: 381; Asghar & Ahmad, 2014:34; Haneberg, 2005:ix and Bush & Bell, 2002:103) as the professional growth of a teacher which he/she achieves over a period of time after undergoing training, learning, gaining experience and support activities that take place in a work-based setting or externally.

Teacher development, according to Evans (2002: 126), relates to teachers' learning, rather than getting to change. It is a process that can be seen as one in which personal, professional and social development are occurring and one in which development in one aspect cannot proceed unless the other aspect develops as well. Professional development on the other hand is part of teacher development and a process of improving and increasing capabilities of staff through access to education and training opportunities in the workplace, either through external organisations or through observing others perform the job. Professionalism, according to Evans (2002: 130), relates to those elements of the job that constitute knowledge, skills and procedures that teachers use in their work while professionalism relates to the status-related elements of the teacher's work. Evans further contends that professionalism and professionalism as well as the foci of change that relate to each of them must affect what may be regarded as the enhancement of teachers' professionalism and/or professionalism.

Teacher development, according to Evans (2002: 130), incorporates, among other things, change that would generally be categorised as learning, such as learning new ways of working or learning how to apply new processes within one's practice. Tomkinson (1999: 62) maintains that change is omnipresent and stopping or resisting change is in itself change. According to Tomkinson (1999: 63), there are three elements or domains of change, namely:

- *change is the locus of the imperative* which is sometimes internal to the organisation but often a response to changes in the external environment within which the organisation operates;
- *change is compulsory* as government regulations may impose changes on an institution while other changes are taken in response to perceived market pressures;
- *change is either radical or incremental* - the domain of change which is the actual procedure of change impacts upon all other domains of change.

Singh (2011:1626) acknowledges that change continually takes place in educational policy, curriculum and in a school's physical and social environment.

It is therefore imperative that teachers who aspire to be effective in such environment should adapt to these changes. Singh (2011: 1626) argues that continuous professional development of teachers is essential to address the gaps in training that arise through time and change. Change, according to Richards, Gallo & Renandya (2001:41), can refer to many things including knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, understandings, as well as self-awareness and teaching awareness.

Fullan (1994:33) concurs in his assertion that all educational changes of value require new skills, behaviour and beliefs or understanding. Richards *et al.* (2001:41) provide three assumptions about change that underlie current approaches to professional development, namely *"teachers' beliefs play a key role in the process of teacher development; changes in teachers practices are the result of changes in teachers beliefs and the notion that teachers' change is triggered by both personal factors and the professional contexts in which teachers work."* According to Whitworth and Chiu (2014:2), several research studies suggest the existence of a relationship between professional development and teacher change and between teachers and learner achievement. Whitworth and Chiu (2014:3) as well as Desimone (2009:183) provide a few characteristics of effective professional development and teacher change, namely *active learning, strong content focus, coherence, significant duration and involving collective participation*. This assertion agrees with the three learning theories referred to in the following sections. Constructivist theorists propagate for collective collaboration in knowledge construction where learners interact with each other, transforming each other's previously held beliefs and frames of reference while directing learning themselves in line with the principles of adult learning which propagate that adult learners are practical, focusing on the aspects of the lesson most useful to them in their work (Ekey, 2012:2).

This change and acquired development provide them with new skills and knowledge, making them a human capital that is likely to be employable as potential productive labour force. Professional development can support **active learning** of teachers in a number of ways including observing teachers, practising what you learnt and getting feedback, reviewing and analysing student work, participating in discussions and applying new knowledge to lesson plans (Birman *et al.*, 2000:29). Desimone (2009:184) contends that, to support teacher development, teachers should be actively engaged in their own learning and reflect on their own practice and understanding. Professional development that is characterised by a **content focus**, according to Birman *et al.* (2000:29) and Desimone (2009:184), not only leads to increased teacher knowledge but can also lead to changes in teacher practices while professional development that lacks a strong content component is ineffective in changing teacher practices.

Coherence, according to Birman *et al.* (2000:31), indicates the extent to which professional development experiences are part of an integrated program of teacher learning. **Duration** relates to the number of hours of professional development and the amount of time over which teacher development occurs and short, one day workshops, according to Whitworth and Chiu (2014:4), have little effect on teacher growth and understanding while longer professional development tends to be more active learning, content focused and coherent. **Collective participation**, according to Birman *et al.* (2000:30), enables teachers to discuss problems that arise during staff development and further gives teachers an opportunity to integrate what they learnt with other aspects of their instructional content. Teacher development, according to Asghar and Ahmad (2014:151), has different meanings in different contexts, operates from a variety of implicit and explicit beliefs and value bases and is manifested in different forms. Being part of teacher development, professional development therefore aims to maintain professional credentials of individuals such as academic degrees to formal coursework done, attending conferences and workshops as well as informal learning opportunities at the workplace to acquire certain skills, understanding and knowledge. Below follows a discussion of people related issues of teacher development.

It is important that people related issues of teacher development be considered for teacher development to be effective. According to Ekey (2012:3), learning occurs within each individual as a continual process throughout life and people learn at different speeds making it natural for them to be anxious or nervous when faced with the learning situation. The principles of teacher learning and teacher development in section 3.3 detail how teachers and adults learn. Ekey identifies four critical elements of learning that must be addressed to ensure that participants learn, namely motivation, reinforcement (positive or negative attitudes), retention (learning the material well to retain it well) and transference (ability to use the information taught in the course/workshop in a new setting). Furthermore, Van Briesen (2016:15) asserts that, in self-directed learning, learners take initiatives and responsibility for their learning. As such, taking responsibility for their learning, according to Garrison (1997: 19), goes hand in hand with the constructivist learning theory in which participants construct knowledge by engaging with each other in a social interaction situation where frames of reference and previously held beliefs are transformed.

2.2.1 People related issues of teacher development

2.2.1.1 Attitudes of teachers to teacher development activities

According to Omolara and Adebukola (2015:313), an attitude is a mind-set that affects how a person thinks and acts and as such has a potential to influence his/her performance positively and/or negatively. In a research study on teachers' attitudes towards their professional development, Maskit (2011:855) identifies three sets or aspects of attitudes (cognitive, affective and motivational) that teachers acquire at different stages (induction, competency building, enthusiasm and growth, stability, career frustration and career wind-down stages) of their professional development. Analysing data from this attitude, Maskit (2011:857) contends that teachers who were at either the competency building or enthusiasm and growth stage obtained high levels of attitudinal change towards pedagogical changes. On the other hand, teachers who were at the stage of career frustration and career wind down displayed the lowest attitude level towards changes in their teaching styles. Torff and Sessions (2008:128) further maintain that teaching experience is the best prediction of the attitudes of teachers about professional development.

Their study of teachers' attitudes about professional development concluded that teachers' attitudes about their development manifest in three phases, namely increasing, decreasing and levelling out. According to this study (Torff & Sessions, 2008:130), in the first two years of teaching, teachers are more compliant to professional development and in the second phase of their career (from years three) to nine their attitudes about professional development drop. Omolara and Adebukola (2015:131) contend that teachers' attitudes influence students' interest in learning and if a teacher doesn't show interest in a particular subject or learner, he/she will be unable to affect a supportive learning environment. Considering the above previous research results, it is important to understand teachers' attitudes and beliefs in order to implement effective teacher developmental programmes for the improvement of learners' performance.

2.2.1.2 Motivation of teachers

Heystek and Terhoven (2016:630) define motivation as a set of interrelated beliefs and emotions that influences and directs behaviour. Furthermore, according to Heystek and Terhoven (2016), motivation can either be intrinsic or extrinsic as well as rational or motivational. According to Ahl (2006:385), motivation is what energises human behaviour or what directs such behaviour and how it is maintained; a process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained; or the inner needs that cause certain potential behaviour. Ahl (2006:385) argues that various theories that concern motivation and adult learning contend that individuals are naturally motivated to learn but challenges which emanate from a number of barriers (*dispositional, situational and structural*) prove to be impediments. However, when removed, adults will be motivated to educate themselves. Ahl (2006: 390) further argues that these motivating theories see the process of motivating people as a matter of being knowledgeable and as such being capable and conversant with what drives or motivates certain behaviours and, in the process, utilising such knowledge to motivate the desired one. Motivation is intrinsic when it is an individual's willingness to take part or engage in an activity for his/her own sake and extrinsic when participating in it is a means to an end (Heystek & Terhoven, 2016:630).

In South Africa, school principals are subjected to motivation which, according to Heystek and Terhoven (2016), is a combination of both rational motivation (activities that are based on rational basis) and emotional motivation (activities that are based on feelings and emotional activities). The current practice in South African schools about the above assertion is the labelling of schools as either performing or underperforming which is the categorising of schools based on their achievement or non-achievement of the required examination results. One would therefore agitate for positive factors that could motivate teachers to improve their performance through attending teacher development programmes for learner performance improvement.

2.2.1.3 Teacher pedagogical knowledge

Pedagogical content knowledge (the manner in which a teacher reconceptualises his/her content knowledge so that it is understood by learners) together with content knowledge (knowledge of the subject content that has to be taught), general pedagogical knowledge (*knowledge of different teaching strategies*) and context knowledge (*knowledge about the background of learners, knowing the organisational culture of the school*) is one of the four domains of teacher knowledge described in Shulman's model of teacher knowledge (Bertram, 2011:6). Ozdemir, Sahin, Basibuyuk, Erdem & Soylu (2017:410) describe pedagogical content knowledge as knowledge that teachers must possess in addition to content knowledge which will enable them to identify and describe concepts in order for learners to understand concepts taught in the best possible way. Furthermore, it is knowledge that enables them (teachers) to understand mistakes that learners make. According to Ozdemir *et al.* (2017:410), among many components of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), researchers agree that the knowledge of understanding students and the knowledge of instructional strategies are the most common ones. Knowledge of understanding students, according to Ozdeir *et al.* (2017:410), includes the prior knowledge, learning barriers and mistakes of learners on the subject as well as their underlying reasons while knowledge of instructional strategies relates to ways of demonstration and explanation that are used to clarify concepts and ideas, including teachers' knowledge about ways of representation of specific concepts and principles that make teaching easier.

These components, according to Taylan and da Ponte (2016:213), are central to the construct of pedagogical content knowledge as they help teachers to make informed decisions in the complex classroom environments during their interactions with learners.

2.2.1.4 Teachers' content knowledge of the subject

A teacher's content knowledge, according to Ozdemir *et al.* (2017:409), has a significant role in the teaching and learning process. However, such knowledge must also be complemented by an adequate knowledge about how to teach a lesson and how to transmit such to learners, taking into consideration their cognitive levels of understanding (Ozdemir *et al.*, 2017:409).

Ozdemir *et al.* further contend that it is for this reason that researchers have focused on how teachers teach a subject or topic and reflect this content knowledge during the teaching and learning process. According to Depaepe, Torbeyns, Vermersch, Janssens, Jansseu, Kelchtermans, Verschaffel & Dooren (2015:83), content knowledge refers to the amount and the organisation of teachers' knowledge of the subject matter and involves conceptual knowledge, which is knowledge of concepts, principles and definitions and procedural knowledge which is the knowledge of procedures and action sequences. Depaepe *et al.* (2015: 82) concur that, in order to adequately address learners' learning challenges, teachers should possess both appropriate content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. However, Depaepe *et al.* concede that effective teaching is also based on prompt decision-making which includes simultaneously dealing with multiple tasks that range from curriculum related issues (*such as pressure to finish the curriculum*), students related issues (*such as their concerns and learning difficulties*), school related issues (*such as school culture*) as well as parent related issues (*such as parent's expectations*). Lee and See (2014:56) further maintain that, apart from the content knowledge, indications are that the creation of a conducive learning environment also has an added impact on students' achievement.

In this regard, it becomes important for teachers to be developed in both their subject content knowledge and the pedagogical content knowledge in order to be able to achieve high levels of achievement among learners.

2.3 TEACHER DEVELOPMENT: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

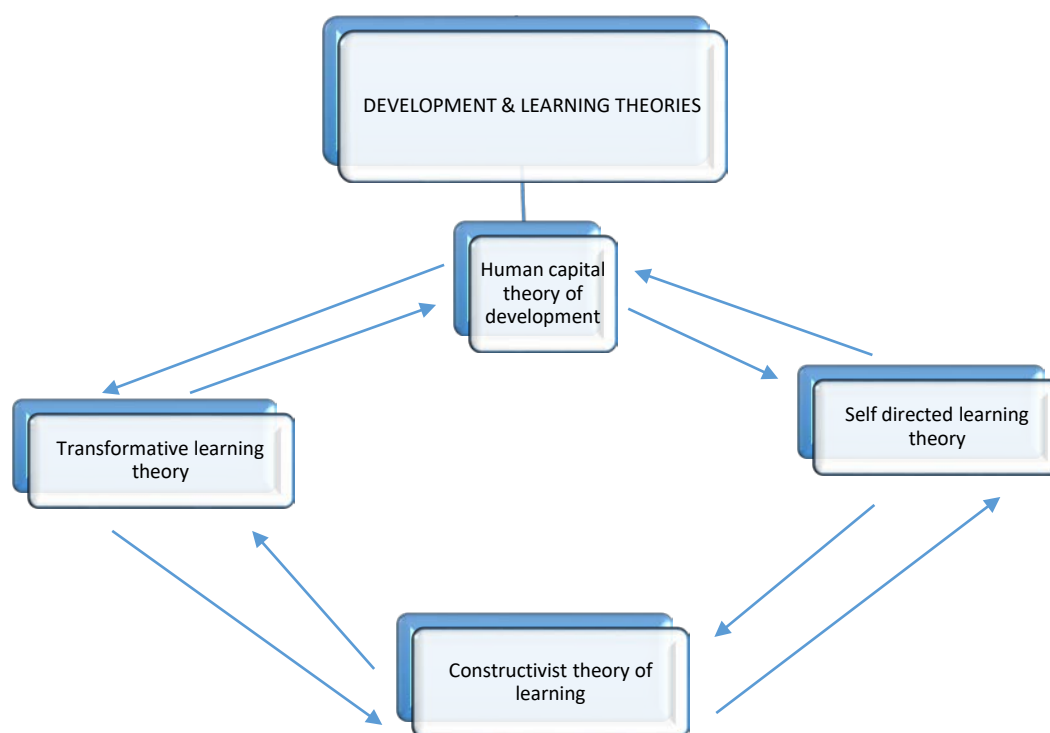


Figure 2. 1: A schematic representation of a theoretical framework

In this section, a theoretical framework of the research study is provided and a brief highlight of how the development theories link and influence learning theories is provided. The rest of the chapter provides a thorough and detailed account of the individual theories as well as their links in greater depth. Development theories, according to Harris (2014: 4), are about understanding how the processes of change in societies take place. They are a collection of theories about how desirable change in society is best achieved. According to Harris (2014:4), development is the series of age-related changes that happen over the course of a life span that follow a series of stages. Learning theories, on the other hand, are an organised set of principles that explain how individuals acquire, retain and recall knowledge in order to change

effectively (The Graduate Student Instructor, 2016:2). We study learning theories to understand better how learning happens. The Graduate Student Instructor (2016: 2) argues that, while there are many different approaches to learning, there are three basic types of learning theories, namely the behaviourists, cognitive constructivists and social constructivists.

The **behaviourists** view knowledge as a repertoire of behavioural responses to environmental stimuli whilst learning is viewed as the passive absorption of a predefined body of knowledge by the learner, promoted by repetition and positive reinforcement. Behaviourists, according to Bandura (1994:5), view motivation as extrinsic and involve positive and negative reinforcement. **Cognitive constructivists**, according to the Graduate Student Instructor (2016:5), view knowledge as an active assimilation and accommodation of new information to existing cognitive structures with an emphasis on self-discovery by learners, while viewing motivation as intrinsic, with learners setting their own goals and motivating themselves to learn. **Social constructivists**, on the other hand, view knowledge as being constructed with social contexts through interactions with a knowledge community, while viewing learning as collaborative assimilation and accommodation of new information. Social constructivists view motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic, with learning goals and motives being determined by both learners and extrinsic rewards that are provided by the knowledge community (The Graduate Instructor, 2016: 6).

Franey (2016: 1) contends that, like all humans, teachers develop throughout their careers as they grow from beginner teacher to experienced teacher as a result of the experiences in the classroom, their professional learning opportunities and other occurrences in their personal lives. Developmental theorists have developed a unique set of teacher development theories to explain such growth patterns. If teachers know where they are in terms of their career development, they will be able to comprehend why they are faced with numerous issues and how to make changes in order to develop further. In this study, teacher development, as seen through the human capital theory, a developmental theory that refers to knowledge, attitudes and skills that are developed and valued primarily for their economically productive potential and three learning theories, namely the constructivist learning theory, the transformative learning

theory and the self-directed learning theory were studied. According to Almendarez (2013: 21), human capital theory rests on the assumption that formal education improves the production capacity of a population and further emphasises the role of education in increasing workers' efficiency and productivity which is an investment in human capital.

As Buta (2015: 155) puts it, human capital is approached from different aspects but most analysts include certain features, among which are education and professional training which is the set of knowledge and skills as well as socio-cultural civic behaviours that are obtained through continuous training, workplace training and other learning practices that include observing behaviours and modelling behaviour as well as learning through reinforcement.

Human capital theory, according to Loo and Rocco (2004: 99), has an ability to address training issues in an abstract and quantitative manner as it predicts that individuals, institutions and government departments will invest in resources whose marginal cost in training equals the marginal benefit. Loo and Rocco (2004: 99) further contend that individual benefits and costs from training may not coincide with organisational benefits and costs, thereby causing diverging interests between organisations and their employees. When this happens (institution being unable to reap sufficient benefits from a training program while the trained employee benefits in terms of increased wages), it may lead to an under investment in training from an efficiency point of view (Loo & Rocco, 2004:99). According to Robeyns (2005: 4), the human capital theory views education as relevant in so far as education creates skills and helps acquire knowledge that serves as an investment in the productivity of human beings as an economic production factor. In the context of people living in severe poverty areas, the acquisition of skills and knowledge through education is very important as having a decent education or basic skill can make a difference between starving and surviving and between merely surviving and having a decent life. The human capital theory, according to Smylie (1996:10), suggests that, to secure school effectiveness, teachers must be able to respond to changes in characteristics, conditions and learning needs of students. They must also be able to develop practices that reflect the expansion of their subject-matter knowledge through

substantial professional autonomy and discretion brought about by self-directed learning. Smylie (1996:10) further contends that theories of adult learning and learning to teach have long been consistent in the perspective that teachers learn best when they are active in their own learning and when learning opportunities are focused on concrete day to day work with learners.

According to Smylie (1996: 10), learning is described as a social-interaction, contextual, constructive, self-regulated and reflective process and as such, a **theory of self-direction in learning** should take this interaction perspective into account. Furthermore, Simons regards learning as a constructive process in which deep processing of information means interacting with people who hold different perspectives. This, according to Garrison (1997: 30), is consistent with the collaborative constructivist view of learning that encourages students to approach learning in a deep and meaningful manner. In the collaborative constructivist perspective, according to Garrison (1997), an individual takes responsibility for constructing meaning while affording others an opportunity to participate in confirming knowledge.

Self-directed learning, according to Garrison (2001: 2), views learners as responsible owners and managers of their own learning process. Basu (2013: 104) contends that, in self-directed learning, the role of a teacher changes to that of facilitator of learning in which learners embark on a variety of learning strategies which include:

- *persuasive communication* as a means of altering or transforming the learner's beliefs and attitudes;
- *peer learning* in which learners construct their own meaning and understanding of what they need to learn through searching for, collecting, analysing and evaluating, integrating and applying information to complete the task;
- *scaffolding* in which helpful interactions between facilitators and learners take place;

- *brainstorming* which reinforces independent thinking and allows learners to bring a variety of ideas;
- *cognitive learning* in which the focus is on the learner's mental processes, perceptions and language acquisition; self-monitoring and self-reinforcement as well as the use of diaries to plan, monitor and evaluate learning and meta-cognitive learning strategies such as direct attention. In constructing knowledge, by the interaction of their existing knowledge, individuals, according to Golding (1995:5), engage in a lifeworld that requires reflective interaction among them reacting to environmental objects and other issues according to the meaning they hold for them. To enhance their skills development, humans learn by constructing and building upon previous knowledge in which the role of the learner is to select and transform information, construct ideas and make decisions while relying on a cognitive structure of learning (Brandon & Anita, 2010:90).

Such cognitive learning, according to De Muynck and Van der Walt (2006: 119), focuses on constructing meaning that is based on the assumption that human beings construct knowledge by the interaction of their existing knowledge and beliefs and new ideas with which they come into contact in a social environment or milieu. In the **constructivist theory** therefore, a learner is believed to construct, through reflection, a personal understanding of relevant structures of meaning he or she derived from his or her action in the world around him or her. Learning through reflection on experience is central to what is referred to by Merizow (1991) as transformative learning.

Transformative learning, according to Bouchard (2017:1), is learning that takes place as a person forms and reforms meaning of his or her life which is, according to Merizow (2000 3), a defining condition of the human experience. Bouchard (2017:1) further contends that transformative learning requires the acquisition of information that upsets prior knowledge and triggers a changing of ideas and perceptions. According to Merizow (1997:5), transformative learning is "the process of effecting change in a frame of reference". Merizow (1997:7) argues that, as people transform

their frames of reference through critical reflection on the assumptions against which their interpretations, beliefs and points of view or habits of mind are based, they make use of the transformative learning theory, the symbolic interaction theory as well as the social learning theory.

According to Merizow (1997:7), transformative learning makes use of learning processes such as:

- *elaborating on an existing point of view* in which learners construct meaning by building on previous knowledge where they select and transform previously held knowledge
- *establishing new points of view* in which learners encounter a new group and create new negative meaning schemes by focusing on their perceived shortcomings, making them imitate or change their behaviour ways; and
- *transforming their points of view through* which an experience in another culture might result in one individual critically reflecting on misconceptions of a particular group and result in an ultimate change in point of view towards the group involved.

2.4 DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

2.4.1 Human capital theory

Baptiste (2001:185) defines human capital as referring to knowledge, attitudes and skills that are developed and valued mainly for their economically productive potential. Baptiste furthermore argues that human capital theory refers to the productive capacities of human beings as income-producing agents in an economy and to the current value of past investments in the skills of people. According to Tan (2014:412), human capital is “productive wealth that is embodied in labour, skills and knowledge”. Gillies (2015:1) maintains that the human capital theory has become one of the powerful underpinnings of educational policy discourse worldwide as it promotes state educational systems as subservient to the knowledge economy which is instrumental for economic growth. White (2017:19) admits that the concept of investment in human capital covers not only graduate education but also undergraduate studies, vocational

training programmes, second language classes, on the job training etc. According to Gillies (2015: 1), the human capital theory presents a central role for teachers as those people who help create and develop human capital.

According to Buta (2015:155), human capital is approached from different aspects, but most analysts include certain features that include learning at the childcare stage and family stage; education and professional training which is the set of knowledge skills, economic, socio-cultural civic behaviours obtained through the investment in initial training and continuous training; workplace training through specific activities such as research and innovation or participation in various associations; informal education at work (on the job) in everyday life and through civic activities; and the volume and structure of household consumption which affect both the demand for education and professional training and the quality of labour supply. Gillies (2015:19) contends that the human capital theory holds that the returns in educational investment are both personal and social with individuals being rewarded financially and the economy being boosted by individuals with human capital. According to Nafukho *et al.* (2004: 545), the fundamental principle underpinning the human capital theory is the belief that “peoples’ learning capacities are of comparable value to other resources involved in the production of goods and services”.

Tan (2014:413) contends that further assumptions of the human capital theory include the *“acquisition of knowledge and skills through education and training; the increase in knowledge and skills will lead to increased productivity in the workplace; the increased productivity in the workplace will bring a higher salary to the individual which is determined by the individual's productivity; and people would invest in education to a point where private benefits from education are equal to the private costs.”* The human capital theory posits that education and training increase human capital which leads to a higher productivity rate which then brings a higher wage for the individual. Almendarez (2013:21) contends that the human capital theory rests on the assumption that formal education improves the production capacity of a population and one of the advantages of applying human capital to the educational system is the enhancement of productivity that is sustained through an increased and diversified labour force. However, White (2019:19) contends that critics of the human capital theory maintain

that the signalling or screening theory of education is the most important challenge for the human capital theory as an explanation of economic returns to education.

White (2019) further argues that critics challenge the notion that education is largely a device to screen out able-person for employers and that only a small part of earnings differentials by education can be attributed to education per se. In fact, White (2019:19) maintains that hiring on the basis of screening is a minor influence in determining earning differentials by education of which the question should be how much of the observed returns to education are due to signalling and how much to human capital. According to Gillies (2015:3), the human capital theory views education in narrow economic terms omitting broader and richer purposes in relation to career development, job satisfaction, enjoyment, status etc.

2.5 LEARNING THEORIES

2.5.1 Self-directed learning theory

Self-directed learning is defined by Knowles (Ellinger, 2004:160) as a “process in which individuals take the initiative with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies as well as evaluating the learning outcomes”. When an individual or group decides that they want to learn certain information, knowledge or skills, they often seek the help of a teacher or professional instructor to tell them how to proceed and to supervise the learning process. However, another alternative for an individual is to assume the primary responsibility for planning, initiating and conducting the learning project. Van Briesen (2016:14) defines self-directed learning as learning in which individuals take initiatives and responsibility for learning, selecting, managing and assessing their own learning activities. According to Garrison (1997:18), self-directed learning is a core theoretical construct that distinguishes adult education as a field of study which is well researched and has an appealing desire to adult learners to be in control of deciding what to learn and how to learn it. Van Briesen (2016:4) concurs as he asserts that, in self-directed learning, learners are free to set their goals and define what is worthwhile to learn while also providing them with scaffolding, mentoring and peer collaboration. When

learners are challenged to take responsibility for their own learning, two dialectic relationships are created (Silen & Uhlin, 2014:463).

According to Silen and Uhlin (2014), one relationship refers to learners' fluctuation between frustration or disorientation and structures they constructed when they must make choices and decisions about their studies. This relationship makes them consider questions such as *what* is to be learned, *how* should it be learned, *why* should it be learned and what are the goals of the learning process. Self-directed learning, according to Garrison (1997:19), is viewed from a "collaborative constructivist" perspective in which the individual takes responsibility for constructing meaning while also including the participation of others to confirm the worthwhile knowledge. According to Merriam (2001:9), self-directed learning aims at developing the learner's capacity to be self-directed; fostering of transformational learning; promoting the emancipatory learning and social action; and, as Ellinger (2004:162) puts it, learners desire to learn specific content or acquire knowledge and skills. Self-directed learners are motivated, persistent, independent, and self-confident and goal oriented.

According to Ekay (2012:2), adult learners need to be free to direct themselves while learning and their teachers must actively involve them in the learning process and only serve as facilitators for them in the learning process. Ekey (2012) furthermore contends that adult learners usually know the goal they want to attain and as a result, they appreciate an organised educational program which is applicable to their work or other responsibilities that will be of value to them. Furthermore, Van Briesen (2016:6) asserts that, in self-directed learning, learners take initiatives and responsibility for their learning. Such taking responsibility for their learning, according to Garrison (1997:19), goes hand in hand with the constructivist learning theory in which participants construct knowledge by engaging with each other in social interaction where frames of reference and previously held beliefs are transformed.

2.5.2 Constructivist learning theory

Scholnik *et al.* (2006:12) as well as Jones and Brader-Araje (2002:2) define the constructivist theory as a theory of learning, not teaching, which posits that learners

learn by constructing their own knowledge through interacting with the environment and reorganising their mental processes.

Basturk (2016: 904) concurs in his contention that the constructivist learning theory views learning as a process in which learners structure their knowledge by changing or rejecting ideas they already have, a notion of interacting through dialogue with each other, as espoused by the symbolic interaction theory. Constructivists argue that knowledge is constructed by individuals through their experience and is not necessarily representative of 'the real world.' The literature identifies two main approaches to constructivism, namely social constructivism and radical constructivism. According to Scholnik *et al.* (2006:12), there are two approaches to constructivism, namely cognitive constructivism (also referred to as personal or radical constructivism) and social constructivism (also referred to as realist constructivism). Social constructivism, according to Kim (2006:2), emphasises the importance of culture and context in understanding what occurs in society and constructing knowledge that is based on this understanding. Liu and Mathews (2005:388) concur in their argument that social or realist constructivists believe that learners are cultured into the learning community and appropriate knowledge that is, once more, based on their existing understanding through their interaction with their immediate learning environment. Thus, according to them, learning is considered to be situation specific. Cognitive constructivists (believed to stem largely from Piaget's work) emphasise the importance of the mind in learning while social constructivism (believed to stem from Vygotsky's work) focuses largely on the role played by the environment and the interaction between learners (Scholnik *et al.*, 2006:12). Cognitive or radical constructivists see knowledge as a not self-sufficient entity which is not directly transmittable from person to person but individually and idiosyncratically construed (Liu & Mathews, 2005:387).

Consequently, cognitive or radical constructivists emphasise learner-centred and discovery-oriented learning processes with the social environment and social interaction working merely as stimulus for individual cognitive conflict. Cognitive or radical constructivists see knowledge as individually and idiosyncratically construed (Liu & Mathews, 2005:387). As a pioneer of cognitive/radical constructivism, Piaget

(Liu & Mathews, 2005:387) introduced the concepts of assimilation, accommodation and disequilibrium to further explain his cognitive constructivism theory.

According to Piaget (Liu & Mathews, 2005:387), all learning is motivated by a desire to maintain a state of equilibrium. When an individual is confronted by information or an experience that contradicts his or her prior knowledge, the learner is motivated to modify or adapt prior knowledge in order to return to equilibrium. Therefore, those things that cause disequilibrium play a critical role in the learning process. "It is often through struggling to resolve the disequilibrium caused by perturbations that one comes to a resolution that deepens and revises one's world-view" (Liu & Mathews, 2005:387). Assimilation occurs when new experiences or information 'fit' into our existing mental structures. In other words, constructivism asserts that our previous experiences serve as the lenses through which we read the world. Therefore, assimilation is largely an unconscious process, one in which we make new experiences fit into what we already know.

Accommodation, on the other hand, takes place in the face of perturbations. When new knowledge or experiences contradict what was previously known, the learner must modify their existing cognitive structures, the new knowledge/experience, or both. According to Proulx (2006:5), "the learner tries to deliberately adapt - or accommodate - what is already known (previous knowledge) to a new experience that interrupts or contradicts established interpretations." In general, the mind tends to assimilate; only when we have to accommodate does learning occur. For Piaget and other constructivists in general, learning is always an active process. The idea that the learners must be active does not imply that they must construct a model physically with their hands, but instead, they develop their structures of knowledge - by reflecting, analysing, questioning themselves and working on problems. Secondly, Piaget's theory highlights the significant role of prior knowledge in the learning process and the implications this has for teaching as well. Students are not blank slates and everything they experience in a classroom is interpreted considering what they already know. As a result, teachers should recognise that learners already possess knowledge and they use that source of knowledge to build new understandings. In his social constructivism theory, Vygotsky focused more heavily on the role of culture, language and social

interaction in the construction of knowledge (Kretchmar, 2015:5) and distinguished between the construction of spontaneous concepts and scientific concepts.

Spontaneous concepts, according to Kretchmar (2015:3), are developed by children during their everyday activities, in the course of everyday life. On the other hand, scientific concepts, argues Kretchmar (2015:3) originate in more formal settings - like the classroom - and represent culturally agreed upon concepts. On their own, children would be unlikely to develop scientific concepts, but with the help of adults and older children, they can master ideas and thought processes that extend their knowledge. The 'space' where children extend their current knowledge with adult assistance has become known as the Zone of Proximal Development. The processes of accommodating new knowledge or adapting what is already known to new knowledge link well with the transformative learning theory as well as the symbolic interaction theory as learners negotiate meaning using objects and symbols to construct knowledge.

2.5.3 Transformative learning theory

Baumgartner (2007: 264) mentions the four lens approach that provides a useful way of thinking about the transformational learning philosophies, including the cognitive-rational approach to transformational learning, the constructivist approach to transformational learning in which learning is created by interpretations and reinterpretations on light of new experiences in what results in perspective transformation and the developmental approach to transformational learning. Baumgartner (2007:264) describes this approach as a mythical procedure during which a mentor guides learners in a learning journey affected by learners' social environment which includes family dynamics and the social class. Merizow (1997:5) describes the transformative learning theory as a process of effecting change in a frame of reference a person holds. Frames of reference, according to Merizow (1997), include cognitive and emotional components of an individual's mind and are in two dimensions, habits of mind (*broad and abstract habitual ways of thinking, feelings and acting that are influenced by assumptions one holds*) and points of view (*complex of feelings, beliefs, judgements and attitudes we have regarding specific individuals and groups*). Frames of reference, according to Merizow (1997:6), are results of cultural

assimilation and idiosyncratic influences of individuals as indicated in the social learning theory.

According to Merizow (1997), effecting change in individual's frames of reference involves continuously changing their points of view through instrumental learning (manipulating or controlling the environment or individuals to enhance efficacy to improve performance), impressionistic learning (enhancing one's impression on others), normative learning (learning oriented to common values and a normative sense of entitlement) and communicative learning (understanding the meaning of what is being communicated and engaging in a discourse through consensus reaching after reaching an understanding of the meaning of an interpretation or justification for a belief). The transformative learning theory relates to how people make meaning of their experiences using frames of references such as mind-sets, habits of mind and meaning perspectives (Cox & Vaughn, 2016:307). According to Cox and Vaughn (2016:307), the process of transformative learning happens when people experience something that does not fit well in the frames of references mentioned earlier, thereby triggering a critical reflection that causes an adjustment or change to previously held frames of references. Transformative learning requires the acquisition of information that upsets prior knowledge and triggers a changing of ideas and perceptions (Davis, 2006:10). The principles of constructivist learning are important to transformative learning because knowledge and meaning are a direct result of experience (Stansberry & Kymes, 2007:488). Constructivism states that meaning is constructed from a person's existing knowledge base and perception of the world. Dirkx (1998:1) argues that the meaning of transformative learning and how it is fostered within formal learning settings varies depending on one's theoretical perspective. Transformative learning, according to Dirkx (1998), reflects a particular vision for adult education and a conceptual framework for understanding how adults learn. Based on this view, Dirkx (1998:2) points out that, what transformative educators do is guided by the views they assume about transformative learning. Such views are embedded in the meaning perspectives individuals have about transformation. According to Dirkx (1998:2), a number of researchers that include Merizow, Daloz, Freire and Boyd hold a number of different "strands" of thought or perspectives within the transformative learning

theory: *transformation as consciousness-raising; transformation as critical reflection; transformation as development and transformation as individuation.*

The transformative learning theory helps us critique our thought processes and our points of view and fields that shaped them and further adds value to other types of organised learning by assisting us to regularly re-assess the validity of our learning and enables us to apply what we learn in unexpected situations (Christie *et al.*, 2015:22). Transformative learning, according to Illeris (2009:92), is a process by which people transform problematic frames of reference (mindsets, habits of mind and meaning perspectives) sets of assumption and expectations to make them more inclusive, open, reflective and economically able to change. Cranton (1994:25) contends that the transformative learning theory is based on constructivist assumptions that underlie Merizow's theory including "a conviction that meaning exists within ourselves rather than in external forms such as books and that personal meanings that we attribute to our experience are acquired and validated through human interaction and communication". Transformative learning is an adult dimension of reason assessment that involves the validation and reformulation of meaning structures.

The transformative learning theory links well with the constructivism theory through the shift of frames of reference which results from the learning discourse. Frames of reference, according to Merizow (1997:6), are results of cultural assimilation and idiosyncratic influences of individuals as indicated in the social learning theory. Transformative learning, according to Illeris (2009: 92), involves: reflecting critically on the source, nature and consequences of relevant assumptions; determining that something is true by using empirical research methods; arriving at more justified beliefs by participating freely and fully in an informed continued discourse; taking action on our transformed perspective – thus making a decision and living what we have come to believe until we encounter new evidence; and acquiring a disposition by becoming more critically reflective of our assumptions and those of others to seek validation of our transformative insights through more freely and fully participating in discourse.

2.6 ADULT LEARNING

2.6.1 The concept of learning

Illeris (2009:7) defines learning as a process that leads to permanent capacity change of individuals through biological maturation or ageing but also through a very extensive and complicated set of learning processes. According to Taylor and Hamdy (2013:1561), learning includes the acquisition of three domains, namely knowledge, skills and attitudes and any theory of learning should account for learning in each of these three domains.

Illeris (2009:13) further distinguishes between four different types of learning which are applied in different contexts resulting in different learning outcomes requiring, in the process, more or less energy. The first is *cumulative or mechanical learning* which is more frequent in the first years of human life but also in special situations where one must learn something with no context of meaning or personal significance. The second is *assimilative or learning by addition* implying that the new learnt theme or matter is added to a scheme or pattern that is already known. The third is *accommodative or transcendent learning* which implies that one breaks down parts of an existing theme or subject matter and transforms it to link with the new knowledge. In accommodative or transcendent learning, one relinquishes and reconstructs knowledge or meaning. The last type of learning, according to Illeris (2009:15), is *expansive, transitional or transformational learning* which relates to personality changes or organisational change that is characterised by simultaneous restructuring of a whole cluster of schemes and patterns in all three dimensions of learning, that is the content of learning; incentives of learning and interaction during the learning process.

2.6.2 The concept of adult learning

According to Kilgore (2001:53), with the increasing inclusion of diverse participants in the dialogue about adult learning, it has become clear that there is no such thing as one kind of learner, one learning goal, one way to learn nor one setting in which learning takes place.

Taylor and Hamdy (2013:1561) contend that, even though people learn in different ways, they run through a process of working out possible solutions or explanations and sort them into probable and less probable on the basis of reflecting on their feedback, experience and knowledge. Furthermore, by understanding the ways in which people learn, adult educators can plan the most effective ways in which to help them learn (Taylor & Hamdy, 2013:1561). Kilgore (2001:53) contends that theoretical perspectives of those who challenge exclusionary models of adult learning often fall within the broad categories of critical and post-modern theory. Merriam (2001:95) contends that there is a prism of theories, ideas, models and frameworks that allow scholars to see the same phenomena of adult learning from different angles. Merriam (2001:95) further contends that a body of research that was developed by Knowles emerged towards the end of the twentieth century and suggested that adults learn differently from children and a term coined for adult learning was “andragogy” as opposed to children’s learning or pedagogy. Merriam (2001:95) also identifies *andragogy* and *self-directed learning* as tried and true angles; *transformational learning*, *informal* and *incidental learning* as more prominent angles while referring to *feminist pedagogy*, *situated cognition* as well as critical and *post-modern theories* as borrowed theories that are applied to the field of adult learning or adult education. Taylor and Hamdy (2013:1563) argue that many principles of adult learning can equally be applied to children’s learning and that it would be more appropriate to think in terms of a lifelong learning continuum with different emphasis, challenges encountered and strategies applied at different times. Taylor and Hamdy (2013:1563) concur with Merriam and provide a number of categories of theories into which adult learning theories can be grouped which include *instrumental learning theories*; *humanistic theories*; *transformative learning theories*; *social theories of learning*, *motivational models as well as reflective models*. It can therefore be said that all adult learning theories have their individual strengths and are each incomplete without the others. Merriam *et al.* (2007:83) contend that, just as there is no single theory that explains all of human learning, there is no single theory that explains adult learning, but frameworks or models that individually contribute to human understanding of adults as learners.

It is for this reason that this study is premised on two groups of theories, namely development theories (human capital theory) and learning theories (self-directed learning theory; constructivist learning theory and transformative learning theory), all of which form the theoretical framework of this research. In order to design appropriate adult learning programmes, the environment or classroom climate, learners' experiences and the relevance of the instruction should be taken into consideration (Finn, 2011:37).

2.6.3 Principles of adult learning

Merriam *et al.* (2007:84) present six principles of adult learning which, according to them, were initially advanced by Knowles in his "new label and new technology" of adult learning that distinguishes it from pre-adult learning.

2.6.3.1 Adults are self-directed

As a person matures, his/her self-concept moves from that of a dependent person toward one of a self-directing person. According to Holyoke (2007:41), adults need to be free to direct their work and to choose learning activities that reflect their interests. Ekey (2012: 2) concurs as she asserts that adults need to be free in order to direct themselves and their teachers must actively involve them in the learning process just as facilitators because adults are autonomous and want to be actively involved in their learning.

2.6.3.2 An adult's readiness to learn

This relates to the developmental tasks of adults' social roles and the ability to see a reason to learn. Holyoke (2007:42) maintains that learning should be applicable to learners' vocation or other responsibilities of great significance to them.

According to Ekey (2012: 2), adult learning must be applicable to their work or other responsibilities that are of value to them.

2.6.3.3 Adults are problem-centred rather than subject centred in learning

According to Holyoke (2007:42), learning needs to be practical and be applied practically in a meaningful context. Bickmore (2011:96) concurs in his assertion that educators, as adult learners, are self-directed, task-centred and problem oriented. Adults, according to Ekey (2012: 2), appreciate an educational programme that is organised and have clearly defined elements, meaning that course goals and objectives must be clearly defined.

2.6.3.4 Adults are intentionally motivated

Adult learners' learning must include an intrinsic value in which they can see personal payoff by acquiring knowledge or skill. According to Bickmore (2011: 96), adult learners are highly motivated by internal rewards that include self-esteem among others.

2.6.3.5 Adults draw from life experience

According to Merriam *et al.* (2007:84), an adult accumulates a reservoir of experience and knowledge, rich in resource, for learning. As adult learners, educators bring a history of previous learning and knowledge in any professional development activity and as such, any effective professional development programme will incorporate and validate such previous experience of adult learners. Adult learners need to connect learning to life experiences and knowledge that they have accumulated and this they can do by drawing out experience that is relevant to the topic (Ekey, 2012: 2).

2.6.3.6 Adults need to know why they need to learn something

Once the benefits of learning are clearer, adults tend to invest considerable time and energy into the learning process. According to Bickmore (2011: 96), adults are motivated by practical applications and learning what is relevant to their classrooms as they tend to be problem-centred. Merriam *et al.* (2007:85) maintain that Knowles saw the above assumptions as the foundations to designing learning programmes for adults.

It is therefore imperative that school management personnel adhere to procedures and regulations that will lead to the successful implementation of professional development programmes of teachers in schools resulting in improved learner and school performance.

2.6.4 Lifelong learning for adult learners

Kocak and Baskan (2012: 5937) define lifelong learning as the approach for the provision of individuals with the all-important basic skills for a lasting quality life in the developing world. On the other hand, Gocer ((2016:200) maintains that lifelong learning involves not only the in-door activities at school but also those out of the formal education and can be regarded as an informal education along with formal education. Jarvis (2000: 123) contends that lifelong learning is about the process of transforming experience into knowledge and skills, thereby resulting in a changed person, one who has grown and developed.

This definition therefore points to the assertion that learning is essential like food and water are to the growth and development of the body, learning is an essential ingredient to the growth and development of the human being, learning is a driving force of humans' lives and enriches human living. Lifelong learning is understood to be a lifelong pursuit of learning that is embedded in our everyday life experiences (Kang, 2007:205). Furthermore, Jarvis (2007:97) argues that learning is lifelong as it occurs whenever people are conscious. It does not need an end, although it frequently does have a purpose. Lifelong learning, according to Rogers (2002:5), emphasises that all learning is embedded learning, meaning that it happens in and from a specific context and affects and shapes that context while at the same time sees adult education as the encouragement and maximisation of learning. According to Jarvis (2007: 97), lifelong learning refers to all learning activities that are undertaken throughout life and aimed at improving knowledge, skills and competencies within a personal, civic and/or employment-related perspective. According to Kang (2007:205), lifelong learning became popular in the nineties in the context of globalisation, aging society and the rise of new information technology.

Rogers (2002:5) argues that lifelong learning came along and sought to change the focus from competitive institutionalised education to lifelong learning and further refocused urgency unto the individual learner instead of the providing institution and emphasised the control of one's own learning programme. National governments around the world use lifelong learning to re-organise their adult education policies with new emphasis on competence, development and job qualification systems (Kang, 2007:205). Rogers (2002:5) maintains that the current discourse of lifelong learning has now been commercialised as discussions around it now focus on economics, accredited vocational training of a special type and on work-related adult learning settings. Jarvis (2007: 97) contends that, because the boundaries that separate education and learning beyond school are no longer recognised and formal education is being forced to accredit learning that happens beyond the educational system, lifelong learning may now be regarded as a combination of human learning and recurrent education.

In our conventional societies, people are constantly urged to return to learning and obtain qualifications and yet some of the institutions which are urging people to return to learning seem to have totally different motives such as to try to sell their wares. Having said this, Jarvis (2007: 127) notes that, as government funding declines, which is by no means enough to cover the cost of the education institutions, it has become important for educational institutions to continue to recruit fee-paying students, thereby changing the ethos of many of these institutions. Lifelong learning assumes value as it is something human beings must engage in if they are to grow and develop and be useful members of society. Learning is a driving force in human living as it is one of the major means by which people become themselves. It is a stimulus that enriches people's lives by making them truly human. It is therefore necessary to ensure that individuals are employable by acquiring the skills and knowledge needed in the world of work. This then links lifelong learning to the human capital theory which posits that, through education and on-the-job-training, economic growth is fostered and labour productivity is improved (Almendarez, 2013:23).

The driving force behind the introduction of lifelong learning as recurrent education, according to Jarvis (2007:126), is that employers demand an educated workforce in order to respond to the demands of the markets for innovation and efficiency. The learning markets, according to Jarvis (2007:132), are not driven by concerns for the learner but concerns for the provider and even the provider's profit and its shareholder's interests. Kang (2007:205) concurs in his assertion that the focus of lifelong learning is more on economic objectives than on humanitarian objectives. According to Kang (2007:206), the discourse of lifelong learning expands the theoretical exploration of adult learning beyond pedagogical applicability and breaks the boundary of education in general, thus opening loose spaces for different metaphors and theories of learning. Furthermore, learning has become an instrument of control that employees can exert as work becomes increasingly knowledge-based and employment-based on the level of educational achievement. However, there is a market value of lifelong learning as can be seen in an economic return on lifelong learning; there is an educational value given to personal learning through the accreditation of both experiential learning as well as accreditation itself which is proof of undertaking a course of study or capability to perform roles as specified in the qualifications which becomes current in the labour market (Jarvis, 2007:133). Day (1999: 2) maintains that teachers are the school's greatest assets that stand at the interface of the transmission of knowledge, skills and values and as a result, will only be able to fulfil such roles if they are both well prepared and able to maintain and improve their contributions to it through career-long learning.

According to Day (1999: 2), continuing career-long teacher development is necessary for all teachers in order to keep abreast with change and review and renew their knowledge, skills and visions for good teaching. Again, this links well with the self-directed learning theory in which teachers construct their own meaning in collaboration with one another in teams and professional learning communities. The Department of Basic Education in South Africa introduced Norms and Standards for Educators (DOE, 2000:47) in which seven roles that teachers must fulfil in the execution of their duties are described.

The Norms and Standards for Educators (DBE, 2000:47) describes these roles and their applied competencies (norms) as well as qualifications (standards) for teacher development. The Norms and Standards for Educators (DBE, 2000: 47) further stipulates that teachers are lifelong learners whom are expected to achieve ongoing personal, academic, occupational and professional growth by undertaking reflective studies in their subjects in broader educational matters and other related fields. It is on this basis that teacher development should be aimed at crafting teachers' teaching skills and knowledge for improved learner performance. Tempe (2011:74) contends that the role concepts and the roles that educators must play are of value to the teaching profession in so far as they ensure that the different dimensions of the teaching profession are considered. The role concepts therefore are concerned with the nature of roles while the roles that educators have to fulfil/indicators specify the substance of each specified role. Hargreaves (1994: 424) identifies what he refers to as 'a post-technocratic' model of professional education in which teacher development is approached from a number of premises which include: meeting teachers' lifelong developmental needs by treating them through continuity and progression; realising continuity and progression through regular assessment of teachers' developmental needs; devising schools' developmental plans from which individual teacher developmental needs flow; and developing professional teacher developmental needs (resulting from individual teacher appraisal processes) that have to be reconciled with school-wide developmental needs that emanate from the school's developmental plan. Developing teachers from rural areas has contextual issues that are different from urban and suburban areas. Howley and Howley (2004: 3) contend that the issue that characterises the rural teacher's circumstances relates to the different structures and dynamic and cultural meanings in the rural areas. These differences circumscribe professional development in rural places. According to Howley and Howley (2004:1), rural school districts have unique challenges in crafting a teaching force that possesses subject matter expertise, willingness to undertake tough professional work at local level and attentiveness to rural practices and cultures. Furthermore, Howley and Howley acknowledge significant strengths of many rural schools from which districts might draw upon to foster high-quality teaching.

Seltzer and Himley (1995:37) observe that, while rural schools have the potential to be a wonderful laboratory for educational innovation and improvement, they are faced with special challenges in providing continued professional development opportunities for their staff such as isolation of teachers and schools, limited staff development resources and availability of a cadre of substitute teachers. Researchers agree that the need to support strong school community connections in rural areas is the most important step in establishing 'a sense of place' for rural teachers and learners (Barter, 2008:471). Such connections, according to Barter (2008), include interactions with local government, businesses, social organisations, families and other rural schools. The importance of the 'sense of place', according to Barter (2008: 472), impacts schools and shapes rural life and as such involves a rootedness in one's community and the desire to cherish and cultivate one's local community.

2.7 SUMMARY

This Chapter provided an understanding of *the human capital theory as a developmental theory as well as transformative learning theory, constructivist learning theory and self-directed learning theory*. Their relatedness to teacher development as well as their links to one another were explained. Particular attention was given to the constructivist learning theory as this research is premised along the constructivist paradigm. Two approaches of the constructivism theory, namely radical constructivism and social constructivism were discussed. In the reviewed literature, all the above-mentioned theories interchangeably and positively address the first four research questions as they emphasise on the importance of environment, culture, social context of teacher development as well as human interaction during the learning discourse. Teacher development in the context of rural primary schools was discussed and so was school improvement as influenced by teachers' improved teaching capacities as a result of their development. The following chapter places more emphasis on establishing a theoretical perspective on structural issues of teacher development in South Africa, as well as national and international trends of teacher development as informed by TIMSS, PIRLS and SACMEQ.

CHAPTER 3: PRINCIPLES OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

McLester (2012:37) contends that despite the dramatic evolution of best practices in student instruction and learning over the past couple of decades new approaches to educator professional development have lagged considerably. Many experts who are involved with transforming professional teacher development, according to McLester (2012), believe that attempt to overcome entrenched practices and attitudes continue to be a challenge to establishing the open environment that welcomes continuous teacher learning. According to De Clercq and Phiri (2013:77), many forms and models of teacher development in South Africa evolve to adapt to changes that occurred over time in teachers' work, professional status and their development needs. De Clercq and Phiri (2013) argue that many post-1994 policies such as the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) were aimed at transforming teachers into professionals with high levels of competencies and knowledge, to show a commitment to learners' achievement and capacitate teachers to reflect on what and on how to teach and improve. Such policies meant that teachers had to learn rapidly to act as high professionals which proved challenging as they had not been trained to do such roles. However, De Clercq and Phiri (2013:80) contend that research by Taylor and Vinjevold (1999) and the Centre for Development and Enterprise (2011) reveal that during the 1990s, disadvantaged teachers lacked serious subject knowledge, professional competencies and commitment to improve their professionalism. In Chapter 3, structural issues to teacher development which include policies and legislation that regulate teacher development as well as principles of learning and teacher development are discussed. Furthermore, national and international trends to teacher development as evidenced by TIMSS, PIRLS and SACMEQ reports are discussed.

3.2 STRUCTURAL ISSUES TO TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

This study identifies a number of policies under whose context teacher development in South Africa is regulated and operates, the Draft Policy on Rural Education (2017); National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (NPFTED); Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD); Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS); Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa and Action Plan to 2019: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2030.

3.2.1 Policies regulating teacher development

3.2.1.1 Draft Policy on Rural Education

Following the recommendations of the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education (2005:17), the Department of Basic Education drafted the Rural Education Draft Policy (2017) which provided for the development of context-specific strategies to deal with the challenges in rural schools and the improvement of the quality of education in rural schools resulting in the creation of strategies and interventions that will improve the quality of education in rural schools (DBE, 2017:8). Such challenges, according to the Department of Basic Education (2017:8) and the then Department of Education (2005: 22), include inadequate resources, teacher shortages, absenteeism, learner dropouts as well as the inequalities between urban and rural schooling particularly about skewed distribution of qualified and highly paid teachers which are mainly in urban areas all of which contribute to poor educational outcomes. Furthermore, other units or structures that were established include the Directorate of Rural Education which was tasked with the process of addressing such inequalities between urban and rural schooling and to create a better understanding of the challenges of schools in rural areas. The Department of Basic Education (2008:8) further concedes that a National Framework for Quality Education in Rural Areas was also formulated with the task of focusing on improving the quality of teaching and learning in rural and farm schools, attracting and retaining learners, planning, restructuring, and improving infrastructure because of the recommendations of the Ministerial Committee Report on Rural Education (2005).

The Department of Basic Education acknowledges that it is finding it difficult to recruit, retain and develop qualified teachers in a rural setting because of several challenges mentioned in previously commissioned reports (Ministerial Committee Report on Rural Education of 2005 and the National Report on the Development of Education - 2008) that include school distances from town; poor infrastructure and poor service delivery.

The Department of Basic Education (2017:18) further proposes incentives for rural schoolteachers that include career progression, teacher development and rural allowances depending on the classification of rural schools. However, these rural incentives were promulgated as far back as 2006 in the ELRC and few provinces implemented them while some currently form part of what teacher unions are still bargaining or negotiating for (ELRC, 2006:2). Monk (2007:166) contends that among many challenges of rural schools is instability in student population which is a result of the comings and goings of migrant farm workers, poverty and the tendency of impoverished families to move from community to community. According to Monk (2007:167), some schools succeed at attracting and retaining teachers whose qualifications are the same as those in other kinds of schools. However, Monk (2007:167) concedes that for many rural schools the quality of life in the community is lacking, working conditions are problematic, student needs are great, and support networks are inadequate. The Department of Basic Education (2017:9) contends that the Draft Policy on Rural Education could be used by the provincial education departments as a framework for the development of policy guidelines and strategies for rural education. One of these strategies, according to Monk (2007:167), is to offer higher salaries and benefits to teachers who will be willing to work hard to staff schools. The Department of Basic Education (2017: 9) contends that the Draft Policy on Rural Education could be used by the provincial education department as a framework for the development of policy guidelines and strategies for rural education. One of these strategies, according to Monk (2007: 167), is to offer higher salaries and benefits to teachers who will be willing to work in “hard to staff school”. According to the DBE (2014: 2), the policy on teacher incentives in South Africa was signed by the Minister of Basic Education in December 2008 but the ELRC never reached any agreement for it to be implemented into law.

However, a number of Provincial Education Departments (PEDs) provide incentives to teachers who are in schools that are further than 30km from the nearest town (EC), public schools on private property (FS), rural schools in quintal 1 (KZN & LP), remote schools in terms of distance (25km) from medical and financial facilities (NW & NC) as well as all farm schools in excess of 20km away from nearest town (WC) (DBE, 2014: 11). It is worth noting that all these PEDs except FS and KZN do not have PELRC agreements for these measures. The DBE (2014: 2) proposed that PEDs should continue implementing the policy for the next three years. In a study that was aimed at determining the effects of rewards and remuneration practices on retention of teachers in the North West Province, Makhuzeni and Barkhuizen (2015: 3) found that lack of performance recognition, poor performance and rewards as well as non-existent performance management system contribute to teacher turnover intentions. The South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU, 2014:2) concurs as they assert that rural schools are confronted with the challenge of teacher retention due to poor working conditions, lack of support from the department and insufficient incentives and rewards which leads to teacher attrition and migration from rural to urban schools. It is therefore imperative that working conditions for rural teachers be improved and as SADTU (2014: 2) recommends the Teacher Incentives Policy be uniformly applied across all the provinces that are identified as rural in order to reduce the high number of teachers concentrated in one province where incentives are higher than the other provinces.

3.2.1.2 The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (NPFTED)

This policy framework generally aims to provide a strategy for recruitment, retention and professional development of teachers (DBE, 2007:1). The policy further aims to ensure that teachers are properly equipped and can enhance their professional competence and performance. The NPFTED (DoE, 2007:23) acknowledges the statutory responsibility of the DoE for funding and planning teacher education and development and acknowledges that different forms of professional support are needed for different kinds of teachers.

The DBE (2017:29) maintains that relevant education departments will pay for compulsory teacher development activities through the Skills Development levy (ETDP SETA) with some self - chosen activities being effective cost-free while others will be paid for by teachers themselves even though provincial bursaries will be available in priority fields of study. While one acknowledges the implementation of these teacher development activities in all three categories (*self-chosen; school initiated and employer initiated programmes either through NGOs/teachers unions/or community sponsored programmes*) the South African Council of Educators (SACE) which co-ordinates teacher development activities, has yet to allocate professional development (PD) points and certificates to Principals and Deputy Principals after the expiry of their three year CPTD cycle in 2016. Furthermore, while provincial education departments do offer bursaries for professional education purposes to current teachers, there are no longer finance incentives for improved qualifications such as salary notch increases other than once-off cash bonuses to educators on Relative Equivalent Qualification Values (REQV) that are below REQV 16. The professional development system in South Africa which is co-ordinated by SACE faces serious challenges of negative teacher attitudes towards CPTD and teacher learning in general. In this research, the researcher investigated teachers' attitudes towards participating in all three SACE endorsed development activities. Palos and Gunaru (2017:461) contend that while the starting point of professional development is motivation, personal relevance of the content and the measure in which teachers find their development needs, values and perspectives in that development activity are the main ingredients of a positive attitude towards development. The teacher's attitude towards continuing education consists of three dimensions – the enjoyment of learning, the perceived importance of education and the intrinsic value of education (Palos & Gunaru, 2017:461).

The researcher further investigated whether teacher development activities were rural school context based as the NPFTED acknowledges that different forms of support are needed for different kinds of teachers.

3.2.1.3 Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD)

Section 53 of the National Policy Framework on Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (DoE, 2007:18) mandated the South African Council of Educators with the overall responsibility for the implementation, management and quality assurance of the CPTD System. According to the then Department of Education (2007), through the CPTD Management System, SACE is further tasked with encouraging and recognising what teachers do on their own to develop themselves and improve learning, what teachers do as part of the school collective to develop themselves and improve teaching and learning; and how teachers take advantage of good quality services provided by employers, unions, professional associations and Higher Education Institution and others in the three SACE endorsed PD activities/programmes. Steyn (2009: 267) argues that the challenge with CPTD is to motivate teachers to commit themselves to their own development and learning. According to the NPFTED (DoE, 2007:20), a teacher who earns the maximum allowable points in a three-year cycle will be given symbolic but visible recognition. Steyn (2009:269) argues that an incentive scheme to reward teachers for implementing their acquired skills and knowledge may have an exceptional motivational value. However, in South Africa, Principals and Deputy Principals who completed their three-year cycle of continuing professional development in 2016 have yet to receive their Professional Development points which would culminate into the promised symbolic but visible token of recognition. Furthermore, punitive measures, such as possible accounting to SACE should one not achieve the minimum number of PD points over two successive cycles over three years (DoE, 2007:20), may not persuade teachers to update their knowledge and skills. In this research, the researcher investigated if principals and other senior school personnel do motivate teachers to embark on teacher initiated, school initiated, and employer initiated professional development activities.

3.2.1.4 Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS)

The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) which was promulgated through the ELRC Resolution 8 of 2003 (ELRC, 2003:4) was aimed among other things at providing support and opportunities for development of teachers to assure their continued growth.

IQMS was further aimed at enhancing and monitoring the performance of schools and educators. The Center for Development and Enterprise (2015:5) notes that while the purpose of IQMS was also to determine teacher competence, assess strengths and areas for development its implementation was hampered by a series of factors which included among others the inadequate leadership by principals and teachers' resistance to the process.

In this study, the researcher investigated the roles of the departmental heads and school principals in motivating teachers to embark on developmental activities as informed by their identified developmental needs. According to Steyn (2009:268), educational managers, as quality leaders, should be involved in the learning process through reflecting on teaching and learning practice and getting evidence that the Professional Development (PD) of teachers does take place. Furthermore, Steyn agitates for transformational leadership, which contains a dimension of charismatic leadership. Transformational leadership, according to Steyn (2009:268), aims to nurture Professional Development, encourages staff to strive for higher levels of commitment to school goals while charismatic leadership appeals for leaders to have a profound influence on their followers. With these leadership styles (transformational and charismatic leadership styles) principals create collegial relationships with their staff members and appreciate the value of working and caring for each other. Steyn (2009:269) argues that principals can provide individualised support to their subordinates through motivational, supportive style of leadership which could be coupled with respect for teachers, concern about their personal feelings and needs.

3.2.1.5 Action Plan to 2019: Towards the realisation of Schooling 2030

Goal 16 of the plan (DBE, 2015: 34), teacher capacity and professionalism, aims to improve the professionalism, teaching skills, subject knowledge and computer literacy of teachers throughout their entire careers. This is one of the five priority goals of the Action Plan to 2019 which deals with how the outputs are to be achieved. The DBE (2015: 34) argues that knowing which teachers have the strongest need for further professional development with a school is a prerequisite for effective teacher development programmes.

The DBE (2015: 34) maintains that it has taken concrete steps to improve access to professional teacher development programmes for teachers among which are agreements signed between the DBE, provincial education departments and all major teacher unions for them to be more involved in in-service training. The DBE (2015: 35) has set a number of priorities in balancing professional development that is aimed at improving the capacity of teachers as well as accountability system one of which is the establishment of professional learning communities (PLCs); Provincial and District Teacher Development Centres. Furthermore, the Presidency's National Planning Commission (RSA, 2011: 265) contends that teachers must have a good knowledge of the subjects they teach and structures such as South African Council for Educators and other subject-specific associations should play a leading role in the continuing development of teachers and the promotion of their professional standards.

3.2.1.6 Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025

This planning framework is aimed at improving the quality of teacher education and development in order to improve the quality of teachers and teaching. This, according to the Department of Basic Education and Higher Education and Training (2011: 4), will only be achieved through three outputs one of which is, identification of teacher development needs by DBE. The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (DBE, 2011: 4) propagates for the establishment of a National Institute for Curriculum and Professional Development (NICPD) in order to develop and manage a system through which the development needs of individual teachers can be identified and addressed. The DBE further plans to establish provincial and district teacher development centres in order to ensure that the support given to teachers and their access to professional development opportunities is enhanced at local level. The Department of Basic Education (2014: 3) acknowledges that for effective teacher development programmes to ensue schools need to identify development needs of their teachers.

The processes of IQMS are currently collecting such developmental needs of teachers through Educator Improvement Plans (EIPs) and School Improvement Plans (SIPs) even though there has been lots of criticism of the developmental role and scientism around the IQMS developmental process.

3.2.2 Time available for teacher development activities

According to the National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (NEEDU) (2018:1), managing teaching time tightly to ensure that every minute counts is a normal practice in high performing schools or schools that work.

Furthermore, NEEDU contends that time spent on non-instructional issues accounts for 30 percent of a 200-day school year in many schools of which in some that figure climbs beyond 40 percent. The Personnel Administration Measures (RSA, 2016:8) prescribes that all teachers should be at school during the formal school day for a period which should not be less than 7 hours per day, except for special reasons and with the prior permission of the principal. According to the PAM document (RSA, 2016: 18), “all teachers may be required by the employer to attend programmes for ongoing professional development up to a maximum of 80hours per annum” and “these programmes must be conducted outside the formal school day or during vacations”. Mosoge (2017: 16) argues that in some schools, teachers can attend teacher development activities while the remaining ones attend to their learners. However, those who remain do not teach for those who are absent but only teach their own subjects. In schools that work (NEEDU, 2018: 3) teachers establish collective staff time using three broad approaches – adding time by extending the school day in the morning or afternoon for teacher development; extracting time from existing schedules and doing block scheduling in which teachers remain behind on certain days and plan what they are going to teach activities for classwork exercises and homework activities. Clay and Wiston (2018: 4) agree as they suggest “scheduling teacher non-content periods for subject departments and phase teams; scheduling similar classes together so that teachers see each other’s lessons and engage in joint planning and assessment as well as sitting learners together if there are common tests or assessments with the view to free up other teachers”.

De Clercq and Shalem (2014: 1) argue that professional development activities should be focused on ways of teaching that improve learners' learning. In their analysis of employer-driven professional development activities (PDA), De Clercq and Shalem (2014) focused on PDA provided by the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) which were in three-fold curriculum workshops; district-based ad-hoc training courses and cluster workshops which took place outside school hours at district level. In their study about professional development and teacher learning venues, Isarbirye and Moloi (2016: 54) argued that teacher development trainees not only require enough time to execute given activities during training but also require the training programme to be presented over a long period. Furthermore, it is important for trainers to establish needed time to accomplish each of the activities and the programme as a whole. The Department of Basic Education and Higher Education and Training (2011:20) argues that scheduled time for school-based teacher development could utilise the immediate pre-and post-term periods to minimise the loss of teaching time which is in line with the prescriptions of the PAM document (2016:7). NEEDU (2018:2) maintain that high performing schools do not have more time than other schools but employ an integrated series of practices in order to maximise the use of that time. Therefore, planning and preparation meetings should be held before the term begins during school holidays and performance evaluations or analysis meetings should be held after the end of the term again during school holidays. Furthermore, the Department of Basic Education and Higher Education and Training (2011:20) contends that scheduled time for school-based teacher development could also be integrated into the school timetable by adjusting the schooling week.

The Department of Basic Education and Higher Education and Training (2011:20) contends that for teachers to engage in pedagogically and content-rich short courses or qualifications time could include formal study leave to qualifying educators accompanied by the appointment of substitute teachers as well as establishing relationships between schools during student-teacher teaching practice sessions or work integrated learning (WIL). Paragraph H.12.1 of the Personnel Administration Measures (2016:194) grants special leave for study purposes to teachers who wish to register for study an approved course of study and for a period approved by the employer, on condition as approved by the employer.

One would agree with the contention of the Department of Basic Education and Higher Education and Training (2011) and Personnel Administration Measures (2016) for study leave to qualifying teachers as the researcher also is on approved study leave.

3.2.3 Resources and funds available to conduct teacher development

According to Villegas-Reimers (2003: 126), funding for teacher development seems to be one of the main barriers to teachers' professional growth worldwide. Kedzior and Fifield (2004:5) concur as they assert that given the high costs of teacher high quality development schools should invest in a "core community of teacher leaders who are willing to share their learning with others". In the USA, according to Villegas- Reimers (2003:128) districts fund the costs of teacher development but where there is a "budget crunch" individual teachers absorb the costs. Upon searching several databases such as EBsourt, Google Scholar and others, the researcher could not find any research conducted on funding teacher development in rural South African primary schools except higher education funding. An example of lack of funding for poverty stricken schools is an account of an analysis of the professional development activities (PDA) of Gauteng schools by De Clercq and Shalem (2014: 2) in which they concluded that neighbouring schools' cluster workshops had to be terminated because of lack of funds to hire expert facilitators. Most researchers, including South African researchers such as Wangenge-Ouma (2012) and Essack, Lingah, Mashige, Mtshali, Naidoo, Naidoo, Oosthuizen, Pillay and Suleman (2010) are more interested in teacher development funding that focuses on higher education than rural primary education. In terms of the National Norms and Standards for School Funding (RSA, 2014: 4), the no fee threshold will be R1 059 in 2014, R1 116 in 2015 and R1 175 in 2016 (schools in quintal 1 – 3) while in small schools the national fixed amount will be R24 519 in 2014, R25 843 in 2015 and R27 213 in 2016. In the post-Apartheid South Africa, education budgets have increased fund allocations to provinces with large rural communities as compared to wealthier provinces (DBE, 2005: 22). According to the National Norms and Standards for School Funding (RSA, 2004:8) the South African government is of the view that to deal with the country's history of inequality schools that are in or near poor communities must receive the highest school allocations.

However, the South African government acknowledges that there are instances where government must pay a better school allocation to a school in a non-poor area because of the circumstances of the learners. Section 95 of the NPFTED contends that relevant education departments will pay for compulsory development activities of teachers through the Skills Development levy while some self-chosen activities may be cost-free to the teacher as others will be paid for by teachers themselves notwithstanding the fact that a number of provincial bursaries will be available in priority fields of study. However, according to the Ministerial Committee Report on Rural Education (DBE, 2005:22), it will not be easy to attain equity using the current models of determining provincial and intra-provincial allocations to schools as personnel budgets remain high while expenditure levels on non-personnel and development issues is constrained. The DBE (2005:22) further contend that the uneven distribution of qualified teachers who mainly service urban areas is one source of inequitable distribution of state funds. Teacher development that seeks to assist and support teachers to take charge of their practice in their endeavours to embark on an ongoing developmental process of inquiry into more effective classroom practices must overcome several barriers to charge including the above mentioned. It is therefore evident from the above discussion and statistics about government allocation to schools that rural schools are not properly funded which might have a negative impact on planning teacher development activities among other things.

3.2.4 Physical space of teacher development activities

Borko (2004:7) argues that the contexts and activities in which people learn become a fundamental part of what they learn. This, according to Borko (2004), suggests that teachers' classrooms are powerful contexts for their learning and this does not imply that professional development activities should occur only in classrooms. Furthermore, Section 6 (4a) of the Skills Development Act 85 of 1998 encourages employers to use the workplace as an active learning environment and to provide employees with opportunities to acquire new skills (RSA, 1998b: 2). However, Steyn (2011: 16) contends that schools' circumstances and available resources differ and that each training programme may need to select the most suitable venue as the "one size fits all" approach may be inappropriate and ineffective.

Isarbirye and Moloi (2016: 52) talk about the lived space experience (spatiality) of teachers who undertake teacher development and describe it as experience that entails teachers' movement to the institution's training centres, their experience of being trained, their interaction with fellow trainees, the training resources and their interaction with the physical space that is provided by the institution. According to Isarbirye and Moloi (2016: 52), physical space should have proper furnisher, media, lighting and air conditioning. Clarke and Stevens (2006: 14) further assert that rural communities expect teachers to understand and to relate to rural life, to live in the community and participate in local organisations and act as role models while maintaining an appropriate standard of behaviour professionally and socially. A rural community can be seen from this perspective as a special realm that is imbued with certain understandings of behavioural appropriateness and cultural expectations that confines one to a set of allowed behaviours; controls that include the capacity of individuals to gain access, utilise, influence and establish ownership or attach meaning to space; a sense of individual or group identity that emerges from common territorial habits, knowledge and experiences; trusting people who live in the same neighbourhood and place attachments or bonding to environmental settings as a result of interpersonal, community and cultural relationships. According to Naidoo (2001:14), lack of access to learning venues and lack of access to connectivity and learning technologies within venues remains a major constraint in developing countries. In this regard, one must look at the implications of the spatial and social construction of such venues for learning where trainees can access information in addition to that provided by the trainer as well as the role of the trainer in the context of the different learning venues and environments.

3.3 HOW AND WHY DO TEACHERS LEARN

Learning is defined as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience where such knowledge is a result of a combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb & Kolb, 2008: 44). According to Doug (2012: 135), actions by or about learners (concrete experience) generate data (observation) from which metrics (abstract conceptualisation) are derived, which are used to guide an intervention (active experimentation).

According to the experimental learning theory, grasping experience entails two dialectically related modes of learning – concrete experience and abstract conceptualisation while transforming experience entails two other dialectically related modes of learning – reflective observation and active experimentation. Mainemelis, Boyatzis & Kolb (2002: 5) argue that these learning styles are determined by an individual's choice of resolving these dialectics and represent specialised but limited ways of learning. Experiential learning, according to Kolb and Kolb (2008: 44), is the idealised spiral in which the learner 'touches all the bases' experiencing, reflecting and acting in response to the learning situation and what is being learned (see Figure 3.1).

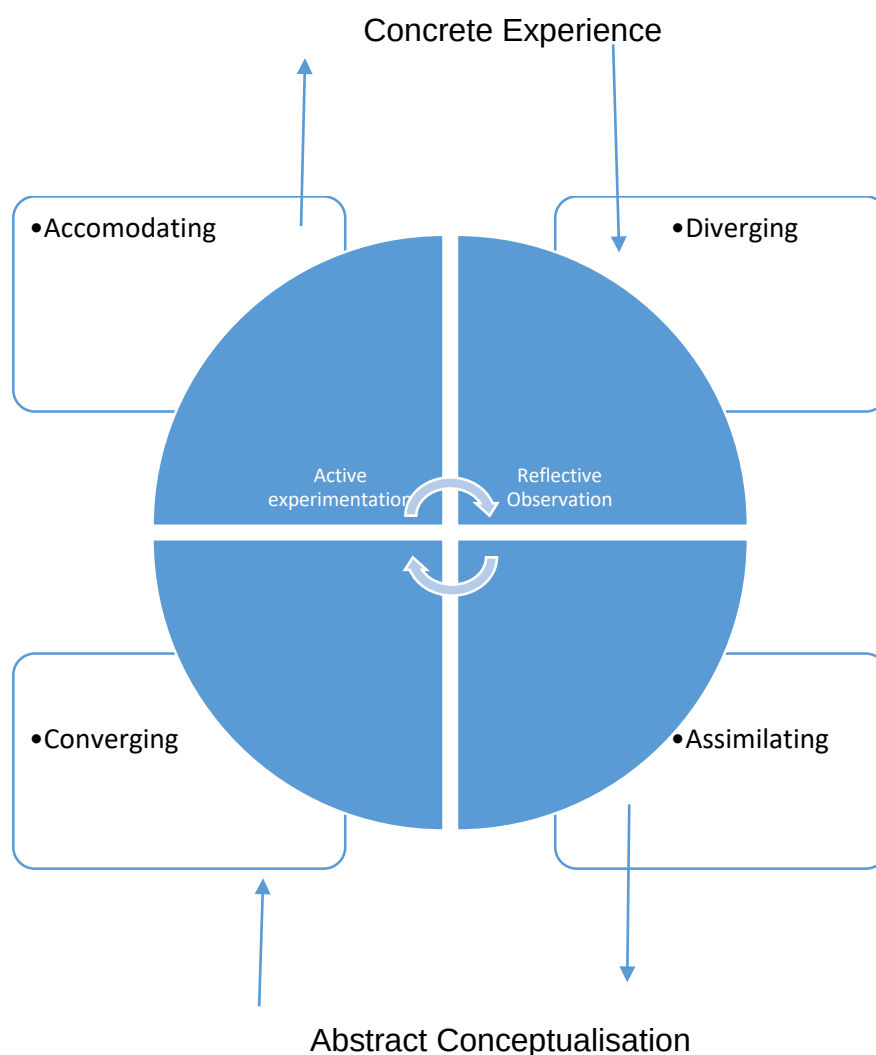


Figure 3. 1: Experiential Learning Source: Adapted from Kolb and Kolb (2008: 44)

Mckay and Kember (1997: 4) identify two categories of teacher learning – the surface learning and deep learning. Surface learning, according to these authors, is concerned with implementing actions that will make change with minimal effort while deep learning focuses on gaining understanding which modify both practice and underlying values. An example of a surface learning might be when a teacher requests a colleague to help him or her to address a discipline problem he has with his/her learners or assistance to teach a certain topic.

Wheeler (2017: 9) refers to such learning as single loop learning in which people develop theories or strategies to deal with problems or challenges wherever they arise by making use of rules or their experiences and this becomes a routine way of dealing with change, decision making and daily challenges. On the other hand, Wheeler (2017: 10) argues that sometimes people learn to examine the problem or challenges from a different angle questioning the rule (governing variable) and attempt to make changes that are more holistic and wide-ranging than merely solving the problem itself as in single loop learning or surface learning. This, according to Wheeler, is double loop learning which is an educational concept and process that involves teaching people to think more deeply about their own assumptions and beliefs. According to Blackman, Connelly & Henderson (2014: 17), double loop learning occurs when error is detected and solutions to it developed in ways that involve modifications of an organisation's norms and objections. Lack of change prevents organisations from learning from their errors and often leads to failure while double loop learning promotes inquiry, challenging current assumptions and actions leading ultimately to new theories. Cochrane–Smith and Lytle (1999: 1) identify three conceptions about teacher learning – knowledge for practice; knowing in practice and knowledge of practice. **Knowledge for practice** hinges on the idea that knowing more (subject–matter, instructional theory, educational theory or more pedagogy) leads to more effective practice. Professionally developed and skilled teachers, according to Cochrane–Smith and Lytle (1999), have deep knowledge of the content areas and effective teaching strategies to create conducive learning opportunities for learners. Knowledge for practice assumes that teachers play an important role in educational change because of the knowledge they have acquired through their continuing professional development.

Knowledge for practice, according to Cochrane–Smith and Lytle (1999), is based on the assumption that knowledge that teachers need to teach emanates from systematic inquiries about teaching, learning and learners, subject matter and curriculum as well as schools and schooling. **Knowledge in practice** puts an emphasis for teacher knowledge on knowledge in action, which is teachers' practical inquiries, knowledge in teachers' reflections on practice and knowledge in teachers' narrative accounts of practice.

Cochrane–Smith and Lytle (1999) argue that knowledge in practice assumes that teaching is an uncertain and spontaneous craft which develops in response to everyday classroom situation and that the knowledge that teachers need to teach is embedded in the practice of exemplary teachers. **Knowledge of practice** regards knowledge generation and knowledge use as inherently problematic. It questions how knowledge is generated, who generates it and what is regarded as knowledge and by whom.

3.3.1 Principles of teacher learning

Improving teacher professional learning is a crucial step leading to school transformation and improved learner achievement. In order to achieve this target, Hirsh (2009: ii) argues that teachers' skills and knowledge must be bolstered in order to ensure that each teacher is able to teach increasingly diverse learners, is knowledgeable about their learning, is competent in complex core academic content and skilful at the craft of teaching.

Darling-Hammond, Andre, Richardson, Orphanos & Wei (2009:1) argue that teachers need to learn in order to change, they need to change in order to achieve different results and they must become learners and be self-developing. Learning by changing, according to Lieberman (1995: 68), is both personal and professional, individual and collective, inquiry based and technical. According to Lieberman (1995: 68), some organisational and pedagogical changes in schools that have found the power and importance of professional development put new and experienced teachers together to learn from one another, create common periods to plan, use staff expertise to lead in-school workshops or meetings and have teams that encourage constant learning.

De Monte (2013: 6) maintains that high-quality professional learning opportunities for teachers are “aligned to school goals; focus on core content; include opportunities for active learning; provide opportunities for teacher collaboration and include follow-ups and continuous feedback. For effective and substantial change to occur, Darling-Hammond *et al.* (2009: 6) contend that curriculum, assessment, standards and professional learning should be linked in order to avoid disjuncture between what teachers learn in professional development and what they are able to implement in their classrooms and schools.

In line with the views of constructivist theory (Olusegun, 2015: 66) which describe learning as a process of actively constructing knowledge, teachers have a responsibility to create environments and plan experiences that foster inquiry. Researchers (Moss, 2006; Olusegun, 2015 and Hill 2004) provide a number of principles of learning and below is a discussion of some of such principles.

3.3.1.1 Learning is influenced by the environment, culture and climate

If learning is a process of actively constructing knowledge, as espoused by the constructivist theory, according to Olusegun (2015: 66), teachers have a responsibility to create environments that foster inquiry, questioning, predicting, exploring, collecting and communicating and plan experiences that build on learners’ prior knowledge while respecting and supporting learners’ cultural and social identity. According to Kaplan (2014b: 6), through teacher modelling and classroom strategies that are based on cooperation and mutual support an environment is created where learners feel comfortable to pursue inquiries and express themselves. Teachers should build positive relationships through knowing and valuing each learner by providing support for learners through mentoring and pastoral roles and organising extra activities in order to build relationships around multiple aspects of learners’ lives. In well created learning environments, teachers promote a culture of value and respect for individuals and their communities and teachers should demonstrate that by accepting the opinions and values on which learners’ comments are based and embracing differences instead of insisting that learners should conform (Hill: 2004: 22).

Thus, it would be incorrect if class discussions were to be restricted and learners' opinions not acknowledged to any significant point. It would also not be correct if teachers were to make judgements about learners based on generalisations that relate to their social or cultural background.

3.3.1.2 Learning is about making connections

People learn by activating and constructing networks of related concepts which is a process that is facilitated by constant interaction with others, internalising concepts and testing their knowledge against such networks of related concepts. According to Anon (2012: 2), learners need to view learning as an integrated whole and teachers need to plan opportunities to help them make connections across the curriculum and with the world outside and structure activities that require learners to reflect on those connections. For this reason, teachers should structure opportunities for learners to engage in diverse social interactions with peers and adults. Hill (2014:24) argues that principals should encourage teachers to present the core concepts of the subject matter and create an environment in which learners internalise concepts and test their knowledge against them. Mardse (2000: 1) maintains that, during the learning process, all learners are taught rigorous curriculum that is matched to standards or levels along with much time and expect instruction as they need to meet or exceed expectations. Teachers should provide learners with opportunities for learner competencies and potential to be displayed. This can be done by using learners 'personal interests and social concerns as context of topics or link them with social relevance of learning. It would be incorrect if teachers were to focus on informal knowledge with few connections being made to daily life applications and also if knowledge were to be presented in a sequence that represents structured view of the material instead of connections that might be created with learner interests and prior knowledge.

3.3.1.3 Learning is enhanced when it takes place in a collaborative environment

Learning is enhanced when learners understand and accept the conventions that structure their social interactions in the classroom. Kaplan (2014a: 4) argues that teachers should ensure that group work and collaborative ventures are central to class activities in which learners have frequent opportunities to learn from and with others.

Furthermore, Hill (2014:5) maintains that training facilitators or principals should seek opportunities to promote co-operative learning and use strategies such as peer and cross-age tutoring which have been shown to exert a powerful impact on learning. Teachers should encourage and support learners to take responsibility for their learning by providing them with opportunities to make individual and collaborative decisions about how they will undertake their learning tasks.

3.3.1.4 Learners must see themselves as capable and successful

Hill (2014: 12) argues that students who believe in their ability to learn and who feel good about themselves as learners make more progress than those who doubt their abilities. Learners must see themselves as capable and successful. The principal should promote a culture in which learners believe in the capacity to succeed as learners and in which positive reinforcements are given for achievement as opposed to punishments for failure to learn. Motivation strongly impacts the time and effort people will commit to learning and is higher when learners know the usefulness of what they are learning. The University of Pittsburg (2000:6) concurs in its argument that clear recognition of authentic accomplishment is a hallmark of an effort-based school. This recognition can take the form of celebrations for work that meets standards or progress benchmarks to the accepted standards. Learners' work should therefore not be assessed against general classroom criteria but against prior achievements of individual learners and their achievements should not be ranked by academic performance only.

3.3.1.5 Learning should support learners in order to develop deep level of thinking and application

Moss (2006: 9) argues that in learning environments that reflect the challenging and supporting of the learning environment teachers should promote substantive discussion of ideas and they should employ strategies that challenge and support learners to question and reflect and those that develop investigating and problem-solving skills. Olusegun (2015: 68) contends that constructivist learning environments provide experience with the knowledge construction process, embed learning in social experience and realistic contexts.

Furthermore, Anon (2012: 2) argues that teaching must engage learners in active reasoning about thinking and problem solving and learners will learn such concepts or abilities when they are infused in the curriculum. According to Kaplan (2014a:1), learning is enhanced when it takes place in a social and collaborative environment in which teachers assist learners to see themselves as members of a community of learners while also recognising each learner's preferred ways of constructing meaning and provide opportunities for exploring alternative ways.

Learners therefore should be expected to raise questions, solve problems, to think and reason while also being subjected to challenging and high-level subjects in order to construct explanations and justify their arguments where instruction is organised to support reflection on learning processes in each subject. It would therefore be wrong if learners' attempts at problem solving activities were to be responded to judgementally instead of providing them with opportunities for further learning.

3.3.2 Principles of teacher development

According to Kaplan (2014: 6), various reviews into teacher learning have centred on the impact of continuous professional teacher development (CPTD) on students' learning through enhancing teacher learning and have found that developing teachers' skills and abilities to teach well made a significant difference to students' progress/performance and improved learning outcomes. Concurring with Cochrane-Smith and Lytle (1999: 1) as referred to in Section 3.3, O'Sullivan and Deglau (2006: 444) contend that the central focus of continuous professional teacher development would differ depending on the view of teacher learning that is foregrounded by CPTD facilitators, either as teacher learning which is viewed as "*knowledge for practice*" which posits that knowing more about the subject matter, pedagogy and educational theory leads directly to improved practice, or teacher learning which is viewed "*as knowledge in practice*" which considers teachers' practical knowledge as central to teaching or teacher learning which is viewed as "*knowledge of practice*" which involves the assumption that "knowledge teachers need to teach well emanates from systematic inquiries about teaching, learning learners and learning subject matter and curriculum, and schools and schooling.

Below follows a core set of principles that characterise effective teacher development programmes (Gulamhussein, 2013; Hunzicker, 2010; Kaplan, 2014; Hayes, 1995 and De Monte, 2013).

3.3.2.1 Sustained, regular and on-going teacher development activities

De Monte (2013: 7) maintains that effective professional development of teachers is ongoing and involves a combination of contact hours, duration and coherence. Furthermore, De Monte notes that research indicates that the more time teachers spend engaged in professional development the more likely their teaching practice would improve. The Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) document (RSA, 2016: 18) referred to in section 3.2.2 further suggest that “all employees may be required by their employers to attend programmes for on-going professional development up to a maximum of 80hours per annum”. Research indicates that in subjects in which teachers spend more than 80hours per annum in professional development activities there is improved learner performance. However, in South Africa, there is no policy that prescribes specific time to be spent on teacher development programmes per annum except the above stipulation which would depend on whether the employer does make that requirement as contained in the PAM document. Furthermore, the Presidency’s National Development Commission (RSA, 2011: 267) predicts that by 2030 the duration of hours spent on teacher development activities could improve to 80hours and beyond. Kaplan (2014b: 7) notes that there is consensus in the literature that the once off sessions and short courses are ineffective in creating necessary conditions for deep and lasting changes in teacher cognition and performance. When such short programmes of professional development are replaced by longer-term designs, there is a greater chance that teachers will improve their instruction (De Monte, 2013: 7).

3.3.2.2 Collaboration among teachers for improved teaching

Effective professional development for teachers, according to Hunzicker (2010: 6), is collaborative as it emphasises active and interactive learning experiences often through participation in learning communities.

Professional learning communities, according to DBE (2015: 14), are “communities that provide the setting and support for groups of classroom teachers, school managers and subject advisors to participate collectively in determining their own developmental trajectories and to set up activities that will drive their development”. Lack of opportunities to learn from colleagues in settings where there is a structure and protocol for revealing excellent teaching practices and having a group of professionals discussing and learning from them is one of many challenges facing teachers (De Monte, 2013: 8).

According to Hunzicker (2010: 6), research shows that teachers value opportunities to learn from and with one another towards common goals such as lesson planning, analysing student work and peer observation. However, there are still teachers who still prefer the autonomy and isolation of their classroom by embarking on planning alone and being embarrassed to teach while others are observing them. Professional learning communities, according to DBE (2015: 5), are characterised by mutual trust and respect, collaborative and reflective enquiry, inclusive membership, shared vision and focus on learning for all learners as well as collective responsibility for student learning. Kaplan (2014a: 1) propagate for teacher development that encourages collaboration and positive working relationships which support teacher learning while also creating positive work environments. Furthermore, Kaplan (2014a) admits that teachers are more likely to enjoy their work when there is collaboration and opportunities for teachers to solve problems together. It therefore remains the role of the school principal to continuously promote the notion of a shared vision of the school, to nurture work relationships so that there is collegiality and mutual trust among his/her staff members for collaboration to ensue and professional learning communities to be established.

3.3.2.3 Job-embedded learning opportunities

Richards, *et al* (2018: 8) contend that effective continuous professional teacher development involves a classroom-based focus on teaching practice, denoting teaching through doing and tackling real issues and developing practical solutions.

According to Hunzicker (2010: 4), teachers regard professional development to be relevant if it directly addresses their specific needs and concerns or if they see a connection between a learning experience and their daily responsibilities. Furthermore, Hunzicker argues that professional development within the context of the school as in mentoring, study groups, subject cluster teachers and coaching promotes active learning and builds coherence more than traditional venues. Professional development, according to De Monte (2013: 7), is job-embedded when it is “grounded in day to day teaching practice; is integrated into the work day; is intended to improve student learning and is directly connected to learning and application in daily practices.

Job-embedded professional development engages teachers in learning through their daily activities and responsibilities such as when a teacher is working with a teaching coach to plan and execute a lesson, when a group of teachers meet to analyse student test scores and discuss ways of changing their instruction (Hunzicker, 2010: 4 and De Monte, 2013: 5). Kaplan (2014b: 5) suggests that, in order to get the most out of your professional development investment, teachers should look for options that include modelling and that also provide implementation, support and job-embedded learning. Modelling (which is when an expert demonstrates a new practice) according to Gulamhussein (2013: 19), is reported to be successful in helping teachers understand and apply a concept and remain open in adopting it such as when a master teacher teaches a class using inquiry methodology while being observed by a teacher who is learning this skill.

3.3.2.4 Content-specific and instructionally focused professional development

Gulamhussein (2013: 19), Hunzicker (2010: 5) and Kaplan (2014b: 4) all agree that the content that is presented to teachers shouldn't be generic but specific to the discipline, be it primary school or high school teachers; foundation phase, intermediate phase or senior phase level; General Education and Training (GET) or Further Education and Training (FET) band or grade R, 1, 2 up to grade 12 level. Kaplan (2014b: 4) maintains that the content offered by professional development should be specific to a goal, a discipline, a grade level or a certain development stage.

When convening professional support forum (PSF) meetings subject advisors and other senior personnel should specify the group that is intended for a specific development programme. Gulamhussein (2013: 20) admits that school districts often provide staff-wide training, assuming that all teachers can benefit equally from the presentation of generic concepts. However, while there may be those that apply to all teachers, some concepts are understood as to how they manifest within the context of how a teacher teaches and in comparison, to useful concepts that are discipline specific. According to Hunzicker (2010: 5), most research indicates that effective professional development centres on both subject content and how to teach it because teachers must know their subject content enough to anticipate learner misconceptions and engage learners in learning through a number of instructional strategies. This, according to Hunzicker, addresses individual needs and school or district goals by differentiating professional development to accommodate varying teacher assignments and career stages as well as teacher responses to educational changes.

3.4 TRENDS TO TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Livingston and Flores (2017:555) argue that several topics that are related to teacher development which were raised in the 1970s; 1980s and 1990s have recurred again in the 2000s. Livingston and Flores cite topics such as collaboration between universities and schools in teacher education, external control of teacher education, the roles and responsibilities of teachers, language of teaching and learning, inclusive education, the use of technology in education as well as theory –vis-à-vis- practice relationships as examples of topics that have persisted over time. Pretorius (2008:166) further points out a number of trends that have surfaced particularly in South Africa, which are driven through the Norms and Standards for Educators Act of 2000, a standards movement that is in line with the national standards movement of the United States and the competency based framework of England. Pretorius concedes that changes and demands in education have invoked a worldwide resurgence of the best possible ways of equipping future teachers more effectively. New approaches on outputs that need to be developed through teacher development include proficiency in reading, writing and arithmetic competencies; creativity; problem solving skills; teamwork and technological skills (Pretorius, 2008:168).

While changes such as education policies, new management and administration practices as well as new curricular approaches in South Africa were intended to restructure the education system, many of such changes shadowed trends in many European countries where low standards, irrelevance and skills deficiencies in school leavers are also becoming noticeable (Pretorius, 2008: 168). Another noticeable trend in teacher development in South Africa can be linked to trends in achievement levels of Grade 4, 5, 6 and 9 learners as evidenced by SACMEQ, TIMSS and PIRLS international and regional studies alike.

Trends can be observed in the SACMEQ III report (Spaull, 2011:1) in which three provinces, North West, Mpumalanga and Free State, showed significant improvements in reading as well as in Mathematics with the Eastern Cape included. However, the report shows a decline in performance in both reading and mathematics in Western Cape, Kwazulu-Natal and Gauteng (Spaull, 2011:2). Overall, the report concludes that the improvement of South African learners over the two SACMEQ projects (SACMEQ II of 2000 and SACMEQ III of 2007) was not significant. Furthermore, in another trend, the University of Pretoria (2017:1) argues that the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) 2016 report paints a disturbing picture of primary school reading literacy in South Africa as a whole, with no significant progress since the last report in 2011, as according to it, 80% of South African Grade 4 learners fall far below the lowest internationally recognised level of reading literacy. The TIMSS 2015 report (Reddy, Visser, Winnaar, Arends, Juan, Prinsloo and Isdale, 2015:31) on the other hand identified a number of concerns in Grade 5 and 9 Mathematics learner performance which includes a focus on slow pace of change which result in unequal achievement levels of learners as a result of differences in learners' homes and school environments; a need for quality pre-school education; a focus on what happens inside schools and classrooms (focusing on strong knowledge base of learners); high levels of bullying in boys resulting in them being outperformed by girls in mathematics and science as well as an emphasis on good elements within both the home and the school contexts that a learner experiences the better.

Teacher development, therefore, when carried out, among other things, through collaborations between stakeholders, emphasising on a specific language of teaching and learning (LOLTS), technology education as well as an emphasis on teachers' roles and responsibilities (as in Norms and Standards for Education, 2000) can translate to improved learner performance. According to Livingstone and Flores (2017: 558), a number of trends observed through the years include a language shift from teacher training to teacher education along philosophical and political shifts in beliefs about the role of teachers in the 21st century; a shift in the location of teacher education – *from teacher training colleges to university level teacher education*, which, according to Livingstone and Flores (2017), led to different routes to teaching – *professionalization of courses with an emphasis on pedagogy for more relevancy to practical experiences in schools and the improved scientific underpinning as well as greater attention to research* for meeting degree status requirements and provision of stronger links between theory and practice.

3.5 SUMMARY

In Chapter 3, contextual issues to teacher development which include policies and legislation that regulate teacher development as well as structural issues which, according to Heystek *et al.* (2008:165), form part of professional development as in three features that include *form* (relating to the structure of development as either through facilitators or discussions or collaborations by individuals); *duration* (relating to the amount of time spent on a particular development activity in group discussions, networking with other schools and peer coaching) as well as *participation* (which indicates to whether development programmes will be done through short courses or workshops that are led by facilitators in presentations which do not give teachers opportunities to participate in the deliberations). Policies under whose context teacher development in South Africa is regulated and operates which include the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) of 2007; Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development of 2011; the Policy on the Organisation, Roles and Responsibilities of Education Districts of 2013 and Action Plan to 2019 were also discussed.

This discussion included principles of teacher learning and development as well as national and international trends to teacher development as evidenced by TIMSS, PIRLS and SACMEQ reports. Given the enormous challenges of rural teacher development which ultimately affect learner performance negatively as contained in the reviewed literature and research findings (see Chapter 7) I would propagate for a shift from the deficit-based approach (*which focusses on what learners cannot do*) to an asset-based approach (*which focusses on what a learner can do; their strengths, skills, talents, interests and competencies*) when solving the challenges of rural primary school teacher development. Eloff and Ebersohn (2001:149) contend that the asset-based approach “implies a shift from a mentality of professional dominance to one in which collaboration, partnerships and participation are emphasised and practised”.

Furthermore, Eloff and Ebersohn, argue, asset-based approach focusses on what is currently present in the environment and what the capacities inherent of the individuals and the environment are. According to Renkly and Bertolini (2018:24), when the asset-based approach is utilised through teacher evaluation it also helps to “develop and supervise the instructional and leadership capacity of the school staff.”

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, related research and literature on aspects of teacher development and school improvement with special focus on learning theories and principles of teacher development as well as teacher development as it applies in rural South African primary schools were reviewed. This served as the theoretical grounding for the empirical investigation. Furthermore, in Chapter 3, structural issues and people related issues to teacher development which include policies and legislation that regulate teacher development as well as models, approaches, trends and principles of teacher development were discussed followed by national and international trends to teacher development as evidenced by TIMSS, PIRLS and SACMEQ reports.

The aim of Chapter 4 is to discuss the main research question and its aims, population and sampling procedures, research methods and design, data collection procedures, data analysis and interpretation, ethical measures as well as measures to ensure trustworthiness. As a point of departure, the main research question and its aims are explored in the following section.

4.2 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION AND AIMS

In this chapter, the researcher answers the general research question set out in Chapter 1 of the research study (cf 1.4) which reads as follows.

What problems of teacher development do rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District experience?

The following aim (cf 1.5.1) was identified for this study:

To obtain a better understanding of the problems of teacher development with regard to school improvement in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district rural primary schools as well as to provide guidelines and adopt an approach for the professional development of these teachers.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Maree (2007: 70), a research design is a plan or strategy which emanates from the underlying philosophical assumptions to specify the choice of participants, data collection strategies to be used as well as data analysis to be used. Denzin and Lincoln (2005: 25) concur as they describe a research design as a set of guidelines that connect theoretical paradigms to strategies of inquiry and methods of collecting data. Lancy (1997: 65) contends that there are two main designs which are widely used in the literature, namely qualitative and quantitative designs.

To answer the above stated research question, a specific research approach and paradigm were engaged and below follows a discussion of such approach and paradigm.

4.3.1 Research paradigm

Johnson and Christense (2008:17) describe a research paradigm as common views of researchers, the schools of thought they subscribe to, a set of beliefs or ideas, values and practices that they share which influence their decisions regarding certain research problems and how they should be investigated. According to Nieuwenhuis (2016: 52), a paradigm is “a set of assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which gives rise to a certain world view”. Nieuwenhuis (2016: 56) further contends that all research is based on underlying assumptions about what constitutes valid research and which research methods are appropriate for a reason in a context. Therefore, an understanding of different paradigms and the appropriateness of a paradigm to a research study enables the researcher to adopt a specific approach. For the purposes of this study, a constructivist paradigm was used. Constructivists (*strong social constructivists in particular*) maintain that our experiences, thoughts and speech about reality are a function of a conceptual framework such as culture, our way of life, language or environment in which we live and that different conceptual frameworks yield incommensurable understanding of experience and reality (Schwandt, 2007:40).

Denzin and Lincoln (2008:32) further contend that a constructivist paradigm assumes a relativist ontology, a subjectivist epistemology and a naturalistic set of methodological procedures. Therefore, the lived experiences of participants regarding teacher development opportunities they enjoyed in their natural settings (rural schools) as told through in-depth interviews and corroborated by document analysis, would therefore be best analysed by the research with assumptions or beliefs that are orientated towards constructivist values and ideas.

4.3.2 Research approach

This study followed a qualitative research approach to teacher development in which the focus was to obtain an understanding of any prevailing problems with teacher development as a requirement for school improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district. According to Creswell (2008:2), qualitative research is “an enquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants and conducted in a natural setting”. Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2) concurs as they maintain that qualitative researchers study phenomena in their natural settings and attempts to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of meanings people bring to them.

The rationale for following a qualitative approach was to arrive at an understanding of people’s lives from their point of view as well as to understand the meanings they hold and utilise and how they construct reality. Poni (2014: 410) argues that, contrary to the deductive approach of quantitative research, qualitative research commences the research project with an inductive stance from a certain point of view, which is the constructivist paradigm for this study. Unlike quantitative research, which relies on numerical data and statistical forms of data analysis, qualitative research handles linguistic or non-numerical data and their phenomenological interpretation (Leung, 2015:324 and Nieuwenhuis, 2016:53). For the purposes of this research, a hermeneutic phenomenological approach, in which I aimed at creating rich textual descriptions and deep account of the phenomenon of teacher development through intuition, while focusing on covering such understanding of the phenomenon of teacher development, was followed.

Kalfle (2011: 192) maintains that in hermeneutic phenomenological research approach data is interpreted using “hermeneutic circle” that consists of reading, reflective writing and interpretation. After transcribing the interviews, writing memoirs and analysing documents through themes, categories and sub-categories I read through the units of meaning, wrote my reflections and interpreted data using phenomenological research methods (see Section 4.5)

4.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Davies and Hughes (2014:57) maintain that population refers to the category of people or objects about whom the researcher intends to write in his/her report and from which the researcher plans to select the sample. Sampling, according to Nieuwenhuis (2007:79), refers to the process to select a portion or subset of the population for the study. Budhal (2000:59) concurs in his assertion that sampling involves a method of choosing a small subset from the larger population as well as ‘taking any portion of the population or universe as representative of that population or universe. Selecting a sample, according to Budhal (2000:59), focuses on the larger population to be studied. In this study, I selected the sample based on the six criteria identified by Nieuwenhuis (216:85) – that the sampling strategy should be relevant to the conceptual framework and the research questions; that the sample should be able to generate rich information on the type of phenomena being studied; that the sample should produce credible descriptions; that the sample should be feasible in terms of money and time as well as accessible; that the sample should enhance the transferability of the research findings and that ethical considerations such as vulnerability and informed consent should be considered. In this study the stratified purposive sampling was chosen in which I selected groups (principals, departmental heads and teachers) that displayed a variation of experience on the teacher development phenomenon. In this study, I visited the schools after securing appointments with the individual principals and in each of the four schools left letters requesting permission together with consent forms for each of the categories of the interviewees. Individual schools held staff meetings that were facilitated by deputy principals in which participants volunteered to participate (one principal, two departmental heads from the normal total of four per school in the North West Province – one in foundation phase and the other from the

intermediate/senior phase as well as two teachers-one from the foundation phase and the other from the intermediate/senior phase of the school). The deputy principals made copies and issued all members of staff with the consent forms so that volunteers can have an opportunity to read them and make their decisions. The typical characteristics of participants and their numbers in this study included participants with ages that ranged between 25 years and 55 years, participants residing in the rural area in which the school is situated, three females and two males from each school as well as teachers who are qualified to teach (REQV 13 upwards) in a total of four (4) schools which include two schools (one underperforming and one well performing) from all two Sub-Districts (Matlosana and JB Marks) of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district. Purposive sampling, according to Nieuwenhuis (2016:85), refers to the process of selecting a sample with a “purpose” to represent a phenomenon, group, incident, and location in relation to a key or main criterion. For the purposes of this research, stratified purposive sampling was used in which the sample was divided into strata (principals, departmental heads and teachers).

Patton (2002) maintains that stratified purposive sampling is aimed at selecting groups that show variation on a phenomenon when each is homogeneous so that subgroups can be compared. In this research study, principals, departmental heads and teachers of rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district in the North West Province of South Africa were the population from which a sample of five participants from each of the four sampled schools was selected (one principal; two departmental heads and two teachers) totalling 20 participants. Nieuwenhuis (2016:84) contends that “there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry”. According to Nieuwenhuis (2016:84), the number of participants selected depends on the research question, the type of research design, the skill and experience of the researcher, the time and funds available for the research project. In this research a hermeneutical phenomenological approach was used in which long interviews of up to 20 people were conducted in line with the characteristics of phenomenological research approaches. The population of this study was derived from a workforce of 5280 North West Provincial Administration teachers and comprises of 1580 primary school teachers from 141 primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district.

The Dr Kenneth Kaunda district was selected on the basis that I have worked in this district for more than 20 years and am familiar with its rural school settings. The Dr Kenneth Kaunda District is made up of 2 Sub-Districts, namely Matlosana and JB Marks, which consists of 8 Circuits, four from each sub-district, each with 23 schools. After failing to get a list of performing and underperforming primary schools (as primary schools of the North West Province do not write standardised tests following the discontinuation of Annual National Assessments) I made use of a circular that was issued on the 6 April 2018 by the North West Provincial Education Chief Director for Curriculum Management (NWED, 2018) in which listed underperforming schools of all four districts of the North West Province including Dr Kenneth Kaunda district were invited to a NEEDU information sharing session on Schools that work. I identified four schools, two from each Sub-District, two underperforming schools (from the list) and two well performing schools (confirmed with the help of the sub-districts managers as they were not in the underperforming schools list) and communicated with the school principals to request permission (see Appendix 7).

One underperforming school was selected from Morning Star Circuit of JB Marks Sub-District as Morning Star had the highest number of underperforming primary schools on the list and because the school was the only school in a farm area with many learners and one well performing school was selected from the Super A Circuit as it had the least number of underperforming schools and also because of the school's close relations with the researcher's school. Furthermore, one underperforming school was selected from JC Motaung Circuit of the Matlosana subdistrict because of its close proximity to the researcher and one well performing school was selected from Refentse Circuit because none of the schools in that Circuit were in the list of underperforming schools. From this population, a sample of 20 teachers were purposively selected from the identified four schools.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

According to O'Donoghue (2007:12), methods of data generation are techniques to gather and analyse data that is related to some research question. Maree (2007:81)

contends that most qualitative studies do not treat data collection and data analysis as two separate processes, but as an ongoing and iterative process.

Various methods of data collection such as individual interviews, focus groups, observations and document analysis may be used (Petty *et al.*, 2012:380). According to Maree (2007:79), unobstructive data collection techniques such as interviews and observations are more dominant in the naturalist (interpretive) paradigm which defines qualitative research. In this study, the following data collection methods were used: semi structured individual interviews with school principals, departmental heads and teachers as well as analysis of documents such as minutes of departmental or staff meetings which provided information about teacher development as it happens in each specific school, IQMS documents such as minutes of individual teachers Developmental Support Group (DSG) as well as commentaries by the DSG in development meetings with individual teachers. According to Schwandt (2007:163), interviews are classified as either structured, semi-structured or unstructured with unstructured interviews being further subdivided into informal conversational interviews, interview guide approach and the standardised open-ended interview. According to Schwandt (2007:163), the typical in-depth, semi-structured or unstructured interview aim to elicit stories of experience. Seidman (2006:9) concurs in his assertion that, at the root of in-depth interviewing, is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning of it.

4.5.1 Semi-structured Interviews

In this study, I conducted semi-structured in-depth interviews with teachers, departmental heads and principals with interview questions that were directed to the participant's feelings, beliefs, experiences and their convictions about teacher development.

During the interviews I ensured that I observed the notion of bracketing which is "what goes on within" the participant and gets them to describe their lived experiences in a language free from the constructs of intellect and society. I also "bracketed" my own preconceptions and entered into the individual participant's lifeworld and self as an "experiencing interpreter". Groenewald (2004:45) contends that doing

phenomenology relates to capturing rich descriptions of phenomena and I structured my interview questions to participants based on the four research questions: - *Which developmental opportunities are available for rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district and how efficient are teacher development opportunities? Why should teachers be held accountable for teacher development and learner performance? What are the perceptions of teachers about the current teacher development opportunities of rural primary school teachers of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district? How can the challenges of teacher development in rural primary schools be addressed?*

However, it is important to note that irrespective of a similar distinction between the research questions and the interview questions, the research findings may or may not indicate that teacher development contributes to learner's improved performance as the inquiry does not mean looking for answers.

4.5.2 Documents to be analysed

In this research study, I started by analysing the following documents

- i. Minutes of Pre and Post Evaluation Discussion meetings
- ii. Educators' Improvement Plans (EIP)
- iii. Monitoring Reports (Internal and External Reports)
- iv. School Improvement Plans

The advantage of using primary sources is that they are the original source documents that provide a picture of what is happening. Educators Improvement Plans (EIP) shed light on the development needs of teachers while the Staff Development Team (SDT) minutes detailed the planning and school wide approach in meeting the identified needs.

The pre and post evaluation minutes provided evidence of the actual development endeavours to ascertain if indeed development practices do take place or not while the monitoring reports of the departmental heads and school principals indicated the amount and frequency of support given to teachers as well as the level of compliance of teachers to internal and departmental Annual Teaching Plan prescriptions. The

IQMS training manual provided the researcher with a checklist of whether things were done as prescribed in the manual while the external monitoring reports provided the researcher with the amount and frequency of support given by district officials. The latest policy document on teacher development provided me with an indication of how and where to make improvements on what was observed to be happening in schools.

4.5.3 Personal individual interviews with principals

From each school I first interviewed the principal as the agent of change and an accounting officer of his/her school. The point of departure was to question the principal about what emanated from the analysis of documents and thereafter questions as they appeared in the interview schedule were asked.

Table 4. 1: Description of principals

School	Gender	Age	Experience	Residing area	Qualifications	Subject	Grade
SCHOOL A	F	53yrs	28yrs	Rural	B.Ed. Hons	Fphase	R
SCHOOL B	F	51yrs	22yrs	Town	B.Ed. Hons	NS/Tech	4, 5 & 6
SCHOOL C	M	56yrs	32yrs	Town	B.Ed. ICT	Xhosa HL EFAL	7 5
SCHOOL D	F	49yrs	26yrs	Rural	B.Ed Hons	EFAL	7

4.5.4 Personal individual interviews with departmental heads

Table 4. 2: Description of departmental heads

Schools	Gender	Age	Experience	Residing Area	Qualifications	Subject	Grade
SCHOOL A:							
Teacher π 1	F	45yrs	15yrs	Rural	B.Ed Hons	Maths	4
Teacher π 1	F	49yrs	25yrs	Rural	B.Ed Hons	Fphase	2
SCHOOL B:							
Teacher π 1	M	42yrs	17yrs	Rural	PTD	Xhosa	4, 5, 6 &
Teacher π 1	F	48yrs	16yrs	Rural	HED	Fphase	7 3
SCHOOL C:							
Teacher π 1	F	58yrs	32yrs	Rural	B.Ed. Hons	Fphase	1, 2 & 3
Teacher π 1	F	56yrs	30yrs	Rural	HED	Fphase	1, 2 & 3
SCHOOL D:							
Teacher π 1	F	47yrs	26yrs	Rural	B.Ed Hons	EFal	4
Teacher π 1	M	40yrs	15yrs	Rural	B.Ed Hons	NS &Tech	5

Departmental heads of schools were interviewed as the immediate seniors of their teachers who oversee their development among other things.

The point of departure was to question the departmental heads about what emanated from the analysis of documents and thereafter questions as they appeared in the interview schedule were asked.

4.5.4 Personal individual interviews with teachers

Teachers were the last to be interviewed and they provided their account of development processes as the recipients of the development opportunities in their schools. The point of departure was to question the teachers about what emanated from the analysis of documents and thereafter questions as they appeared in the interview schedule were asked.

Table 4. 3: Description of teachers

School	Gender	Age	Experience	Residing Area	Qualifications	Subject	Grade
SCHOOL A: Teacher π 1 Teacher π 2	F F	48 50	26yrs 13yrs	Rural Rural	B.Ed. Hons B.Ed. Hons	Maths NS&Tech	7 7
SCHOOL B: Teacher π 1 Teacher π 2	F F	41 59	11yrs 35yrs	Rural Rural	PTD B.Ed. Hons	NS&Tech Maths XhosaHL Fphase	4 5 & 7 6 2
SCHOOL C: Teacher π 1 Teacher π 2	F M	39 30	2yrs 5yrs	Rural Rural	Grade 12 PGCE	Maths EMS LS EFAL NS&Tech	4, 5 & 6 7 4 4 & 7 4, 5, 6 & 7
SCHOOL D Teacher π 1 Teacher π 2	F M	44 28	15yrs 3yrs	Town Rural	PTD B.Ed. Senior	Maths NS & SS	5 6

Regarding the well performing primary schools, the sub-district managers of JB Marks and Matlosana respectively assisted the researcher with the names of well performing primary schools in their sub-districts. Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2007:34) contend that after selecting the research site it is important for the researcher to obtain permission to access the research sites. In this research study, I did obtain written

permission from all the principals of the participating schools (see Appendix 1, 2, 3 & 4).

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Krathwohl and Smith (2005:132) maintain that a researcher must describe the steps that he/she plans to take to analyse data. In this regard Krathwohl and Smith propose an audit trail for the research findings to become accepted into the realm of knowledge. This [audit trail] is a detailed explanation of the records of methods and procedures followed in analysing data. This is particularly necessary for validity and reliability purposes to find out if another researcher, when following the same methods and procedures of analysing data and studying the same research topic, would get similar research findings. Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships and underlying themes. According to Hycner (1999), phenomenological researchers use data explication which implies an understanding of the constituent parts of the phenomenon while keeping the context of the whole. Hycner identifies five phases of data explication: (a) **bracketing and phenomenological reduction** (*this relates to no position being taken for or against the researcher's own presuppositions and not allowing his/her statements that are seen to illuminate the research phenomenon*); (b) **delineating units of meaning** (*this relates to extracting those meanings and interpretations with the view to enter the unique world of the participants, considering the content, significance of it and how it was stated. The researcher will then carefully scrutinise it and eliminate the redundant units*); (c) **clustering of units of meaning to form themes** (*the researcher brackets his/her presuppositions to remain true to the phenomenon after listing the non-redundant units of meaning*).

The researcher goes back to the recorded interview and forth to the list of non-redundant list of units to derive clusters of meaning); (d) **summarising each interview, validating and modifying** (*the researcher incorporates all themes elicited from the data to get a holistic context, he/she then returns to the participants to do a validity check to determine if the essence of the interview has been correctly captured. Modifications will thereafter be done as a result of the validity check*); and (e) **formulating general and unique themes for all interviews** (*the researcher looks*

for themes that are common to most or all interviews and individual variations while avoiding clustering common themes if significant differences exist). According to Marshal and Rossman (2006:154), data collection and analysis in qualitative research typically go hand in hand to build a coherent interpretation. Marshall and Rossman (2006:156) contend that the analytical procedures fall into seven phases, namely organising the data; immersion in the data; generating categories and themes; coding the data; offering interpretations through analytic memos; searching for alternative understandings; and writing the report. According to Nieuwenhuis (2007:104), in order to avoid being overwhelmed by the amount of data, researchers need to organise it by cutting and sorting it, keeping different sets of data separate and marking each bit of it clearly; transcribe data; get to know it immensely; code it with symbols, descriptive words; and establish categories and themes. For the purposes of this research study, data was explicated according to the five phases identified by Hycner (1999). I listened repeatedly to the audio recordings of each interview to familiarise myself with the words of each interview.

Bracketing and phenomenological reduction: In this research, as I conducted the semi structured interviews with principals, departmental heads and teachers and analysed documents I adopted a 'take no position for or against' the researcher's own presuppositions and did not allow my statements that might be seen to be illuminating the research phenomenon of teacher development to influence the interviews and choice of documents to be analysed. *Delineating units of meaning:* I listened to the audio recordings of each interview, transcribed the interviews on a journal, read and considered the content and significance of it and how it was stated. I then carefully scrutinised the redundant units of meaning and eliminated them.

Clustering of units of meaning to form themes: After listing the non-redundant units of meaning for each interview in each participant's response, I once more bracketed my presuppositions, went back to the recorded interview, and listened to every language tone and signal and forth to the list of non-redundant list to derive clusters of meaning for each participant's response. From these clusters of meaning central themes which expressed the essence of such clusters were formed. *Summarising, validating and modifying each interview:* At this stage I incorporated all themes formed from the data

with the view to get a holistic context, checked from participants to determine if the essence of the interviews have been correctly captured and thereafter did modifications based on the completed validity checks. *Formulating general and unique themes for all interviews:* I then looked for themes that were common to most or all interviews and concluded by writing a summary which reflected on the context from which they (themes) emerged. I then formed five themes from which sub-categories were developed (cf 5.2.1 & 5.2.2).

4.7 ETHICAL MEASURES

According to Maree (2016:41), it is essential for researchers to highlight every research's ethical considerations. For the purposes of this research study, ethical considerations such as informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality of research participants, voluntary participation of participants and permission to record interviews were considered. Below follows a discussion of such ethical measures.

4.7.1 Informed consent

The proposal to conduct this research study, including an ethics clearance certificate, have been approved by the NWU Ethics Committee. Furthermore, the North West Department of Education and Sports Development permitted the researcher to conduct research in the identified schools (see Appendix 5) who in turn also permitted the researcher to conduct research in their respective schools (see Appendix 1, 2, 3 & 4). Henning (2004:73) argues that it is important that respondents give informed consent to participate in a research study.

According to Maree (2016:44), informed consent forms the basis of ensuring that the identities of research participants is protected which also include obtaining their permission to be interviewed and an undertaking from the researcher to destroy interview audiotapes. The consent letter (see Appendix 6) which is pre-drafted by the researcher should be accompanied by a letter in which institutions also consented to the use of their sites and names (Henning, 2004:73). In this research, the consent forms were delivered to the principals of participating schools together with letters that requested permission by the researcher's assistant (two schools in Matlosana Sub –

District) and others were emailed to the respective schools in accordance with the agreement with the concerned principals due to issues of distance (two schools in JB Marks Sub-Districts). The researcher and the principals agreed that the principals would hold staff meetings that would be chaired by their deputy principals as they would not be participating in the research study, so that staff members could be issued with consent forms (issued by deputy principals) for them to go through them and decide whether to take part in the study or not.

4.7.2 Voluntary participation

In a letter of consent, participants gave consent to a few ethical issues including voluntary participation and permitting the researcher to tape-record their interviews (Henning, 2004:73). De Vos *et al.* (2002:67) maintain that no deception of participants should be allowed. Deception of participants, according to Strydom (1998:27), relates to either withholding information or giving false information to ensure the participation of subjects when they would have refused to participate.

In this research study, all participants were informed about the methods to be employed in collecting data and the purpose of the research so that they could participate voluntarily.

4.7.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

Henning (2004:73) contends that participants need to know that their privacy and sensitivity would be protected as well as what would be done with the audiotapes after the interviews.

In this research study, participants' anonymity and confidentiality is guaranteed. However, Henning (2004:73) concedes that guaranteed anonymity becomes a challenge in research studies in which the theme of the research inevitably means that private matters would be directly relatable to the signed consent form. In such situations, the researcher would ensure that the signed consent forms are treated with utmost confidentiality. For the purposes of this research, the names of the schools and individual participants were not disclosed. Participating schools were referred to by code names.

School A referred to Dr Kenneth Kaunda 1st participating school in Matlosana; School B referred to Dr Kenneth Kaunda 2nd participating school in Matlosana Sub-District; School C referred to Dr Kenneth Kaunda 1st participating school in JB Marks Sub-District while School D referred to Dr Kenneth Kaunda 2nd participating school. Furthermore, the research interviews were strictly confidential and would be made available to the members of the research team and that excerpts of the research interview would be part of the final research report but names or identifying characteristics were not included in the report.

4.7.4 The researcher's competency

Jansen (2007:41) contends that a researcher needs to be a sensitive observer who is capable of recording phenomena as faithfully as possible while raising additional questions (probing) and moving deeper when analysing the phenomena. To be able to do that, according to Strydom (1998:26), researchers need to be competent and skilled enough to undertake the envisaged research studies. As a researcher for this study I am competent and skilled as I hold a Primary Teacher's Diploma, a Bachelor of Arts degree in Communication and History, a Bachelor of Education degree in Educational Management, a Post Graduate Diploma in Educational Management, an Advanced Certificate in Education majoring in Curriculum and Professional Development. Furthermore, I have a Master of Education degree in Educational Management which I obtained with cum laude. I have been teaching for the past thirty years and am currently the principal of a primary school. In preparation for this research project I have done pilot interviews with the assistance of the study promoter.

Furthermore, I have been trained to conduct interviews. The research study was promoted by a competent and experienced university professor who has supervised and promoted many qualitative research studies.

4.8 MEASURES TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS

Nieuwenhuis (2016:123) contend that, while reliability and validity are key measures in quantitative research, trustworthiness is very key in qualitative research. Measuring a study's trustworthiness, according to Nieuwenhuis (2007:113 & 2016:123), tests the

reliability of data analysis, research findings and its conclusions. Furthermore, Nieuwenhuis (2007:113 & 2016:123) refers to a number of pointers that can enhance the trustworthiness of one's research study such as the use of multiple data collection sources (individual interviews, focus group interviews, observations and analysis of documents); verifying raw data by checking whether participants agree with the researcher's data; keeping notes of research decisions taken as new data emerges as well as choosing quotes carefully while avoiding generalisation as the idea is to understand the phenomenon from the participants' perspective.

Strauss and Myburgh (2002:57); Nieuwenhuis (2016:123) and De Vos *et al.* (2002:35) all agree that qualitative researchers make use of four measures of trustworthiness, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

4.8.1 Credibility

Credibility, according to Nieuwenhuis (2016: 123), answers questions such as, 'How do I ensure that the reader will believe my findings?' According to Strauss and Myburgh (2002: 57), credibility refers to accountability for the entire research investigation and includes actions in preparation for the field research, the use of well-established research methods, a research design that fits the research question as well as participants' control of the data and keeping a reflective journal. The main aim of credibility, according to De Vos *et al.* (2002:351), is to demonstrate that the study was conducted in a way that ensures that the phenomenon was accurately identified and described.

In this regard, a qualitative research should indicate the parameters of a setting, a social group or pattern of interaction, thereby placing boundaries around the study. In this research study, I visited the research sites to make preliminary arrangements. This provided me with enough time to familiarise myself with the participants and participating institutions. I further kept a reflective journal in which I recorded daily on-site occurrences.

4.8.2 Transferability

Research results, according to Strauss and Myburgh (2002:57), are transferable if they can be applied in similar contexts. Nieuwenhuis (2016:124) contends that transferability invites readers of the research study to make connections between elements of the research and their very own experience or their own research under similar contexts. According to De Vos *et al.* (2002: 352), transferability is an alternative to generalisability in which the urge to prove the applicability of the research findings to another context rests more with the investigator (researcher) who would make the transfer than the original one. Nieuwenhuis (2016:124) further maintains that to increase transferability researchers should focus on how typical participants are to the context being studied and the context to which the findings apply.

In this research study, transferability was ensured by the use of stratified purposive sampling (in which principals, departmental heads and teachers of performing and underperforming schools were selected) and also by the choice of context (rural primary schools) of the research from which other researchers may decide on how transferable the findings could be in other settings.

4.8.3 Dependability

Nieuwenhuis (2016:124) and De Vos *et al.* (2002: 352) observe that, in qualitative research, the term “dependability” is used as an alternative to reliability. Dependability, according to Nieuwenhuis (2016:124 & 2007:114), is demonstrated through the research design and its implementation; operational detail or audit trail of data gathering as well as a reflective journal of decisions taken with regard to data collection and analysis so as to assist readers to follow the researcher’s reasoning.

This entails documenting category labels one creates as well as themes that come out of categories. Henning (2004:151) maintains that a research study meets dependability as long as the precision of procedures and documentation satisfy this criterion in which all research steps are declared and documented. In such situation, the research is therefore, potentially replicable when done in similar settings and with similar participants.

In this research study, the operational details of how data was collected and analysed were given, including the audit trail of written permission from the District Director (see Appendix 5), as well as the principals of all four participating schools.

4.8.4 Confirmability

Nieuwenhuis (2016:125) and Strauss and Myburgh (2002:58) describe confirmability as the degree of neutrality on the part of the researcher or the extent to which the research findings of a study are not influenced by the researcher bias, motivation or interest but by participants themselves. In qualitative research study confirmability could be increased or ensured by employing strategies such as triangulation which is the use of multiple data collection methods to eliminate researcher bias thereby ensuring that the research findings are more reliable.

Other strategies, according to Nieuwenhuis (2016), include an audit trail of the research process to trace the research step by step by describing all the procedures and decisions made. In this research, all the above-mentioned measures were considered and similar research using the same methods of data collection and analysis revealed results that resembled those of this study.

4.9 SUMMARY

This chapter covered the research design and methodology. Specific reference was made to the research question, research aims, population and sampling procedures, and data collection methods and data analysis. Research participants were selected using stratified purposive sampling method.

Measures of ensuring trustworthiness and ethics compliance of the study were clearly explained and discussed. Furthermore, data collection methods to be used for this research were indicated as individual interviews and analysis of documents. Chapter 4 further serves as a link between the review of literature in Chapters 2 and 3 and the analysis of results in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This was done by referring to the research question, research aims, population and sampling procedures, data collection, data analysis and trustworthiness. Purposive sampling of four rural primary schools was used to obtain in-depth information on the topic, teacher development. Qualitative methods of collecting data such as analysis of certain relevant documents and semi-structured interviews with a number of relevant informants were used. Interview schedules (see Appendices 1, 2 & 3) with school principals, departmental heads and teachers from each school were developed. In this chapter, data gathered from analysed documents, main categories and sub-categories that were formulated, individual interviews with the principals, departmental heads and teachers are presented.

The data analysis process was explained followed by a discussion of the research findings which was compared to what has been written in the literature regarding teacher development. This chapter focused on the discussion of the research findings. It specifically detailed the research findings from the documents analysed which include minutes of post evaluation meetings, educators' improvement plans (EIP), internal and external monitoring reports, school improvement plans (SIP) and current policy updates as well as research findings from the individual interviews with school principals, departmental heads and teachers. The research interviews further confirmed what was observed in the analysed documents.

5.2 THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Below follows a discussion of the research findings as obtained through the analysis of documents and individual interviews conducted with school principals, departmental heads and teachers from each of the four participant schools.

5.2.1 The research findings: analysis of documents

In section 4.5, an analysis of documents as a data collecting method was discussed. Documents such as minutes of post evaluation discussion meetings, educators'

improvement plans, monitoring reports and School Improvement Plans on teacher development from all four participating schools in the two sub-districts of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district were analysed.

Table 5. 1: Documents submitted and not submitted by schools

1. Post IQMS Evaluation Meeting Minutes	
School A	√
School B	√
School C	√
School D	√
2. School Improvement Plans	
School A	√
School B	√
School C	√
School D	√
3. Educators' Improvement Plans	
School A	none except PGP
School B	√
School C	√
School D	none except PGP
4. Internal and External Monitoring Reports	
School A	√
School B	no internal monitoring report
School C	√
School D	√

From the analysed documents the following categories and sub-categories emerged.

Table 5.2 Main Categories and sub-categories of documents analysis

Main Categories	Subcategories
1. Minutes of Meetings (Pre and Post IQMS Evaluation)	Scanty Minutes of Pre and Post IQMS Evaluation
2. Improvement Plans (SIP & EIP)	Insufficient connections of SIP and EIP to Teacher Development)
3. Monitoring Reports (In-School and External Monitoring Reports)	Insufficient and absence of In-School monitoring Reports Brief and undetailed connections of SES Reports to Teacher Development

The following is a discussion of the analysis of the above-mentioned documents.

5.2.1.1 Minutes of Meetings (Pre and Post IQMS evaluation meetings)

5.2.1.1.1 Scanty Minutes of Pre and Post IQMS Evaluation

According to the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) in (ELRC, 2003a:8), the Developmental Support Group (DSG) must discuss their evaluation with the teacher and must provide feedback on their observation of the teacher's teaching focusing on performance and not personality, observations not assumptions, objectivity not subjectivity, sharing information not giving instructions, alternatives not "what you should do" as well as individual needs and requests for further development. For Integrated Quality Management System's (IQMS) staff development purposes (ELRC, 2003b:11) each teacher identifies a peer, on the basis of the peer's expertise in the subject or the teacher's other needs, his/her immediate senior which could be his/her departmental head/deputy principal or principal including himself/herself to form his/her DSG whose responsibility would be to mentor and support the teacher, assist him/her to develop his/her Personal Growth Plan (PGP) as well as to conduct the two developmental processes per cycle the baseline and summative evaluation processes.

The baseline evaluation, in which the teacher identifies, at the beginning of the year (March), his/her strong and weak points and informs the DSG on which areas he/she would like to be developed in, is followed by the summative evaluation, which is only

for performance measurement purposes and is done towards the end of the year (October) becoming the baseline evaluation for the next year. The DSG is therefore meant to mentor and support the individual teacher whose performance would then be monitored by the Department of Basic Education's IQMS co-ordinator while the Whole School Evaluation (WSE), on the other hand evaluates the performance of the whole school as opposed to individual teachers using the IQMS document.

As stated in Chapter 4, the pre and post evaluation minutes would provide evidence of the actual development endeavours to ascertain if indeed development practices do take place or not. Participants in all four participating schools presented the minutes of their post evaluation meetings. These minutes are an important evidence of the teacher development that took place and the resultant interventions of the Developmental Support Group of each teacher. However, very few teachers of school B including the principal presented such minutes. In the few that submitted the deliberations of the meetings that took place as evidence by the minutes appeared to be scanty. Many of them were characterised by three sentenced encounters that explained that the DSG met on this date, agreed about the scores and the completion of the evaluation form with recommendations for development. The minutes were not signed (specifically school B) by all people who are supposed to sign them such as the teachers, peer, senior and an additional member giving an impression that the completion of the post evaluation template is done only for submission purposes and not to record the actual proceedings of the post evaluation discussions if they really do take place. The same applies to school A and D. In all post evaluation meetings minutes there were no details mentioned as to what was discussed in those meetings except for general remarks such as members met to evaluate Mrs so and so and matters related to (indicated performance standards) were discussed and the educator was guided accordingly. The details of such guidance given to teachers were not mentioned and there is therefore no evidence that teacher development does take place under the IQMS structures at these schools.

However, in school C the post evaluation meetings minutes are detailed and provide an account of the outcomes of the observations of the DSG as well as what the educator needs to improve. For instance, the minutes of teacher B, who is a

departmental head focused on performance standards 2(c) which is goal setting and recommendations of the DSG such as, “Educators need to meet as clusters of that particular subject” and “PSF meetings should be conducted for educator”. In performance standard 3(a) which is planning the DSG recommended that, “The educator must have more challenging work for high achievers while the educator is dealing (busy) with slow learners.”

5.2.1.2 Improvement Plans

5.2.1.2.1 Insufficient connections of EIP to Teacher Development)

In section 4.5 paragraph 5, it is stated that Educator Improvement Plans would shed light on the development needs of teachers while SDT minutes would detail the planning and school wide approach in meeting the identified needs. Out of the total of four participating schools only two Educators’ Improvement plans were received, one from school A and another from school B. The Educator Improvement Plans (EIP) are in a template format by the North West Department of Education and Sports Development and largely contain the developmental needs of educators in a focus area - “Quality of teaching and learning and educator development.” The developmental needs are a result of the in-school IQMS process and include strategies to meet the needs, identified performance standards, which range from 1-7 for PL1s; performance standards 8 – 12 for PL2 – 4 teachers, the criteria and the person who would address the need which could be the DSG, SDT, SMT Circuit, Sub-District Office or the province. In both schools’ EIPs there is a list of pre-determined activities for improvements in the prioritised areas which range from mentoring on learning space, workshop on discipline, coaching on involvement in learning programmes, guidance on skills as well as motivation and support on participation in professional development. Of particular importance with these educator improvement plans is the fact that there is no specific mention of how successful these attempts have been in realising the identified needs.

Both mention the SMT, DSG and the SDT as the structures that would address the identified needs but, in the interviews, none of them talk specifically about each structures’ role and success in developing teachers. Teachers who share the same

development areas are grouped together and allocated a common date for their development either by the SMT, DSG or Circuit officials. During follow up interviews with teachers the principal of school C conceded that teacher development in his school sometimes is addressed by the Circuit officials when they share common developmental needs

5.2.1.3 The School Improvement Plan

5.2.1.3.1 Insufficient connections of SIP to Teacher Development)

The School Improvement Plan (SIP), according to ELRC (2003b: 11), is a blueprint of the actions and processes needed to produce school improvement. The Gauteng Department of Education (GDE, 2016:7) on the other hand describes SIP as a road map that sets out the changes that a school needs to make to improve the level of learner achievement and the school environment as well as how and when these changes would be made. The SIP, according to GDE (2016:7), should reflect the interventions that lead to improved learner performance, improved school environment, teacher-initiated improvement, School Management Team (SMT) organised activities as well as District/Provincial/ other support. The ELRC (2003b:12) contends that the approach to school improvement rests on a number of assumptions that include, ***the school as the centre of change*** - meaning that external reforms should be sensitive to the individual school's circumstances; ***a systematic approach to change*** - meaning that school improvement should be a carefully planned and managed process that takes place over a period of time; ***a key focus for change*** - meaning the focus should be on the internal conditions of schools which include teaching and learning activities, all school procedures, role allocation and resources used in support of teaching and learning activities as well as ***a multi-level perspective***-meaning that the roles of teachers, SMT, parents, SGB, support personnel (district/sub-district/circuit office personnel as well as subject advisors) should be harnessed and committed to the process of school improvement.

All four schools provided the researcher with their School Improvement Plans which were developed by their School Development Teams' informed by the PGP' s of

individual teachers. The interviewees confirmed that the SDTs monitor teachers' progress and their improvement over specified timeframes.

5.2.1.4 Monitoring reports (In-School and External Monitoring Reports)

Monitoring reports by departmental heads, deputy principals and principals (see section 4.5 paragraph 5) indicated the amount and frequency of support given to teachers as well as the level of compliance of teachers to internal and Annual Teaching Plan prescriptions while the external monitoring reports by Circuit and District officials provided the researcher with the amount and frequency of support given by district officials. According to Circular 09/2016 (GDE, 2016:10), monitoring is a managerial action in which managers make certain that actual activities correspond with planned activities. Monitoring, which can be both internal and external, is important to ensure that the actual achievement of the school's objectives is in accordance with the realisation of the intended outcomes. In this regard, Circular 09/2016 (GDE, 2016:11) emphasises that schools would be monitored regularly by District and Head Office designated personnel to evaluate compliance with the implementation of the School Development Plan (SDP), School Improvement Plans (SIP) and the Academic Performance Improvement Plan (APIP). In all four participating schools, there were two kinds of monitoring reports that were submitted by teachers, namely – in-school monitoring reports and external monitoring reports and below follows a discussion on these reports.

5.2.1.4.1 Insufficient and absence of In-School monitoring Reports

Only three schools had in-school monitoring reports, namely – school A, school C and school D. In school A and school D there were two types of monitoring instruments that were found to be used, namely – the subject specific monitoring instrument, which is a standard in-school monitoring instrument for that specific subject as well as the continuous monitoring tool which is used to monitor the curriculum coverage of that specific subject but acts as a follow up tool to the previous monitoring done.

The subject specific monitoring instrument has three sections that are further divided into four columns per instrument. The first section deals with the teacher's evidence

in which a number of requirements are listed in the first column, followed by two optional columns in which the monitor ticks yes or no depending on the availability of the required evidence followed by the fourth column where the monitor has to comment for the findings in column two or three.

The continuous monitoring instrument continues where the subject specific monitoring instrument ended. It consists of three columns, namely the focus area, the findings and the monitor's comments. There are four focus areas in each monitoring instrument – the lesson plans (are they up to date and complete), the progress on the syllabus/ATP (according to ATP dates and pace setters), the informal activities (how many are they/ are they marked/ is there evidence of feedback/how did learners respond to task given) as well as subject meetings (does the teacher attends them and how many so far). These are then followed by general comments and recommendations of the monitor as well as an indication of the next monitoring dates and the names of learners whose books were monitored. Both instruments indicate that there is monitoring that is done by departmental heads/deputy principals and principals in both schools.

However, there is no reference to compliance or non-compliance with the recommendations of the previous monitoring. In school C there was only one in-school monitoring instrument used to monitor both subjects and IQMS alike, characterised by four columns, namely – items to be monitored, are items done, yes and no column. Both areas that are monitored, IQMS and subjects, are not provided with thorough commentary on each of the eleven items to indicate how compliant or not compliant a teacher is with each area. It is only the yes or no ticks that are not really convincing and there is nowhere where recommendations for improvement are provided by the monitoring official.

5.2.1.4.2 Brief and undetailed connections of SES Reports to Teacher Development

In all four schools there were two types of external monitoring reports that are aimed at monitoring or reporting about learner performance and teacher development, namely – subject specialists reports on their one on one visits to individual teachers

as well as IQMS sub-districts co-ordinators' reports on their visits to individual schools.

The subject specialists reports: In terms of the Personnel Administration Measures (DBE, Government Gazette 24948 of 2013:) subject specialists are tasked to assist teachers to identify, assess and meet the needs of learners by providing them with professional leadership, to develop systems for monitoring and recording learners' progress in achieving set targets, to facilitate curriculum development at institutional level and to provide guidance in learner assessment and to support staff development activities based on needs which are congruent with principles applicable to policy frameworks and plans.

However, the Post Audit Action Plan Report for 2017 (NWED, 2017:5) paints a negative picture of the role of subject specialists in discharging their duties. It found that during the 2017 academic year subject specialists provided inadequate district monitoring of curriculum management on certain grades and subjects, subject specialists did not assess the progress with curriculum coverage, subject specialists did not always assess the adequacy of the monitoring and support by SMT for individual educators, subject specialists did not propose remedial action despite noting that no monitoring and support was provided by SMT to educators and that there was ineffective support provided as no adequate remedial actions and no follow-up visits were performed to monitor the remedial actions on identified challenges. In all four schools, there were three kinds of subject specialists' reports, namely, *the subject specific reports; the one paged evidence of Senior Education Specialists (SES) school visit report* as well as *the provincial SBA moderation report for GET*. As it is reported in the Post Audit Action Plan Report for 2017 (see par 5.3.1.3 above) not much is reported in the SES reports except correction marks on either column with YES or NO option and no recommendations at all on arrears where non-compliance is detected.

In school B, on the column of the findings when monitoring ATP coverage the option chosen was YES and the findings were just, 'On par with ATP' and when monitoring assessment there were no recommendation provided even though the teacher didn't do item analysis at the end of the term as a way of intervention. *The one paged evidence of SES school visit report* is literally a one paged document which only indicates that on such and such a date the senior education specialist (SES) visited

teacher x for purposes of SBA monitoring/ assisting the subject teacher with time-tabling/ assisting teacher x with setting a standardised question paper/ visited to monitor the writing of NWP. This is just an evidence of a visit conducted by the SES and does not offer any detail of development to teachers that has been conducted. In all four schools, there were similar one-paged evidence SES school visit reports that only differed for reasons of the visit. *The provincial SBA moderation report* is a common template used to moderate teachers' content coverage and compliance with curriculum and assessment policies, providing qualitative report on number of tasks given to learners as well as checking on progress of the ATP and then provide recommendations thereafter.

Of great concern in all four schools is the fact that moderators are teachers of that subject who are specially contracted temporarily as moderators for that period of moderation. In all four schools the moderation concentrated on the procedural issues such as the availability of policy documents in teachers' files and the number of formal and informal activities in learners' assessment books. There were no recommendations for improvement and no follow ups on negative findings that are made. In all four schools, principals provided their online responses to a monitoring instrument titled, '*The School Principal's rating of District Support for 2018*' which contained five sections, namely:- school details; frequency of district support, quality of curriculum and assessment support, quality of management and governance support services as well as quality of learner support services. Under the frequency of district support the most frequent number of visits was that of NSNP followed by Circuit Manager with least in three schools being the curriculum support services (particularly special programmes and project co-ordination).

Under the quality of curriculum and assessment support the analysis of examination and SBA results received an overall rating 4 which, on a scale of 1 being not useful; 2 being somewhat useful; 3 being useful; 4 being very useful and 5 being not applicable, was a highest rating score while supporting and monitoring curriculum coverage (including implementation of ATP) was rated as 2 which is somewhat (doubtfully) useful. Under quality of management and governance support services the item supporting the professional development of teachers in terms of IQMS was rated 2

which is somewhat useful which denotes that principals are doubting the usefulness of the support being given as well as the development and implementation of credible school improvement plan. Under the quality of learner support services, the item availability and support of specialist professional staff such as therapists, professional nurses, social workers and braille instructors most principals referred to it also as somewhat useful, which again denotes doubts that principals have to its usefulness while the item support in the practices of curriculum support (examinations/curriculum/inclusive education) also received the same rating.

IQMS sub-district co-ordinators' reports: All four schools fall under two sub-districts of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district which are, JB Marks and Matlosana sub-districts. The two IQMS sub-districts co-ordinators' reports had distinctive features which differed from one another. In the sub-district X co-ordinator's report, there were five questions under baseline evaluation while the sub-district Y had only two. Furthermore, in the sub-district Y co-ordinator's report there were additional questions on the column of the educator's file such as, *Is there evidence that teachers have signed up for CPTD; that teachers have developed PDP for CPTD; that teachers have uploaded activities* and also *Is there evidence that any PLC was established*. In all these questions the two schools of sub-district Y, school C and school D answered no and with the two sub-district X schools A and B none of the above questions were asked which then translates into that teachers have not signed up for PDP, teachers have not developed PDP for CPTD, teachers have not uploaded activities and there are no PLCs that have been established in these schools. The JB Marks sub-district co-ordinator's report made recommendations regarding the above responses.

The co-ordinator recommended that each educator must develop a PDP for CPTD and that all material received on CPTD must be kept in the PDP as well as evidence of uploaded activities while the sub-district X co-ordinator's recommendations concentrated on the management plan of IQMS and the SIP.

5.2.2 The research findings: interviews

From a total of 20 interviews, 8 post level 1 teachers, 8 departmental heads and 4 school principals the researcher listened to all tapes and transcribed them verbatim.

Making use of the transcript the researcher read and reread the data and thereafter wrote codes along the margins of the transcripts and noted regularities in the data. This was done with the use of interview schedules and aims of the research. The researcher looked for emerging categories of meaning that have internal convergence or external divergence. The researcher made use of the five aims of the research and turned them into predetermined themes or main categories which were further reduced into small manageable sub-categories of themes.

Below follow three tables that contain main categories and subcategories of the findings from the individual interviews conducted with post level one teachers, departmental heads and school principals. These tables represent the perceptions of interviewees regarding teacher development in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district. While all participants unanimously agreed that there are available teacher development opportunities in the form of Professional Support Forums (PSFs) and workshops that are usually organised by sub-district based subject advisors, a clear picture is that schools do not initiate their development opportunities as required by the Integrated Quality Management System (ELRC, 2003b:11). There are no SMT organised teacher training sessions, no routine class visits by departmental heads and Developmental Support Groups (DSG) of individual teachers. Interviewed teachers including school principals apportion blame to time constraints, teachers' workloads as well as lack of funds.

The principals of school B and C for example, whose schools are regarded as some of the performing primary schools in Dr Kenneth Kaunda district (NWED, 2017:2) conceded that they rarely monitor the work of their teachers because of the fact that both have staff compliments of eight to ten teachers and therefore understaffed, both have multi-grade classes and both are class and subject teachers themselves because of being small schools.

Table 5. 2: Main categories and sub-categories of interviews

Main Categories	Sub-categories
1. Available teacher development opportunities.	Models of teacher development Funding teacher development Participation in teacher development Benefits of teacher development
2. Effectiveness of teacher accountability systems.	In-school accountability systems External accountability systems Learner performance versus teacher development
3. Perceptions of rural schoolteachers to teacher development	Informative and collaborative Unfriendly learning environment.
4. Professional development challenges of rural schoolteachers	Socio-economic conditions. Training for overcrowded classrooms. Distance and learner absenteeism
5. Possible solutions to challenges raised.	Change Process School-based improvement Focusing on teaching and learning

Below follows a discussion of the main-categories and sub-categories of interviews with teachers, departmental heads and school principals with *verbatim* quotations from the text of each of the interview transcriptions. Reference is made to the reviewed literature to provide the reader with a glimpse of the research problem and corresponding evidence the research has established as it relates to what is in the literature about teacher development.

5.2.2.1 The available teacher development opportunities

In section 3.3.2, Kennedy (2005), Whitcomb, Borko & Liston (2009) and Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1989) present various models of teacher development that range from the training model (*workshops and training*), cascade model (*meetings and workshops*), deficit model (*training that addresses a perceived deficit in teacher performance*) and the coaching or mentoring model (*one on one meeting between two*

teacher to support teacher development) that are available for school principals, departmental heads and teachers.

5.2.2.1.1 Teacher development opportunities available for school principals

All four principals mentioned various development opportunities available for them and how beneficial they are. The principal of school A maintained, “They develop us in management (and) we are informed about new developments in management.” Even though she was not forthcoming, focusing most on PSF meetings, the principal of school A made an indication that there is some development that is going on.

Concurring with her counterpart, the principal of school B argued, “Looking at the development pertaining my post, yes there are many development courses like (in) management and leadership, managing the finances of the school, managing the support staff and managing the peers (teachers) and everything, so I do benefit a lot”. Whilst not specifying in detail the actual development opportunities available to him, the principal of school C agreed that indeed there are development opportunities for principals. He argued, “The Department of (Basic) Education provides, at a large-scale, teacher development. Opportunities of development are there especially if you are a principal, opportunities of development come from different angles and directions.” The principal dwelt much on workshops and training for teachers instead of development opportunities for principals. The principal of school D on the other hand revealed that, “Our circuit Manager constantly visits us to monitor (us) and provide support regarding what we need assistance in at school.”

5.2.2.1.2 Teacher development opportunities available for departmental heads

While the majority of departmental heads pointed at PSFs and workshops as the common development opportunities available to them, the departmental head π2 of school D argued, “Teacher developments are firstly within the school, the class visits, monitoring by the deputy principal and then (collaboration) from my other educators (colleagues) who are doing the same subject as I am doing we develop each other and then outside the school we have workshops and again within the school the IQMS is there as the co-ordinator usually calls us for development.” Apart from the PSFs and

workshops mentioned by several departmental heads which are also attended by ordinary teachers, the departmental head number 2 of school A mentioned cluster meetings, conferences and school organised strategic planning meetings (bosberaad). She argued, "Err...if I can mention teacher development of the level that I am in, it's not much developmental programmes that are available for us but as a teacher there are a lot." Both departmental heads from school A disclosed that they were never invited to attend induction programmes as newly appointed departmental heads. Departmental head number 1 of school A maintained, "To tell the truth we were not inducted but the people who were appointed after us like the deputy principal were inducted."

Departmental head number 2 of school A also maintained, "Sir, unfortunately I was not inducted. I do not know what happened, we never received any invitation that says all those who were promoted must go for induction. I didn't get any induction."

5.2.2.1.3 Teacher development opportunities available for teachers

All eight teachers from all four schools mentioned PSF meetings and workshops which are either held in one of the local schools or workshops that are held at the sub-district office's boardrooms as their available development opportunities. However, some of the teachers provided additional opportunities such as collaborating with peers who teach the same subject, clustering with, sister schools, grade and phase meetings, conferences as well as SMT organised feedback meetings. Teacher number 1 of school D argued, "In our grade, in our subject we meet as teachers (to) discuss our differences in the different topics."

Teacher number 2 of school B maintained, "Our SMT organises meetings (again) during our grade (and) phase meetings where we get feedback from the SMT of the meetings/workshops that they have attended." Asked about who organised these meetings/workshops, teacher number 2 of school D maintained, "It is certain departmental heads a recent one we just had which was for safety was held at a school. Sometimes they hold them at the Area Office (sub-district offices) so it depends on them." Teacher number 1 of school B recalled, "I got a chance last year to attend the ICT in Jo'burg of which it took us about a week."

5.2.2.1.4 Models of teacher development

Teachers in all four schools including principals agreed that teacher development opportunities available to them range from workshops, grade meetings, phase meetings, Professional Support Forums (PSFs), conferences (Maths Lab and ICT) as well as training. The type or model of teacher development depends on the purpose of development. Teacher number 2 from school B argued, “In our phase meetings we get feedback from the SMT of the workshops that they attended where we get an opportunity to be developed in the areas that we need development in.

The principal of school A contended, “There are a lot of development opportunities because we are having PSF meetings.” The principal of school C further argued, “The department (of basic education) provides at a large-scale teacher development...and also the subject advisors from the department (of basic education) also offer workshops and training.” According to Teacher number 2 from school D, “There are usually PSF meetings which are workshops that teachers are often taken to regularly and short courses given to teachers related to (use of) technology or teaching.” Furthermore, teacher number 2 from school D added, “There was this one that focussed on computer training (ICT), they taught us how to use computers and how to integrate computer (usage) into teaching and learning”. Teacher number 1 of school B concurred, “I got a chance last year (2017) to attend the ICT (conference) in Jo’burg which took us about a week”. Asked about the importance of attending this week-long conference Teacher number 1 of school B lamented, “The learning areas (subjects) that I am teaching need someone who is technologically advanced or inclined.”

In section 3.2.4 it is reported that the context and activities in which people learn become a fundamental part of what they learn. It is further suggested that a classroom is a powerful context to learning, however, the school’s circumstances and available resources differ and that each training programme may need to select the most suitable venue as the “one size fits all” approach may be inappropriate and ineffective. Interviewees in all four participating schools categorised teacher development activities into in-school and out-of-school teacher development activities. The in-school teacher development programmes are training workshops that are organised at school either by subject heads, grade heads, departmental heads or the entire

school management teams either to give feedback on a meeting or workshop previously attended or conduct a training session. Teacher number 2 of school B concurs, "...in our phase meetings we get feedback from the SMT of the workshops...they attended." Concurring with other participants, Teacher number 1 of school A maintained, "In our grade...in our subject we meet as teachers to discuss our differences (approaches) in the different topics...the HOD organises the meeting and then the subject advisor organises the PSF meetings and workshops and in our clusters as Grade 5 teachers we meet to discuss (set common) question papers.

The out-of-school teacher development programmes include workshops, conferences and training sessions that are organised by the Sub-District based subject advisors, district-based officials from corporate service as well as experts from book publishing companies, NGOs and other departments such as health, social services and road safety. Asked about who organises and facilitates these workshops, Teacher number 2 of school B disclosed that, "It's the Department of (Basic) Education in our Area Offices (Sub-District Office), the subject specialists." Teacher number 2 of school D concurred, "Usually, it's specialists, either subject specialists or certain departmental heads...a recent one we just had was for safety...was held at a school...sometimes they hold them at the Area Offices (Sub-District Offices) so it depends on them."

5.2.2.1.5 Funding teacher development

In this research all teachers agreed that funding for teacher development is provided by schools, Department of Basic Education and the NGOs.

Asked about who funds teacher development teacher number 1 of school A maintained, "I think it is paid (for) by the Department of (Basic) Education and then the school provides us with transport to the place". Teacher number 2 of school C contended, "They (subject advisory) usually arrange transport for us if maybe we are going there for a couple of days. Like maybe (if) some (workshops) might take a week... they accommodate us and then that's it". According to Teacher number 2 of school D, "The (teacher development) activities are funded by the department (of basic education) or whoever is sponsoring that training." In section 3.2.3 par 2, the researcher argues that the relevant education department will pay for compulsory

development activities of teachers through Skills Development levy while... others will be paid for by teachers themselves notwithstanding the fact that several provincial bursaries will be available in priority fields of study. Teacher number 2 of school D argued, "I have a bursary that pays (for my studies). Everything has been paid for by the government. I only paid my registration but that was later refunded as they paid my bursary for my studies"

5.2.2.1.6 Participation in teacher development

In section 3.3.1, several principles of teacher development are mentioned, such as: seeing teachers differently, in which learners explore teachers by making changes to their daily teaching repertoires; accepting responsibility for your teaching and knowing that you need others to explore, as well as reflection as part of exploration in which teachers reflect at their work in the moment (reflect in action) or in retrospect (reflect on action) to examine reasons and beliefs behind their actions and develop alternative actions for the future are mentioned. Teachers participate in teacher development programmes either by attending and receive the cascaded informality or by contributing their ideas or opinions in different groups; or by sharing ideas in cluster meetings with their peers, or by facilitating in workshops, training sessions and in meetings organised at school or by engaging as individuals or groups with senior personnel during feedback sessions after being monitored.

Teacher number 1 of school A confessed, "Once teachers are clustered you know where you are going. You even examine yourself... Oh I was doing okay... I was not doing something that is not supposed to be done... if you are not doing what is in the programme you correct yourself. Teacher number 1 of school C concurred, "We work in groups ... so that at least there, as teachers, we can get new ideas and new skills and motivate each other" Teacher number 2 of school C echoed the sentiments of other teachers, "You make sure that you attend...and you meet up with other teachers whereby you engage with each other... you share ideas where one will learn more about a specific learning area".

5.2.2.1.7 Benefits of teacher development

Merriam *et al.* (2007:84) argue that adult learners' learning (see 4.3.4) must include an intrinsic value in which they can see personal payoff by gaining knowledge or skill. Teachers in all participating schools concur with this assertion. When asked about the benefit they get from the teacher development opportunities these are their responses. Teacher number 1 of school C boasted, "I came from there (Maths Lab workshop) having new skills and techniques which I can use that I did not have before. At least when I come to school I have new techniques that I (can) apply to students..." Teacher number 2 of school A, argued, "I get a lot of information from them (teacher development programmes) because some of the things I don't know (*sic*) there are a lot of ideas and opinions in so much that in some of the things that I don't know I get them and my school benefits." Teacher number 1 of school C maintained, "Seeing those learners prospering, it makes me feel good. I am not expecting any incentives of money. What I am looking at is to ensure that our community is educated...so that makes me proud..." Teacher number 2 of school B contended that "...as time changes and the curriculum changes, there are always changes and the curriculum changes, there are always changes and from these changes that we get... as an old teacher,... every time I get something new that changes the learner's behaviour and (the learners) learning opportunities." Excitedly,

Teacher number 1 of school B lamented, "Jah... I can say the benefits are that I am getting the points for the...err...what is this...the points to (for) the CPTD and the chance to get to the other colleagues and mix and talk about the challenges that we are having such as how do you manage discipline in class. One other thing is the challenge of these progressed learners." Teacher number 1 of school A maintained, "The benefits (are) of getting back to the learners handling the problems that learners are having...we see that the problems...are common... (we) got advices on how to handle them". According to teacher number 2 of school C, "At some point when you meet with the teachers, you will get other strategies... and it will be easier for your learners to understand the specific subject. They (teachers' development programmes) will develop a teacher as an individual to have more skills in the subject." Teacher number 2 of school D, argued, "Apart from seeing different colleagues and

learning some strategies you share ideas in teaching and learning and challenges that take place there.” In section 2.4.4 the researcher argues that teachers are the school’s greatest assets that stand at the interface of the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values and would only be able to fulfil that role if they are well prepared to maintain and improve their contribution through career long learning.

5.2.2.2 Effectiveness of teacher accountability systems

The following discussion looks at several accountability systems school principals, departmental heads and teachers mentioned.

5.2.2.2.1 Accountability from the perspective of the principals

School principals of all participating schools appeared to be aware of the South African Schools Act section 16A clause which requires principals of underperforming schools to ensure academic performance of their school’s learners and account for underperformance and develop academic intervention strategies for such underperformance. The principal of school B maintained, “Firstly, when a teacher is supposed to attend a developmental activity, he/she is funded by the department (of basic education), therefore, it is the responsibility of the person (teacher) to come back and give feedback.”

The principal continued, “Teachers must know that because we are paid therefore, we need to account.” The principal continued, “Teachers must know that because we are paid therefore, we need to be productive. Whatever you are mandated to do you need to account (for it).” The principal of school C concurred, “The attendance of workshops, especially those that are organised by the department (of education) is mandatory. There is no way that a teacher can fail to attend such training (which is) organised by the Department of (Basic) Education because teachers are paid for that. The teachers who are there (at school) are on duty whether it is in the afternoon (or not).

Failure to attend a workshop after you were informed on time is equal to misconduct.” The principal of school A lamented about the teacher’s resistance to developmental activities but acknowledged that they do account to their immediate heads. The principal further lamented, “Yes, but it is really a problem because others are resistant,

but we need to motivate them time and again so that they can participate and help learners in class.” However, none of the four principals of the participating schools mentioned the roles of the departmental heads or deputy principals in ensuring that their subordinate teachers account to them in terms of curriculum coverage per week, fortnightly or per quarter in terms of their annual teaching plans (ATP) except for the principal of school A who argued that, “The teacher must bring feedback. If I am not there and the HOD (is not there) I make follow-ups when I am present.” Asked about outside structures that monitor teachers’ development and their effectiveness such as SACE, the principal of school D argued, “Up to so far, no one monitors our loaded points.” The principal of school B argued, “No, not at all. There is no monitoring but then that does not mean (that) I as a manager must not encourage my educators to do that.” Initially the principal indicated that they do not get any update from SACE regarding their accumulated points or how to upload them. The principal argued, “We don’t get the report from SACE as to how many points we have accumulated so far.”

5.2.2.2.2 Accountability from the perspective of teachers

In line with what the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) document prescribes which dictates that an 80hour period per annum for teachers to engage in professional development activities a number of teachers saw their engagements in teacher development activities as self-driven.

Teacher number 1 of school D argued,” I feel guilty if I don’t participate and there are systems that are at school to monitor (teacher) development such as IQMS, so there are tools that are there to monitor whether teachers are developing (themselves) or not but most of the teachers really participate in their development.” Teacher number 2 of school A concurred,” If as a teacher you don’t develop (yourself) you will suffer in class (as) you can’t develop the learners if you are empty (and) you don’t know anything.” Apart from the sense of guilt that some teachers feel for not doing enough to improve learner performance is the sense of despondency when there is underperformance.

Teacher number 2 of school D contended, “I think there is that thought in a teacher that if only certain things could have been done but then we sometimes feel like our

hands are tight because we have deadlines and we have documents that we must provide for every learner.” Teacher number 1 of school C argued, “I think we account to the principal and parents because if we don’t attend them (teacher development programmes) we can’t bring new skills and techniques to the school, we can’t improve the learning area.” Once again, the teacher’s perspectives of accountability processes that happen at school do not make mention of the role played by SMT members as led by their respective departmental heads (*except for routine analysis of results per grade per subject after every quarterly examinations which is submitted to the sub-district office but rarely utilised to inform further planning as is the aim*) and DSGs (*except for routine pre and post evaluation meetings for developmental purposes which is submitted to the DSG but rarely utilised to inform further improvement on identified needs*). One wonders if indeed class visits and support by departmental heads do take place as well as the actual staff development endeavours by individual teachers’ DSGs. Instead teachers blame SACE for not monitoring and assisting them to upload their development activities and allocate them points for uploaded activities.

Regarding the ineffectiveness of SACE teacher number 1 of school D maintained, “I don’t think it (SACE) is effective because there is no time where teachers were given such points ...so it is just us teachers who want to develop ourselves, it is within us so those points ...it is not that they are pushing (motivating) us to do our work.”

5.2.2.2.3 In-school accountability systems

In all participating schools, interviewees maintained that all teachers have a responsibility to account about the development to the school management team which includes the principal, deputy principal, departmental heads, grade heads and subject heads. The principal of school C argued, “The attendance of workshops is mandatory. There is no way that a teacher can fail to attend such training organised by the Department of Education because teachers are paid for that”. The departmental head number 2 of school D maintained, “You account to the officials...to your superior.

If I am teaching English and the Circular is there informing me that I must attend, if I don’t attend, I think I must be accountable because I have wasted the money of the department and those kids won’t benefit”. The departmental head 11 of school D

contended, "What I think usually happens is that the subject advisor notices that a particular teacher from a particular school did not attend a workshop or PSF. He or she will make a follow-up to the school principal of that particular school to check as to what happened (and) the principal will have to approach you (and) that's where you now you will have to account as to why you didn't attend." Concurring with the rest of the interviewees, a post level one teacher from school A, argued, "After having gone to the workshop, I should go and report to the management and then (also) if I don't comply with what I've been taught in the workshop I should account to the management." On the other hand, teacher number 2 of school B conceded that, "As teachers we account to our HODs (departmental heads), to our principals and deputies." Teacher number 1 of school C argued, "Every time when we come from the workshop, we have to give feedback to the principal. What did we do there? How was it? Did we gain something out of it? Teachers generally agree that this accountability system is effective as long as the accounting officer of the school, the principal, is consistent". The principal of school C maintained. Asked about the effectiveness of the systems of holding teachers accountable for their development, teacher number 2 of school D argued, "It's very effective and I could also say in some parts it is not effective because some of them (teachers) are not very good at using computers so they might be participating (in teacher development activities) but unable to actually register their activities (for PD points).

The principal of school C argued, "Err, Mr Tiwani, they can be effective, they can be ineffective, it depends on the management of that principal. If the principal is consistent with the implementation of these processes they can be effective because all teachers will know that failure to attend the workshop or training steps will be taken against you but if the principal is inconsistent and is not serious about implementing the processes that are supposed to be implemented these processes won't be effective". Teacher number 2 of school C argued that the effectiveness of the system will be seen through learner performance. "I guess the principal will see by the performance of learners that err...the teacher has more knowledge that he or she is sharing with the learners".

5.2.2.2.4 External accountability systems

Interviewees in all schools agreed that as employees of the Department of Basic Education, teachers account to the employer as represented by the SMT, Circuit Manager, Subject Advisors, District officials and SACE. A departmental head number 2 from school B maintained, “In general, as teachers we account to the Department (of Basic Education). The department has put responsible personnel in all areas that it has authority over. Teachers in schools account to the HODs (departmental heads), HODs (departmental heads) account to the deputy principal when there is a deputy principal and if there is no deputy principal they account to the principal, categorically so the principal has to account to the circuit inspector (Circuit Manager).” Concurring with the other participants about the ineffectiveness of SACE in monitoring and coordinating teacher development the principal of school B argued, “We don’t get the report from SACE as to how many we have accumulated so far. The other challenge is the issue of uploading those activities and those points”.

Apart from the inability to upload and the unconfirmed number of points that teachers have accumulated, the principal of school B cited lack of incentives as another demotivating factor. The departmental head number 2 of school A maintained, “In my opinion so far, I don’t see any effectiveness because by now they (SACE) should have written a circular indicating that teacher x has so much points or does not have points, but it is just silent”. Teachers who attend teacher development activities are expected to login to the SACEs CPTD portal and register or upload their PD points depending on the type of professional development activities that they have attended (see section 3.2.1.2). The participants confirmed what is written in the literature, that SACE, which coordinates teacher development activities, has yet to allocate professional development points and certificates to teachers (see section 3.2.1.2). Elgart (2016:26) (see section 2.5 par 3) contends that there is a need for accountability systems that examine all aspects of what schools do, that reveal the causes of underperformance and reflects on the relationships between strategies that are implemented and the results they achieve or fail to achieve.

5.2.2.2.5 Learner performance versus teacher development

In section 2.2 teacher development is defined by various researchers as the professional growth of a teacher which he/she achieves over a period of time after undergoing training, learning, gaining experience and support activities that take place in a work-based setting or externally. Furthermore, in South Africa teacher development is currently addressed through a range of processes that include IQMS and programmes of Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD). According to the Department of Basic Education (see section 2.2 par 6), research concurs that teacher development should be classroom and curriculum-focused and concentrate on improving learner understanding and performance. Eighty percent of the participants maintained that teacher development is linked to learner performance. Teacher number 1 from school C maintained, "I think they do link because if a teacher does not want to develop himself (or herself) then he or she won't be able to teach what is expected to be taught in the class". She further added, "Nowadays we are no longer expected to use olden days' methods (of teaching) so you must make sure that we are developing us (sic) in new technologies". Teacher number 2 of school A concurred, "If as a teacher you don't develop, you will suffer in class. You can't develop learners if you are empty (and) you don't know anything". Participants in all four schools explained the advantages of participating in teacher development activities and how such participation is linked to learner performance. Teacher number 1 of school A argued, "According to me, if teachers are developed, they take the knowledge that they have acquired from the workshops and go back to learners and do what they have been taught".

He emphatically agreed that there is a link between teacher development and learner performance. "Yes, they do link because when you are developed you go back and implement what you have been taught". A departmental head number 2 from school C contends, "If learners didn't improve, it shows that the teacher didn't adhere to the instructions given during development workshops." According to a departmental head number 1 of school A, this could be the result of not fully comprehending the contents of the workshop as, according to her, "People do not understand things the same way". A departmental head number 2 of school B, argued, "As a teacher, you will see that

your learners are not performing well (and) you'll go to teacher development (structures) like IQMS and you'll state the performance standard that you don't understand or where you don't do well and you'll be helped by your SDT and DSG so that you'll be up to the (required) standard". A departmental head number 1 of school C, further argued, "I think there is (a link) because the moment you start accounting for learner performance, giving reasons and strategies it develops you as an individual because you stop relaxing now, you will have to start thinking and engaging other people who might be excelling in what they are doing so that you may also improve in whatever that seem to be the problem." However, while researchers agree that there is indeed a link between these two processes Darling-Hammond (2000:23) and Whitworth and Chiu (2015:126) (see section 1.4) argue that there are numerous factors which can influence the performance of learners which may be outside of the control of the teacher such as the social environment of the learner's socio-economic circumstances as well as other factors which might significantly and negatively correlated to learners' performance levels.

The principal of school C argued, "Teachers may attend workshops, but now when teachers are not teaching, becoming absent from work then its futile, learners will fail. Learners may come from different backgrounds where there are socio-economic conditions that affect their learning." Furthermore, the principal contended, "You can send teachers to workshops but learners who have got such situations (of) one parent family, not having a family, parents (who) are drinking and so on then it affects those learners (or) that particular learner. Even if a teacher can come and teach that child with that information a child that is being taught on a hungry stomach won't make it. It's going to be very difficult."

5.2.2.3 Perceptions of rural teachers about teacher development

In section 3.3.1.3, Gebhard (2005:12) is quoted urging teachers to rise above the idea that development should be based only on the concept of improvement but should be free to explore teaching to see their own teaching differently by embarking on self-observation, peer observation and talk with their peers about what was observed. The perceptions of teachers (including the principals and departmental heads) about teacher development ranged from it being more informative and providing information

sharing with peers to an unfriendly learning environment in which such development activities take place. Below follows a discussion of such perceptions.

5.2.2.3.1 Informative and collaborative

All participants regarded teacher development as being more informative. The principal of school C argued, “Err participating in teacher development is critical as I told you (that) improvement of results does not only come from one area (or) factor. It comes from many different angles and I believe that teacher development is one of them”. Teacher number 2 of school D regards teacher development as “very productive and very well organised”, while, a departmental head number 2 from school A elaborated further, “They (teacher development activities) are very good because we cannot say if you are a teacher (and) if you were good then you will always be good. You need to be revived. What you know must be refreshed.

They are also good because some of the meetings that we attend give us an opportunity to understand how we do and how are we in our schools because we are grouped with other schools then as a result you are able to rate yourself, you are able to rate your performance.” The departmental head number 2 of school B concluded by saying, “If you are a person with a nerve, you will come back because you want to improve your level if you were wrong and if you were higher you will need to keep up the (higher) level.” Concurring with the other teachers, teacher 1 of school A argued that teacher development opportunities provide them with a platform to benchmark with local peers. “You know where you are going. You even examine yourself (by saying) ‘Oh, I was doing Ok, I was not doing something that is not supposed to be done.’”

Echoing the sentiments of her counterpart, the principal of school D lamented, “There are things that I was not aware of but now as I also meet other principals of other schools and my seniors, I gain more. There are also challenges of other schools whereby when you meet other principals, they give you advices on how to solve those challenges.” Teacher number 1 of school B echoed the sentiments of departmental head number 2 of school B about teacher development opportunities being good but further added that, “Because, remember that we passed (graduated) so long ago from

college and then we need to be refreshed, we need to be equipped with new things. We were never trained in Maths Lab; we were never trained to teach using tablets. If it was not for teacher development I wouldn't use the projector and the whiteboard and connect to the laptop showing learners using the tablets that you must do this and do this and submit and it will mark (and) give feedback at the same time. So, if it was not for teacher development, I wouldn't be this person that I am today." However, when conducting workshops, rural school contexts such as multi-grades and teacher teaching multiple subjects seem not to be taken into consideration. While acknowledging the huge role played by the teacher development opportunities, departmental head number 2 from school C lamented, "Yoh, those classes are very difficult because when you teach Grade 1 in the same class with Grade 2 and 3 you have to use different skills and strategies to accommodate all those three grades."

She conceded that, "We were not (developed), we just attend the workshops and, in the workshops, they just combine us, they don't say you are teaching multi-grade classes, they don't separate us from others." Another teacher also conceded that in a Maths workshop that was held in Rustenburg they were also combined with high school teachers doing nothing related to Grade 7 curriculum. A limited number of participants viewed teacher development as either not enough and useful only to newly qualified teachers and generally a waste of time. The department head number 2 from school D argued, "Mhmm...I think they are not enough because we have got so many problems in our classrooms, yet we don't have time. The problem is time because if you leave them (learners) now and again you won't be able to cover what you are expected to cover during that period of time." The departmental head number 1 of school B argued, "Sometimes it's helpful to the new staff members."

In section 3.2.2 NEEDU (2018:12) is referred to as arguing that high performing schools do not have more time than other schools but employ an integrated series of practices to maximise the use of that time. Furthermore, the Department of Basic Education and Higher Education and Training (2011: 20) (see section 3.2.2) argues that scheduled time for school-based teacher development could also be integrated into the school timetable by adjusting the schooling week. The departmental head number 2 from school A concurred, "It's not necessary to add extra time beyond seven

hours. In my timetable there are free periods where we can take these learners (underperforming learners) and put them in one class, check which subjects have more failure rates so that we combine them and teach them at their rate”.

5.2.2.3.2 Unfriendly learning environment

Salina *et al.* (2016:70) (see section 2.5 par 3) contend that to boost academic achievement of low-performing schools learners need to be provided with additional instruction and together with their teachers they should have a sense or feeling, with their teachers, of connectedness. Connectedness, according to Stringer (2013: 103), is the development of meaningful relationships in pursuit of activities that promote student learning (see section 2.5 par 3).

Expressing their perceptions of teacher development from the rural primary school contexts half of the participants talked about unfriendly learning environments which make it difficult for many learners to perform well in their learning. Venting out her frustrations of not having a Xhosa subject advisor, departmental head number 2 of school C lamented, “When we teach Xhosa, because my classes are Xhosa classes, we don’t have a Xhosa subject advisor, so always if they handle the (teacher development) content in Tswana, I must use my own discretion to say maybe in Xhosa they are trying to say this. I am having a very difficult time especially here (as) they don’t have so many Xhosa (speaking people) so I catch up here and there. I collaborate with Tswana teachers and ask questions like when they say (this) in Tswana what they are saying in English then I translate that in Xhosa.” The principal of school C complained about school staffing issues and lack of funds to fund teacher development programmes.

The principal argued, “ I want to be honest with you because you can try your level best coming in and visits that happen at school they need you on the spot and there is a lot of administration that you have to do but because of the circumstances that are prevailing I find myself doing all these things. I don’t even have a deputy principal; I am a school that doesn’t qualify for a deputy principal. I am a principal; I am a deputy principal and I become an HOD (Departmental Head) because I have got one HOD here.” Complaining about lack of funds the principal of school C argued, “Challenge

number one is financial support because these workshops...they are many. Sometimes it becomes a challenge to attend a workshop if you must pay registration fees. Asked about the assistance teachers provide to the progressed learners, participants painted a picture of learners who have low-self-esteem but expect to be progressed to the next grade without putting much effort. Teacher number 2 of school D argued, "I've noticed that there are learners that are not really challenged learners in terms of learning barriers and so but its learners that were progressed because of age so because they missed a lot of work in their previous grade they end-up performing badly because now they have a bunch of work that they have to catch up (with) and they are already in higher grades." The departmental head number 2 of school A argued, "These learners need time, teachers need to have more time with them in order to fill the gaps so that when you give them activities, their activities must be for their level in order for them to grasp more easily, then you can move to the normal ones." The principal of school D maintained, "Sometimes (progressed learners') problems lie with the teachers. You will find that when teachers are supposed to identify learners with (learning) barriers, they don't (identify them) and (instead) simply progress them without any referrals to specialist structures (such as ELSEN) and individuals." Regarding the availability of systems at school that are meant to address the socio-economic conditions of learners so that they are motivated to learn, the principal of school C argued, "Yes there are such systems. Most of the time it's very difficult for such systems to be effective because you know there is that committee called ILST (Institutional Learner Support Team) that requires that the learners must have profiles, the teacher must have all the information of the learner...and all that and also follow-up where there are challenges whether it's a social, parental or home challenge. These systems are not that functional because teachers are grappling with overload of work."

5.2.2.4 Professional development challenges of rural schoolteachers

Mohangi *et al.* (2016:73), as referred to in section 2.5.3, identify socio-economic and cultural contexts of rural life as impacting on education and demands teachers to understand them. On the other hand, according to Du Plessis (2014: 1111), challenges of rural teachers include curriculum challenges, poverty, unattractive nature of rural

schools, lack of resources and technology changes which are significant to a rural schoolteacher. Participants in all four schools mentioned a number of challenges that rural schoolteachers face on a daily basis in their professional development endeavours among which are socio-economic conditions, overcrowded classes, mixing teachers from different contextual environments in development activities, ill-disciplined learners as well as distance.

5.2.2.4.1 Socio-economic conditions

Darling-Hammond (2000: 23) and Heystek and Terhoven (2015: 620), as referred to in section 1.4, concur as they assert that learners' socio-economic circumstances such as poverty levels, vandalism, crime, poor infrastructure, lack of resources, absenteeism and overcrowded classes negatively affect learner performance. Teacher number 1 of school C lamented, "Poverty, the learners that we are teaching come from families that are very poor some of them come to school on an empty stomach. "Sometimes the learners would not come to school due to the gangsters' activities so it's very difficult and some are heading families so it's really difficult to teach when you see that most of the learners are having family problems." The departmental head number 1 of school D concurred, "The problem that we encounter is poverty that affects the learners as a result of unemployment. You will find out that families are child headed, absenteeism of learners, late coming of learners due to distance. HIV and AIDS is another thing that is becoming a challenge." The socio-economic circumstances of the rural communities spill over and affect the quintal of the school. In rural areas mostly, learner numbers decrease each year due to the movement of families to urban areas which affect the amount of money the school receives as government allocation.

According to the 2019/20 Preliminary Resource Allocation for Public Ordinary Schools, Including Grade R (Department of Education and Sports Development, 2018:1), small schools, including farm schools receive a maximum amount of R32 197,00 for a single academic year as state allocation. The departmental head number 2 from school C argued, "Our school does not have money for us to attend workshops, we have to borrow from other people to go to the workshops." The principal of school C concurred, "Challenge number one is financial support because these workshops...they are many

(for) different subjects. The school is supposed to transport teachers to workshops otherwise they (teachers) won't move an inch because they believe that they are sent by the school and then now it's up to the school to ensure that they are there.

Sometimes it becomes a challenge to attend a workshop if you must pay registration fees. You would wish to attend yourself and your staff and would realise that they are charging a certain high registration fee where you pay for travelling yourself (as) they cannot transport you.” According to the Ministerial Committee Report on Rural Schooling (DBE, 2005:24), the homogenous approach that is used by the government to fund all schools is failing to redress inequality in rural schools. Schools are still funded according to the quintals (socio-economic conditions of the areas in which they are situated which are 1 – 5) and the number of learners a school has admitted. The principals of schools B and C apportioned blame for their lack of development opportunities at their schools to lack of funds as their schools receive less financial support due to dwindling learner numbers. Coupled to this funding problem is teachers' conditions of service (especially accommodation as many teachers stay in town due to costs and venue challenges) and school security issues since gangs and Izinyoka (illegal miners) continuously vandalise schools.

5.2.2.4.2 Training for overcrowded classrooms

The Department of Basic Education (2017: 8) drafted a policy, Rural Education Draft Policy which provided for the development of context-specific strategies to deal with challenges in rural schools (see section 3.2.1 par 1). Such context-specific strategies include career progression, teacher development and rural allowances among other things.

However, participants still complain about overcrowded multi-grade classes that they must deal with even though they have never been developed on how to deal with such classes. The departmental head number 2 from school C argued, “Yoh! Those classes (multi-grade classes) are very difficult because when you teach Grade 1 in the same class with Grade 2 and Grade 3, you must use different skills and strategies to accommodate all those three grades”. She further maintained, “As a teacher of multi-grade classes there are lots of challenges because every child needs attention (and)

now if you have more than fifty learners (in a class) how are you going to help those learners individually? That's my whole challenge."

Teacher number 1 of school C concurred, "The challenge is that we find it difficult to do one on one with learners in class because they are many." Teacher number 1 further associated this lack of quality time with individual learners with progressed learners. Teacher number 1 argued, "Yes that's why they are progressed. Sometimes other kids are slow, sometimes you concentrate on the ones that are faster and you forget about the slow ones (and) that group of learners are the ones that are always progressed. They need time with the teacher so that they can improve." According to teacher number 1 of school B, overcrowded classes lead to ill-disciplined learners. Describing her overcrowded class teacher number 1 of school C maintained, "(Learners in a class are) sixty to sixty-seven to such an extent that they don't fit in the normal class." The issue of progressed learners and overcrowded classes is supposed to be addressed by individual schools with the support of district officials taking the uniqueness of each school's circumstances. School Management Teams must develop intervention strategies for improving learner and school performance but many of the interviewed departmental heads and school principals seem not to comprehend that but instead complain about their individual schools' adverse learning and teaching conditions.

There is no teacher development on these issues that these schools are doing except giving feedback to teachers on meetings and workshops attended as well as holding grade and phase meetings to give reports on previous meetings attended by either departmental heads or deputy principals for their respective grades and phases.

5.2.2.4.3 Distance and learner absenteeism

Section 2.5.3 refers to Mohangi *et al.* (2016: 72) in which they contend that the rural context of rural schools presents itself with challenges such as the isolated setting, access to public transport, school attendance problems and diverse learner backgrounds. A number of participants identified distance as one of the challenges they face in their professional development endeavours as it relates both to them and learners.

The principal of school D talked about the distance that teachers must travel to workshop or meeting venues, “The main challenge still remains the distance that teachers travel to and from these town schools where meetings and workshops are held.” This is confirmed by the dwelling patterns of rural schoolteachers disclosed during the interviews with them. Coupled to the issue of distance is the inaccessibility of rural schools during rainy days. Teacher number 2 of school A argued, “The Department of Public Works has to maintain the roads so as to be accessible even during rainy days.” While Seltzer and Himley (1995: 37) in section 2.5.2, propose a professional development and school improvement model that addresses the challenges of rural schools, the policy on Roles and Responsibilities of Education Districts (2013b: 7) concede that ‘some education districts cannot provide effective services to their schools and some do not have delegated authority to recruit or deploy staff members in their offices or in education institutions (see section 1.5 par 3).

5.2.2.5 Possible solutions to rural schoolteachers’ challenges

To address rural school teacher development challenges, Seltzer and Himley (1995: 37) (see section 2.5.2) propose a professional development and school improvement model that employs four interrelated elements which are associated with how schools change, namely - the change process; the school-based improvement; a focus on teaching and learning and teacher development. Participants in all four schools echoed the sentiments of Seltzer and Himley (1995) as they also talked about the change process, school-based improvement and a focus on teaching and learning.

5.2.2.5.1 Change process

A change process, according to Seltzer and Himley (1995), reflects on participation and support, changing behaviours and beliefs as well as addressing the issues of collaboration. The departmental head number 1 of school A maintained, “We need development in how to handle social related challenges of learners because now I would see it fit (to solve it) my way and find out that I shouldn’t have done it that way (but) I should have done one, two, three and at times it would put me in danger because I would ask Ma’am (a colleague) to go to the learner’s place and once we reach that place we don’t know what is awaiting us...fights and other things.” She

further lamented, “If I was in charge I would try to find out, do a research, probably send emails to schools and identify problems and find solutions. Every stakeholder should be invited and work-shopped on how to handle things like gangsters because we want to solve them but have no training.” The departmental head number 2 of school A concurred, “Engaging stakeholders to deal with socio-economic conditions that affect learners.” On the other hand, teacher number 1 of school A argued, “I would advise them (rural schoolteachers) to have clusters so that (they) teachers can help each other.” She further supported her suggestion of clustering teachers by saying, “Once teachers are clustered you know where you are going. You even examine yourself (by saying) ‘Oh, I was doing Ok, I was not doing something that is not supposed to be done.’ If you are not doing what is in the programme (ATP) you correct yourself.”

5.2.2.5.2 School-based improvement

Siltzer and Himley (1995: 37) (see section 2.5.2) contend that school-based improvement puts more emphasis on the importance of school-level teams and their involvement in the needs assessment and planning process. Emphasising on the importance of school level teamwork and their part in needs assessment and planning teachers had this to say. The principal of school B argued, “If I were in charge I would identify the developmental needs (of teachers) and then I would set enough time (for teacher development) because that is one of the areas educators are crying for.” She further argued, “They (teachers) would be work-shopped for a day but the department (of basic education) would expect a lot from a one-day workshop.

When developing what is needed, I think you would get the best results.” Referring to Harsey and Blanchard’s Swot Analysis, the departmental head number 2 of school C contended, “Err, first I would ask the teachers about how they feel about their development opportunities and challenges and then I would compile a report and take the necessary steps and write a report and forward it to the relevant person. Some teachers felt that hiring extra teachers might help alleviate the challenge of overcrowded classes. Teacher number 1 of school C argued,” I think the department needs to hire more educators. Right now, I am teaching Maths from Grade 4 to Grade 6. That’s a lot of work. That’s why I am saying we can’t have time for the slower

learners. If they can at least hire more teachers, you will have time because you will be concentrating on this class that you have.” Teacher number 1 of school B concurred, “Firstly, the one of the overcrowded class I would start with it because it has a lot of effects on the failure rate of learners. How about hiring an SGB teacher that will help us break up the class (of 62 learners)? Hiring teachers and sending to for induction programmes where they will be thoroughly developed might increase learner performance in these rural schools. The principal of school C further raised the issue of the planning process for school improvement. “In my planning, I would have dates for the workshops and then I would, sort of, have an estimated budget and maybe, I would influence the department (of basic education) to allocate certain amount of money to be budgeted for and then be released to schools and we would know that there is no way that a teacher would not attend a workshop because of financial constraints.” However, while one would agree with the principal of school C on limited financial allocations given to schools by provincial governments, schools are still expected to raise funds to augment state allocations as allocations differ from school to school due to the quintal system (see section 5.3.2.4 (a). Furthermore, lamenting about the poor quality of workshop facilitators the principal suggested that, “I would make sure that the presenters in these workshops, must really be super presenters. They must be really super presenters so that there is no teacher go(ing) back to their school uninformed, unclear, you know doubting, so it must be presenters who really know their story.”

5.2.2.5.3 Focusing on teaching and learning

Arguing about the quality of teaching and learning that emphasises on the holistic curricular and instruction that further supports connections with parents and the community, teachers had this to say. Teacher number 1 of school A argued, “We can be taught how to use projectors but if there are no projectors in the classrooms it actually doesn’t provide more opportunities for learners to gain from the development opportunities that we get.” Teacher number 1 of school A further maintained, “Most, I think in most rural schools I’ll try to meet certain standards for example all the grades in our school do not have the actual projectors in the classrooms. I’ll try to have at least one projector per grade that they (learners) would use now and then because

from our studies we hear that learners from other countries...are using computers daily so we are going to have learners coming out of our schools without any technological awareness or any technological training at all so I think if they were introduced to some of at least the minimum technological equipment that we can give in the classroom maybe one per grade so that they are allowed these things and see how they work. "A number of teachers saw parent involvement including SGB and some other stakeholders as the best possible way of supporting teachers' connections with parents and other communities at large. Teacher number 1 of school C contended, "I would try and convince the community as a whole like parents, SAPS, the church and teachers to work together to form something like an NGO or a group to discuss such matters and to come up with a plan that will work monthly." The principal of school A maintained, "I think I would need to interact a lot with teachers and parents so that we can work hand in hand."

5.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter data analysis and the discussion of the research findings with regard to the research questions formulated in Chapter 1 were discussed. The research findings were based on the analysed documents and categories and sub-categories that were identified and formulated from individual interviews conducted with the principals, departmental heads and teachers.

In the following chapter, an interpretation of the research findings is made.

CHAPTER 6: INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 5, the results were discussed, both from the study of documents and individual interviews with teachers, departmental heads and school principals. The findings of the research were based on the analysis of documents and the main and sub-categories that were formulated from individual interviews that were conducted with teachers, departmental heads and school principals of the four participating schools. This chapter focuses on the interpretation of the research results. In this chapter, the main focus of the research study is restated, including the sub-questions and objectives and how its importance was motivated in Chapter 1. The main research findings are presented and analysed along the four research questions stated in Chapter 1 including the interpretations of how well the results link with what is written in the literature.

6.2 THE RESEACH FOCUS

The purpose of the research was to investigate whether there are any problems with teacher development for school improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District. The research was premised on the assumption that teachers do better in classes when they have undergone developmental training from time to time resulting in improved learner performance.

The research was based on the following research question:

What problems of teacher development do rural primary school teachers of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District experience?

The Department of Basic Education (2011:186), as referred to in Section 1.3, conceded in its technical report about teacher education and development in South Africa that the North West Province has no teacher development institutions but only support centres in districts that do not adequately assist teachers in their development

needs, that the North West Province does not have a framework for teacher development but only rely on IQMS (for classroom based teachers) and PMDS (for office based teachers) which have both been found to be ineffective in many schools by researchers and that teacher development in the North West Province is not given the necessary attention as is the case in the Gauteng Province (which has the Mathew Goniwe School of Leadership) and the Western Cape Province (which has the Cape Teaching Institute in Kuilsrivier). In Section 1.4, reference is made to the Department of Basic Education's 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014 ANA Reports regarding the performance of grade 3 and grade 6 learners in both English First Additional Language and Mathematics which was found to be alarmingly low, thus prompting the North West Province's district officials to conduct accountability sessions for low performing schools, to introduce English Teaching Across the Curriculum and the commonly set quarterly tests for grades 1 to 9 learners. Section 4.4 refers to the NEEDU circular which invited 23 underperforming primary schools and 4 underperforming secondary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District to district workshops. Most of these schools are in the rural and farm areas. In Section 1.4, reference is made to Darling-Hammond (2000:23) who argues that teacher development and academic performance of learners cannot be separated as there is a direct link between the two. Furthermore, Darling-Hammond maintains that teacher development is aimed at improving the academic performance of learners.

The research sub-questions were:

- i. Which developmental opportunities are available for rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District and how efficient are teacher development opportunities?
- ii. Why should teachers be held accountable for teacher development and learner performance?
- iii. What are the perceptions of teachers about the current teacher development opportunities of rural primary school teachers of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District?

- iv. How can the challenges of teacher development in rural primary schools be addressed?

The research generally aimed to obtain a better understanding of the problems of teacher development to school improvement in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda rural primary schools as well as to provide guidelines and adopt an approach for the professional development of these teachers.

In order to achieve this aim, the following objectives were identified:

- i. To explore and investigate the efficiency of the available teacher development opportunities of rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District.
- ii. To describe the effects and implications of teacher accountability measures for teacher development and learner performance.
- iii. To establish the perceptions of teachers about the current teacher development opportunities from the viewpoint of rural primary school teachers.
- iv. To develop guidelines and adopt approaches that will be used to address problems of teacher development for school improvement in rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District.

6.3 TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The research highlighted several shortcomings that relate to teacher development as executed by individual teachers themselves, by IQMS school-based structures such as Developmental Support Groups (DSGs), by School Management Teams as well as by sub-district personnel such as Senior Education Specialists and District Teacher Development Officials. Below follow the main research findings structured along the five research questions as stated in section 1.

6.3.1 The efficiency of developmental opportunities of rural schoolteachers

In this research, teacher development is understood to mean professional growth of a teacher which he or she achieves over a period after undergoing training, learning, gaining experience and support activities that take place in a work-based setting or externally (see section 2.1). Teachers achieve such growth in several ways. In section 2.3.2, the researcher provided three theories through which teachers achieve their development. These are the social learning theory which is based on the premise that people can learn by observing the behaviours of others but not perform them until a later time or not perform them at all; the constructivism theory which posits that learners learn by constructing their own knowledge through interacting with the environment and reorganising their mental processes, changing or rejecting ideas they already have as well; and the self-directed learning theory in which individuals take the initiative with or without the help of others in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating goals, identifying resources for learning, choosing and implementing learning strategies and evaluating the learning outcomes. The research revealed the availability of general teacher development opportunities and particular teacher development models as described from the point of view of teachers, departmental heads and principals.

6.3.1.1 General teacher development opportunities

The research found that teachers have several developmental opportunities from school level up to district level. These range from staff meetings, grade meetings, phase meetings, workshops as well as Professional Support Forums that are organised for teachers. However, the research revealed that there are not enough teacher development opportunities from the side of the school while the departmental officials on the other hand organise enough of these opportunities in the form of PSFs, workshops and conferences. None of the four participating schools took the initiative of organising a teacher development programme where an expert would be invited to develop teachers on an identified need. Schools simply relegate this function to the School Development Team's IQMS processes.

Teachers only relied on the cascade model of development in which SMT members report back on workshops or meetings they attended. One of the two underperforming schools, school D, was taken to teacher development retreat, to be developed on areas that were identified by the district officials which included management and leadership as well as academic performance improvement, by the District personnel because of its continued underperformance.

The principal of school C revealed that they don't organise teacher development programmes but simply submit the Educator's Improvement Plan to the Circuit Manager's office which contains individual teachers' identified needs. This is a further relegation of the principal's responsibilities to develop teachers on identified development needs to the office of the Circuit manager. Section 4.2(e)(ii) of the Personnel Administration Measures (Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998) maintains that one of the core duties and responsibilities of the principal is *"to be responsible for the development of staff training programmes, but school-based, school-focused and externally directed and to assist educators...in developing and achieving educational objectives in accordance with the needs of the school"*.

Staff Meetings – The research brought to the fore the fact that principals, deputy principals, departmental heads and subject heads facilitate staff meetings that are authorised by principals to give feedback and cascade information on a range of issues that they were trained on regarding the content of different subjects or on how to operate technological devices such as tablets in a Maths Lab or tablets or Laptops in a school's computer Lab when teaching certain subjects. In section 3.3.2.3, Kennedy (2005) describes the cascade model as that which involves teachers attending 'training events' and thereafter disseminating the information to colleagues. The weakness of this model, according to Kennedy (2005), is that it is skills and knowledge focused and rarely value focused.

Grade Meetings – The research further revealed that departmental heads facilitate meetings in the departments that they are heading to give feedback on SMT meetings that they attended or on PSF meetings they attended which were addressed either by Senior Education Specialists or NGOs such as book publishers.

Apart from giving feedback to their subordinates, departmental heads are procedurally required to provide them with subject content related support and guidance, however, in this research, none of the eight departmental heads interviewed mentioned ever conducting class visits as part of their duties.

One would argue that School Management Team members, of which departmental heads are part, have relegated their obligations of supporting and guiding their subordinates to the Developmental Support Groups of the school based Integrated Quality Management System.

Workshops and Professional Support Forums – In this research, teachers, principals and departmental heads revealed that Senior Education Specialists conduct workshops and Professional Support Forums with subject teachers and their departmental heads from time to time. In the analysed documents, the researcher noted the fact that Senior Education Specialists (SESSs) are supposed to assist teachers to identify, assess and meet the needs of learners through professional leadership, development of systems to monitor learners' progress to achieve set targets and facilitate curriculum development and support staff development activities for teachers (see section 5.3.1.3.2). However, a Post Audit Action Plan Report for 2017 (see section 5.3.1.3.2) found that SESSs provided inadequate district monitoring of curriculum management on certain grades and subjects; SESSs did not assess progress with curriculum coverage and did not always assess the adequacy of the monitoring and support by School Management Teams for individual teachers. In school B, the research found inadequate monitoring of ATP with no recommendations provided on non-compliant teachers. Interviewees in all schools agreed that workshops and Professional Support Forums are frequently held, funded by either individual schools (on transport and sometimes catering of teachers) or sub-district and district offices. However, the research revealed that some are not as competent as they ought to be. An educator in school D maintained that SESSs worry more about accountability instead of properly training teachers during these workshops and PSFs. One principal expressed a need for workshop facilitators to be super presenters when it comes to their facilitation skills.

Asked about how he would ensure that there is improvement, the principal of school C contended, *"I would make sure that the presenters in these workshops... (are) super presenters."* The research revealed that teachers used the PSFs, workshops and conferences organised by the DBE to their benefit and the benefit of their learners. One teacher from school B boasted that, had it not been for the Maths Lab training provided to them, she would not have known how to teach learners using laptops and a whiteboard. Another teacher from school B further echoed the sentiments of his colleague by saying, *"we qualified from college long ago and we need to be refreshed."*

However, a lack of resources such as laptops, whiteboards or overhead projectors in schools compounds the problem as one teacher lamented, *"You can take teachers to as many workshops as you can but if there are no resources, they won't be able to use the skills to the benefit of learners."* The principal of school C further added that teacher development alone is not enough to enhance learner performance. There are other contextual factors which also need to be addressed and which are outside the classroom situation but have an influence in learner performance. While one acknowledges the role played by the DBE officials in reskilling teachers, there seem to be an imbalance in the teacher development. Schools do not initiate teacher development programmes but rely on the DBE. School Management Teams only have teacher development on paper in their year plans or management programmes but hardly do such development for their teachers. The trend in schools is the tendency of doing closing parties for teachers in the name of teacher development or team building which are largely referred to in the Afrikaans language as *"bosberaad"*. The departmental officials, through the Subject Advisory Services, conduct Professional Support Forums, Workshops and Conferences for teachers of different subjects while at the same time conducting leadership, management and governance training sessions for SMT and SGB members through Institutional Governance and Support Service (IGSS).

6.3.1.2 Teacher development opportunities from the point of view of teachers

The research revealed that some teachers cluster with sister schools and collaborate with those who teach the same subjects and exchange information and share ideas on how to tackle certain topics of common concern.

Furthermore, the research found that some teachers still favour the Professional Support Forums as well as workshops that are organised by their Senior Education Specialists. The research further revealed that teacher development opportunities are classified into the in-school and out-of-school teacher development programmes.

In-School Teacher Development Opportunities: The research revealed that, apart from the general teacher development opportunities found in schools such as grade meetings, staff meetings and phase meetings, there is IQMS from whose processes each teacher nominates a Developmental Support Group that is supposed to mentor and support him/her, assist him/her to develop his/her Personal Growth Plan and conduct the developmental processes for him/her (see section 5.2.1.1). After this, the entire staff's Educator Improvement Plan is developed so that common developmental needs of all the teachers of a school are identified and handled by the school's Staff Development Team or the Sub-District or District's IGSS. However, the research further revealed an inadequate participation of schools in IQMS processes. From the four participating schools, the research revealed that very few teachers had the minutes of the post IQMS evaluation meetings (school A, B and D, in particular) and that minutes were not signed and detailed as to what was discussed in those meetings and how the teacher was guided (see section 5.2.1.1). Furthermore, only two schools had the Educator's Improvement Plans from which the developmental needs of teachers are compiled for the District officials to be able to plan developmental opportunities for identified teachers per school, circuit and sub-district. This was further corroborated in the interviews where very few teachers (one from school A and another from school D) mentioned IQMS as one of the opportunities that they have for teacher development. One would therefore argue that IQMS processes are not serving the intended role of developing teachers for skills improvement for improved learner performance. Coupled to that is the silence of teachers, particularly members of SMT, about class visits. In section 5.2.1.3, it is reported that only three schools had in-school monitoring reports (school A, C and D) and none of these reports mention anything about class visits by principals, deputy principals or departmental heads.

The research revealed that, in the in-school monitoring reports, there is no reference to either compliance or non-compliance to the recommendations of the previous monitoring which then gives an impression that monitoring is just done for the sake of having it done instead of doing it to support and guide subordinates.

The principals of school B and C, which have the least number of learners and as a result fewer staff members while battling overcrowding and multi-grade classes (see section 4.6), argued respectively that, (Principal of school B), *"You know the issue of monitoring is a very serious issue. I am a principal, I am teaching three classes, I am expected to teach, I am expected to plan, I am expected to assess. Therefore, my time of monitoring is very less, then it needs me to now go an extra mile. It means I must use weekends if I have to (must) look at the files. If I have to do class visits it means I have to look at my free periods of which now I have to do things of the office."* (Principal of school C), *"Monitoring happens and monitoring does not happen, it depends from school to school and circumstances to circumstances and you ask yourself who is able to monitor learners and teachers, one HOD (departmental head) from Grade R, 1, 2, 3 Foundation Phase; Grade 4, 5, 6 Intermediate phase to Grade 7 Senior phase whether it is practically possible for a person who is teaching himself a multi – grade, is teaching 1, 2, 3 full class up to 60 (learners) and then is expected to perform in class and also monitor to ensure that all the staff members' work is being done and learners' work is being done"? Out-Of-School Teacher Development Opportunities:* Again, apart from workshops and Professional Support Forums, teachers, departmental heads and principals mentioned support visits to the individual schools and specific teachers by Senior Education Specialists and Circuit Managers as part of their development. The research revealed that Senior Education Specialists make use of three kinds of monitoring reports when visiting schools to monitor and guide teachers. These are the subject specific reports (in which feedback and support is given to the teacher on the expected content of a specific subject); the one paged evidence of Senior Education Specialist (in which the Senior Education Specialist indicates the date, purpose and teacher(s) visited); and the Provincial SBA Moderation report for GET (to moderate teachers' content coverage and compliance with CAPS from teachers' files and a sample of learners' work).

The research revealed that, in the Subject Specific Reports, there are no recommendations on areas of non-compliance which include whether curriculum coverage was adequate or not as well as whether assessment tasks were in line with the Programme of Assessment of the specific subject or not. This was the case mostly in school B, where the report on curriculum coverage only read, 'On par with ATP' and did not recommend anything on assessment, even though the teacher didn't do item analysis at the end of the term, as required, to show that she had diagnosed poor performance by learners (see section 5.2.1.1.1). This finding is in line with the findings of the Post Audit Action Plan Report for 2017 (NWED, 2017:5) which concluded that SESs provided inadequate district monitoring of curriculum management as well as curriculum coverage (see section 5.3.1.3.2). The Provincial SBA Moderation Report is done by subject teachers who have been contracted to do that by the North West Department of Education and Sports Development. The research found that these reports also have no recommendations for improvement and there are no follow ups on negative findings that are made.

While some participants hailed the above teacher development opportunities as developmental, some complained about their content. Complaining about the level of the facilitator's facilitation skills, one principal suggested that, if the DBE can train the trainers of teachers, things could be better. Another teacher summed it up when he said that workshops and PSF meetings are just a formality that gives Senior Education Specialists a sense of satisfaction under the disguise that they have trained the teachers, even though the content was of poor standard. According to another teacher, her area of concern, the multi-grade classes, has never been addressed in these PSFs or workshops to an extent that she no longer asks questions but seeks advice from others who are in the same dilemma as she. The research further revealed that smaller rural schools, specifically school C, which had a learner enrolment of 250 learners with a staff complement of 8 teachers as well as school B with a learner enrolment of 386 learners and staff complement of 10 teachers frequently complain about limited funding they receive from the Government as a result of their learner population which makes it impossible for them to pay for teacher's transport and catering when they have to attend teacher development activities.

6.3.2 The implications of current teacher accountability systems

Accountability is the obligation of an individual or organisation to account for its activities, accept responsibility for them and to disclose the results in a transparent manner, including the responsibility for money or other entrusted property (www.businessdictionary.com). An obligation on the other hand is a course of action that one is required to take, whether legal or moral. There is obligation of etiquette, social obligation, religious and political obligations where obligations are requirements which must be fulfilled. Moral obligation is an obligation arising out of considerations of right or wrong. Moral obligation is an obligation arising from ethical motives or a mere conscientious duty, unconnected with any legal obligation, perfect or imperfect, or with the receipt of benefit by the promisor of a material or pecuniary nature (<https://definitions.uslegal.com>). Moral obligation comes from a sense of justice and equity that an honourable person would have and not from a mere sense of doing benevolence or charity (<https://definitions.uslegal.com>). Legal obligation is the obligation or duty that is forced by a court of law, it can be a debt and the legal responsibility to carry out what the law asks (<https://thelawdictionary.org/legalobligation>) while responsibility is a duty or obligation to satisfactorily perform or complete a task (assigned by someone or created by one's own promise or circumstances) that one must fulfil and which has a consequent penalty for failure (www.businessdictionary.com). Teachers account to several structures such as the South African Council of Educators, School Management Teams, Staff Development Teams and Senior Education Specialists and or Circuit Managers. Each accountability session or encounter with each of the above structures has some implications for teacher development.

6.3.2.1 Implications regarding South African Council of Educators

In South Africa, teachers are legally obliged to spend at least 80 hours per annum doing teacher development activities (see section 1.5). The Department of Basic Education organises teacher development programmes such as workshops or PSF meetings, which are facilitated by individual Senior Education Specialists (SESSs), for teachers.

Furthermore, the National Policy Framework on Teacher Education and Development in South Africa mandated the South African Council of Educators (SACE) to implement, manage and quality assure the teacher's development system (see section 3.2.3). Teachers are required to embark on teacher development activities, be they self-chosen, school-initiated or employer initiated and to, on completion, qualify to get points from SACE which will culminate into certificates of participation in professional development, provided they are 150 and above, within a three-year cycle (DoE, 2007:20). The research revealed that teachers, departmental heads and principals alike have a negative perception about SACE. Teacher number 1 of school A and teacher number 1 of school, D while acknowledging that SACE encourages teachers to develop themselves and to participate in development activities to acquire points, further rebuked it, arguing that it is not effective as there is no evidence of points being given to teachers. Teacher number 1 of school B argued that you upload development activities done but don't get feedback from SACE on how many points you have achieved. Teacher number 1 of school C didn't say anything about SACE as she is an SGB employee with 1 and a half years of teaching experience. Teacher number 2 of school C who is not qualified enough as a teacher, having a Diploma in Language Practice and a PGCE, also didn't say anything about SACE, implying that he doesn't know anything about it being a teacher development accountability structure. The departmental head number 1 of school A didn't see any effectiveness in SACE as, according to her, *"by now SACE should have issued a circular indicating the number of points each teacher has acquired."* Some teachers blame the Department of Basic Education for not empowering them enough about SACE and its (CPTD) points system. It is evident from the participants' reaction that they don't value the role of SACE in effecting their participation in developmental activities.

The principals, on the other hand, many of whom were not eloquent about SACE and its effectiveness in encouraging their development, also rebuked it for not reporting to individual teachers about the number of points they had accumulated. The research revealed that none of the participants, including the principals (*who were the first group to be trained on SACE's CPTD and the acquisition of points*), seem to understand how to log-in to the SACE's CPTD portal to upload their individual developmental activities and allocate themselves points, based on the type of developmental activity they have

attended. The research highlighted that the centre managers who are based in support centres, as reported by the Department of Basic Education in the 2011 – 2025 Technical Report (see section 1.3) and who are supposed to encourage teachers and departmental heads to sign-in for CPTD, do not make follow-ups on individual schools and teachers about attending and uploading teacher developmental programmes, but expect these teachers to upload and indicate the developmental activities they have attended on the CPTD portal without motivating them.

6.3.2.2 Implications regarding IQMS's developmental support groups

The Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) Resolution 8 of 2003 (ELRC, 2003:4) further promulgated the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) to provide support and opportunities of development for teachers to assure their continued growth. Teachers are obliged to embark on IQMS development processes through their Developmental Support Groups (DSGs) and to submit evidence of such development through their School Development Teams (SDT) to their respective district offices to qualify for pay progression. In the Report to the Portfolio Committee on the IQMS (DBE, 2006:1), the DBE reports that the performance improvement function of the IQMS relates to the personal growth dimension and involves the DSG helping teachers learn about, reflect on and improve their practice. Furthermore, the DBE (2006: 1) notes that the improvement function of IQMS through the DSGs is generally considered formative in nature and suggests the need for continuous professional growth and development while the accountability function on the other hand reflects a commitment to the important professional goals of competence and quality performance. In section 1.3, the researcher referred to Collective Agreement No 8 of 2003 which argues that teachers are developed from their individual schools by their Developmental Support Groups, a role that had been found by the Department of Basic Education (2011: 186) (see section 1.3) not to be pursued well enough by the DSGs to develop teachers, hence the need for a co-ordinated strategy to focus efforts in the centres for teacher development. The research concurred with the literature as participants showed no regard to the IQMS processes, including the mentoring and support roles of the DSGs.

This is evident from the failure of participating schools to present authentic minutes of their DSGs post evaluation meetings where identified development needs of teachers are discussed and efforts to support and develop them highlighted. In their minutes of post evaluation meetings, school A, B and D did not provide details of the deliberations of these meetings, but instead had three sentences which mostly indicated that the DSG met on such a date, agreed about the scores and recommended either a workshop or mentoring for the teacher. On the contrary, in one school (particularly school C), the minutes of such post evaluation meetings were detailed, providing an account of what was observed by the DSG and what the teacher had to improve. Furthermore, three schools submitted their Educator's Improvement Plans, namely school A, B and school B. While Educator's Improvement Plans contain a combined list of all the individual school teachers' developmental needs and pre-determined activities for improvement, either by the DSG, SDT, SMT, Circuit or Sub-district office or province, it also provides a list of teachers and focus areas of development by the DSGs and other school-based structures such as the SDT and SMT. The picture that was painted through the unavailability of documents such as EIP and post evaluation meetings in these other schools is one of not taking seriously the development endeavours of the IQMS processes and particularly teacher development. The principal of school C concurred that there are needs that are addressed by the Department of Education (Circuit, sub-district and province) and there are needs that are addressed by the school management team (DSG, SDT & HODs) and there are needs that are addressed by the business sector or other NGOs.

6.3.2.3 Implications regarding School Management Teams' monitoring and support

In terms of section 1A (1 – 2(1) (a) of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (RSA, 1998) the employer must ensure that a teacher is aware of expected standards of his/her performance so that if he/she fails to meet them, the employer, through the SMT and SDT structures, must indicate areas of underperformance and thereafter help the teacher to develop his/her Personal Growth Plan. If underperformance continues the SMT is obliged to initiate procedures in respect of poor performance, in accordance to section 2 (1) (a) of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (RSA, 1998).

In terms of section 16A (b) of the South African Schools Act of 1996 as Amended in 2011 (RSA, 1996) the principal of a public school must prepare and submit to the Head of Department (HOD) an annual report in respect of the academic performance of that school in relation to minimum outcomes and standards while section 58B (1) compels the HOD to identify from the report contemplated in section 16A (1) (b) any underperforming public school to account for such underperformance. The Department of Basic Education (2006:1) contends that in any employment relationship an employee renders a service to the employer and in turn the employer remunerates the employee. In such a relationship the employee has a responsibility to provide good quality service which will have to be constantly monitored by the employer to ensure that it is of a quality standard. From the school level, through the School Management Teams and Staff Development Teams, all employees account for the quality of work they have performed at a given period. The research revealed that teachers know that they account to their school-based seniors such as departmental heads, grade heads, deputy principals as well as principals whenever they have not performed their duties up to the expected standards (as contained in their duty sheets). The research further highlighted that after each workshop or PSF meeting that teachers have attended, on their return they must come and report to the principal, departmental head, grade head, deputy principal or the school principal.

The research also revealed that teachers account to their departmental heads during grade meetings or during one on one encounters with them, to their deputy principals during phase meetings or one on one encounters with them and to principals during the analysis of assessment results per task or quarterly test or examinations previously written. However, the research revealed that in rural primary schools there is no proper monitoring done by the SMT members (departmental heads, deputy principals and principal) in the form of class visits to ascertain whether teachers do implement recommendations of DSGs, departmental heads as well as what they have been advised to do in class by their Senior Education Specialists. Nowhere in the analysed documents or interviews has the subject of class visits been mentioned by participants as one form of accounting to their immediate heads which is an indication of how less SMT members regard the role of class visits in their schools.

The research revealed that instead of delegating and motivating members of the SMT to conduct class visits in the quest to support and guide their subordinate teachers school principals complain about their workload and how impossible it is for them to teach, to mark learners' books, manage the institution and be expected to monitor whether teachers do teach, and learners do learn. In many of the participants that were interviewed, particularly post level one teachers, the research revealed that teachers are self-motivated, are prepared to work extra hours even if there are no financial incentives besides their monthly salaries.

6.3.2.4 Implications regarding senior education specialists monitoring and support

According to the National Development Plan (NDP) (RSA, 2012:303), schools should be held accountable for performance based on an agreed set of outcomes/targets. The targets, according to the NDP, are an increase to 90% the number of learners in Grades 3, 6, and 9 who have mastered the minimum competencies (50%) in language and numeracy by the end of each year; to improve South Africa's average SACMEQ results for Grade 6 languages and Mathematics from 495 to 600 points by 2022; to address weaknesses in teacher capacity by improving the quality of teacher training and recruit higher calibre teachers and provide them with incentives; to create an institutional environment that allows teachers in private schools to move back to the state educational system as well as to give school principals more administration powers as quality of school leadership improves to ensure that they are accountable to their schools. According to the NDP (2012: 392), in poor and rural communities' parents often feel ill-equipped to engage teachers and SMTs about their children's performance and the school as a whole. Schools, more importantly, should be accountable to the school community for the performance of the school in relation to the annual school plan. However, accountability measures, according to the NDP, are likely to be met with resistance as they change the balance of power. They will add to the workload of teachers and principals and put more obligations on parents but once the systems and routines are established the workload will lessen and the system will deliver the benefits for everyone.

Apart from the above legal structures that enforce teacher accountability for performance and their development, Fernet *et al.* (2012:516) (see section 3.4.2) argue that individual teachers put pressure on themselves to perform through internal coercions such as anxiety, guilt or shame to ensure that they behave in a certain way and instead of succumbing to external or internal pressure they experience choice while performing an activity. According to Fernet *et al.* (2012: 516), teachers are autonomously motivated when they perform their duties for the intrinsic value of achieving meaningful goals or because they personally grasp the value of their work activities (see section 3.4.2). The research revealed that despite the Post Audit Action Plan Report for 2017 (NWED, 2017:5) which found inadequate monitoring of curriculum coverage by Subject Education Specialists and their inadequacy to assess the adequacy of monitoring and support by SMT members for their individual teachers Senior Education Specialists do monitor schools and individual teachers during their routine Professional Support Forums and school visits regardless of reservations by some teachers about their content knowledge and facilitation skills.

6.3.3 The perceptions of rural teachers about their development

In section 2.3.1 reference is made to two development theories, the human capital theory and the transformative theory. According to Tan (2014: 413), as referred to in section 2.3.1.1 the human capital theory is premised on the assumptions that knowledge and skills are acquired through education and training; that the increase in knowledge and skills will lead to increased productivity in the workplace and that the increased productivity in the workplace will bring higher salary to the individual which is developed by the individual's productivity. The acquisition of skills and knowledge leads to the productive capacities of teachers as income producing agents in the economy which is human capital. The principal of school C contended, *"If knowledge is acquired from these workshops, obviously it is transferred to learners. Teachers who attend these workshops regularly become motivated and self-driven. If teachers are motivated and self-driven and knowledgeable, they get lots of respect from children and as a result discipline ensues in class..."*

According to Almendarez (2013:23), referred to in section 2.3.1.1, the accumulation of human capital (*which is defined as knowledge, attitudes and skills that are developed and valued for their economically productive potential*) through education and on the job-training fosters economic growth by improving labour, productivity, promoting technological innovation and adaptation. Stan *et al.* (2013:1723) (see section 3.4.1) argue that teachers' participation in developmental programmes is largely influenced by a positive attitude towards learning and towards improving one's work performance. Furthermore, Merriam (2007:64) (see section 2.4.3) concurs in her assertion that adults are self-directed, are problem-centred as their learning needs to be practical and be practically applied in a meaningful context while drawing from their rich life experiences in any professional developmental activity. Attitudes, according to Stan *et al.* (2013), are a combination of one's perception of a given situation and his/her either positive or negative judgement of the results of such situation as his/her mentally developed behaviour. Individuals therefore transform and change old knowledge while acquiring new ideas and rethink certain beliefs.

This positive attitude of teachers to learn links well with self-directed learning theory which, according to Merriam (2001:9) (see section 2.3.2.4), aims at developing the individuals' capacity to be self-directed and desire to learn specific content or acquire knowledge and skill. Participants in all four schools perceived they development opportunities as informative and collaborative. Merriam *et al.*'s (2007:84) principles of adult learning, particularly the one that maintains that adults are intentionally motivated, fits well with above research finding. According to Merriam (see section 2.4.3.4), adult learners' learning must include an intrinsic value in which they can see personal payoff by acquiring knowledge or skill. Teachers acquired new skills and techniques that they did not have before. Merriam *et al.* (2007:84), as referred to in section 2.4.3, tabulate several principles of adult learning one of which is that adults need to know why they need to learn something. Participants concurred as they regard their participation as platforms to benchmark their level of skills development with their peers, and a platform where they communicate their challenges with their peers and share common problems and how to solve them.

In section 2.3.1.2, Baumgartner (2007:264) talks about a four-lens approach to learning that provides a useful way of thinking about transformational learning philosophies which are cognitive-rational approach to learning; constructivist approach to learning; perspective transformation and developmental approach to transformative learning. Transformative learning happens when people experience something that does not fit well in the frames of reference mentioned earlier, thereby triggering a critical reflection that causes an adjustment or changes to previously held frames of reference (Cox & Vaughn, 2016: 307).

The cognitive-rational approach to transformational learning: - This approach asserts that adult education should lead to empowerment. This research revealed that teachers acquired new skills and teaching techniques using Maths Lab equipment to conduct lessons with the use of tablets and laptops. It also revealed that teachers acquired new information that “they would not have received had it not been for teacher development programmes that they received.” According to Merizow (2000), the cognitive-rational approach to transformational learning takes a **constructive approach perspective to transformational learning** in that it asserts that knowledge is not “out there to be discovered” but created or constructed from interpretations and reinterpretations considering new experiences which results in new meaning or perspective transformation. **Perspective transformation** is characterised by more inclusive and integrative perspective. In this research participants hailed their collaboration and interaction with each other during group discussions as they shared their experiences and came into common understanding about the effective ways of dealing with certain issues. Referring to teacher development programmes, the principal of school C argued, *“There is enough time for engagement...people break into groups, people present (topics for discussion) but generally it’s like a crash course (in which) we share information”*. The cognitive rational approach, according to Merizow (2000), concentrates on the importance of rational thoughts and reflection in the transformational process. The principal of school C contended, “If knowledge is acquired from these workshops obviously it is transferred to learners.” He further lamented, “Teachers who attend these workshops regularly become motivated and self-driven.

If teachers are motivated and self-driven and knowledgeable, they get lots of respect from children and as a result discipline ensues in class because teachers are prepared and knowledgeable.” The transformational learning process, according to Merizow (1991:168), begins with the following steps: -

6.3.3.1 A “disorienting dilemma”

Disorienting dilemmas are experiences that do not fit into a person’s current beliefs about the world and occur in the context of academic learning environments. When faced with disorienting dilemma, people are forced to reconsider their beliefs in a way that will fit this new experience into the rest of their worldview and this happens through critical reflection.

6.3.3.2 Critical reflection

Reflection in general implies an element of critique, however, critical reflection refers to challenging the validity of presuppositions in prior learning. In this research, participants engage in critical reflection on development opportunities available to rural teachers

6.3.3.3 Re-evaluation of assumptions

This is the re-evaluation of assumptions participants have made about themselves and their world. Asked about how they contribute in the workshops, the principal of school B maintained, *“We do participate because you would be asked to reflect looking at your school situation (and) how you do certain things at your school.”* Merizow describes this stage as the reflection by participants on their meaning perspectives or overarching structure of assumptions which include their beliefs and values or habits of mind which can result in a perspective transformation or change in world views.

6.3.3.4 Reflective discourse

The reflection is followed by a reflective discourse in which participants engage each other about their new perspective to obtain consensus validation.

6.3.3.5 Adoption of new perspective

The reaching of a consensus by participants then leads to the new perspective being adopted. Quizzed about the efficiency of the ICT training she attended, teacher no 1 of school B argued,

“The websites that they introduced us to helped us a lot because sometimes you will find out in our school we are not those schools that were blessed with so many facilities like laboratories and when you are doing practical tasks and the experiments so when you Google and you go to those websites you’ll be able to see what is happening when you add the acid.”

In this research teachers hailed their development in the use of Maths Lab and further technological developments in the use of tablets and laptops when conducting lessons and providing learners with prompt feedback. This links well with one of the principles of adult learning (see section 2.4.33) which asserts that adults are problem-centred rather than subject centred in learning. Holyoke (2007: 42) (see section 2.4.3.3) maintains that learning needs to be practical and be applied practically in a meaningful context as adults are self-directed, task centred and problem oriented. This is further in line with self-directed learning theory which, as alluded to in the previous paragraphs, aims to develop individuals’ capacity to be self-directed, to learn specific content and get knowledge and skills.

The research found that teachers are appreciating the developmental programmes they are getting as they need to be reskilled and refreshed from time to time. They further acknowledge the fact that some graduated long ago from college but through these development programmes they are reskilled. As echoed by Christie *et al.* (2015: 22) in section 2.3.1.2 that transformative learning helps us critique our thought processes, points of view and fields that shaped them, teachers agreed that the workshops and PSF meetings they attended provided them with opportunities to interact and collaborate with other teachers and self-correct themselves if they were not doing things correctly. Transformative learning, according to Merizow (1991, 1995, 1996) and Cranton (1994, 1996), is the process of effecting change in the people’s frames of reference.

Frames of reference, according to Merizow (1996:56), are the structures of assumptions through which we understand our experiences which selectively shape and delimit our expectations, our perceptions and our feelings. The frames of reference further set our lines of actions through which we automatically move from one activity to another rejecting, in the process, ideas that fail to fit our preconceptions, labelling them as nonsense, weird or irrelevant. These frames of reference emanate from cultural assimilation and idiosyncratic influences of caregivers and include cognitive and emotional elements and are made up of two dimensions which are habits of mind (*broad, abstract, orienting habitual ways of thinking*) and points of view (*complex feelings, beliefs, judgements and attitudes we have regarding specific individuals and groups*). Transformative learning occurs through critical reflection on the assumptions upon which our interpretations, beliefs and habits of mind or points of view are based. Transformative learning involves a function of reflection; reassessing the presuppositions on which our beliefs are based and acting on insights that are derived from the transformed meaning perspective that results from such reassessments. We become critically reflective of the assumptions we or others make when we learn to solve problems instrumentally or when we are involved in communicative learning.

Merizow (1996:56) describes instrumental learning as the process of learning that is aimed at controlling and manipulating the environment or other people while communicative learning focuses on achieving coherence rather than on exercising more effective control over the cause-effective relationship to improve performance. In this research the cognitive-rational approach to transformative learning uses the communicative learning instead of instrumental learning.

There are four processes of learning; one is to *elaborate an existing point of view by seeking further evidence to support the initial bias; the second is to establish new points of view by encountering a new group and create new negative meaning schemes; the third is to transform your point of view by experiencing another culture resulting in you reflecting on our misconception of this group and the fourth is to transform your habit of mind by becoming aware and critically reflective of your bias.*

6.3.4 Challenges of rural teachers regarding their development

Mohangi *et al.* (2016:73), as referred to in section 2.5.3, identify socio-economic and cultural contexts of rural life as impacting on education and demands teachers to understand them. On the other hand, according to Du Plessis (2014:1111), challenges of rural teachers include curriculum challenges, poverty, unattractive nature of rural schools, lack of resources and technology changes which are significant to a rural schoolteacher. The research highlighted several challenges of rural teachers to their professional development, such as, socio-economic conditions; non-training on overcrowding and multi-grade teaching; distance to teacher development venues as well as unfriendly learning environments, which rural teachers encounter which influence their development. The following discussion focuses on how these challenges influence the development of teachers and why some teachers are not getting any development opportunities.

6.3.4.1 Socio-economic conditions

According to Darling-Hammond (2000:23) and Heystek and Terhoven (2015:620), as referred to in section 1.4, learners' socio-economic circumstances such as poverty levels, vandalism, crime, poor infrastructure, lack of resources, and overcrowded classes negatively affect learner performance. The research revealed that because of fewer learner numbers who attend rural schools (*580 learners in school A; 385 in school B; 250 learners in school C and 645 learners in school D*) financial support from the government to these schools decreases because of their socio-economic situations. The government allocation is spread as follows – 40% is for municipal services; 10% is for maintenance and repairs while 50% is kept (only in NW province) by the provincial finance department to purchase LTSM (Department of Education and Sports Development, 2018:1). It therefore becomes a challenge in small and farm schools to budget and conduct teacher development activities from the little money that is left from the 10% meant for maintenance and repairs as there are no prospects of conducting fundraising activities that will fund teacher development as is the case in urban and suburban schools.

According to the 2019/20 Preliminary Resource Allocation for Public Ordinary Schools (Department of Education and Sports Development, 2018:1), small schools, including farm schools receive a maximum amount of R32 197,00 for a single academic year as state allocation while out of five quintals, those in quintal 1 receive an amount of R1657,00 per learner; those in quintal 2 receive R1 239,00 per learner; those in quintal 3 receive R958,00 per learner; those in quintal 4 receive R735,00 per learner and those in quintal 5 receive R532,00 per learner. The Draft Policy on Rural Schools (DBE, 2017:19) defines small primary schools as schools that have a minimum of 6 teachers, excluding the principal and Grade R practitioner with no multi-grade classes across all phases while small secondary schools have teachers teaching a minimum of 2 subjects at FET.

The research highlighted the fact that limited financial resources in rural schools limits them from purchasing equipment and material that will empower teachers to match the demands of the modern world and as well as upgrading the general school infrastructure.

Out of frustration, one teacher lamented that the Department of Basic Education officials can send teachers to workshops and train them in all respects but if basic equipment that teachers will utilise to impart this knowledge and skills to learners in their classes is not there, such development is worthless. Referring to adult learning theories on motivation, Ahl (2006:385) (see section 3.4.2) argues that individuals are naturally motivated to learn but challenges which emanate from several barriers which could be dispositional, situational and structural prove to be impediments but when removed, adults will be motivated to learn. In the same section 3.4.2, Fernet (2012:516) revealed that autonomous types of motivation such as choosing to succumb to internal and external pressure towards work and teacher development activities are related to burnout in a negative way while controlled motivation such as when behaviour is regulated to obtain a reward or constraint are positively associated with burnout. The researcher notes that deficient equipment as well as other job resources are some of the factors that cause demotivation to teachers. It therefore remains the duty of the school principal to motivate teachers from time to time.

The principal of school C maintained, “You know, whatever little they do on a daily basis, they participate in sport, they produce results, they are solving disciplinary problems...those teachers...we need to recognise their achievement...say thank you to them.” The research revealed that principals do not plan for the school-initiated teacher development activities due to lack of funds in their schools and out of ignorance. Asked about how they address the needs that are identified by teachers in the Educator Improvement Plan document the principals of all four schools indicated that they “redirect the needs, to be addressed by the Department of Education.” The principal of school C boldly admitted, “What I normally do, I take the needs from the SIP and submit them to the Department of Education and wait for the department to respond”. Circular 09/2016 (GDE, 2016:7) describes SIP as a roadmap that sets out changes that a school needs to make to improve the level of learner achievement and the school environment, as well as how and when these changes would be made.

The SIP should, among other things, reflect teacher-initiated improvement, School Management Team organised activities and District/provincial/other support and must be submitted to the District Director for integration into the District Improvement Plan. As is indicated in the above definition of SIP School Management Teams are supposed to conduct teacher development programmes or activities based on the identified needs and not expect the department to develop teachers all by itself. The Department of Education will develop district improvement plans for areas that need their intervention from the identified list of needs from different schools. The research further revealed that many schools do not attend teacher development opportunities that require registration fees, payment for accommodation and those that take teachers away from their families for two to five days because of limited funds they get from state allocation. The research found that teachers do attend one-day meetings, workshops and PSF meetings that are held nearer around their circuits and sub-districts. According to LeTendre (<https://sites.nationalacademic.org> accessed on the 24/03/2019), Professional Development varies significantly within and across nations but what is consistent about PD is that teachers feel PD does not meet their needs (lack of suitable PD); more effective PD takes more time, but is less attended; work schedules are a major barrier (timing not time off) and subject area is not a top concern.

International trends on participating in professional development activities indicate that teachers' self-development is the least followed by teachers (see Figure 6.1 below).

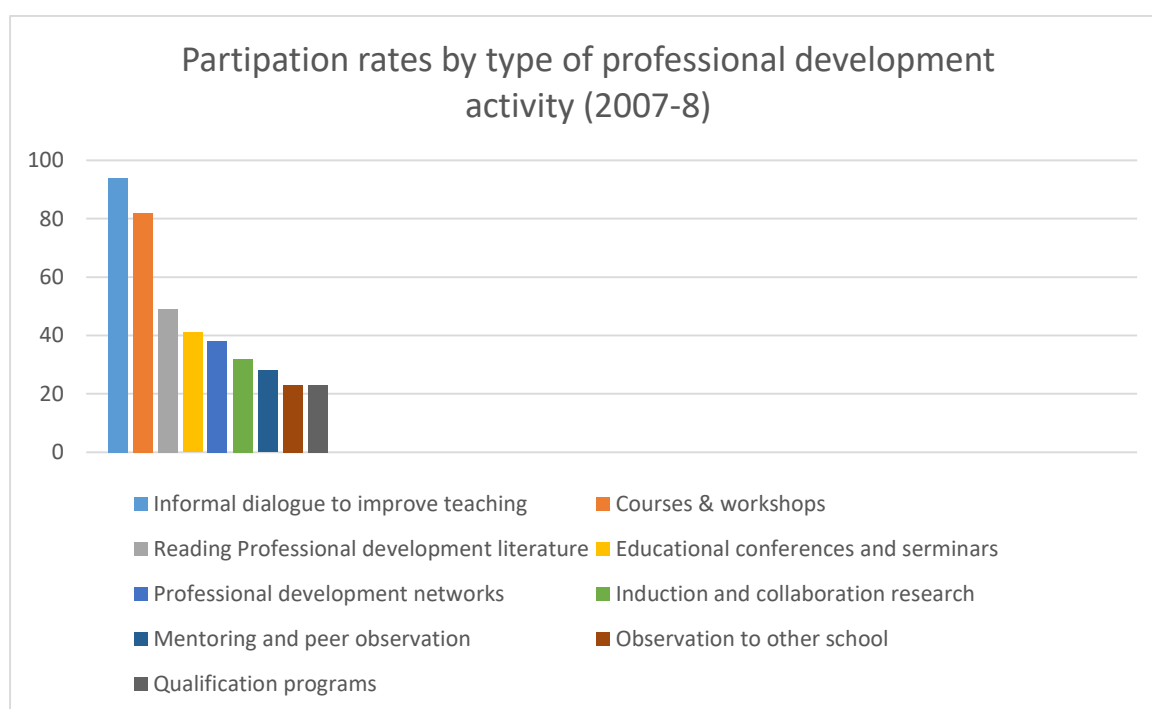


Figure 6. 1: Participation rates by types of Professional Development activity (2007)

Source: Adapted from Gerald K LeTendre, Pennyslavia State Head, Department of Educational Policy Studies. Trends in Teacher Professional Development (<https://sites.nationalacademic.org>)

6.3.4.2 Lack of training on overcrowded classes and multi-grade class teaching

The Department of Basic Education (2017:8) drafted a policy, Rural Education Draft Policy which provided for the development of context-specific strategies to deal with challenges in rural schools (see section 3.2.1). Such context-specific strategies include career progression, teacher development and rural allowances among other things. However, the research revealed that rural schoolteachers do not get development opportunities in how to deal with their context-specific challenges such as overcrowded classes and multi-grade teaching. Teachers complained about their inability to do one on one support with struggling learners because of their high numbers.

The research further highlighted that in workshops, conferences and PSF meetings that teachers attend there is no focus on different contextual factors of different schools as all teachers are combined and trained irrespective of different context they operate from. Teachers who teach multi-grade classes which are characterised by large number of learners per class do not receive training on how to deal with such classes as there are no trained specialist Senior Education Specialists in these arears. The research further revealed that given such lack of training in multi-grade and overcrowded classes by sub-district and district- based education personnel, schools do not make any efforts to assist teachers who are faced with such challenges but instead continue to complain about lack of support, lack of funds and allocation of extra teachers even though principals understand the dilemma facing the provincial education department regarding the moratorium on hiring support staff, the post provisioning model and norms and standards for school funding which explains how schools are funded (see section 6.4.4.1 above). Due to the unavailability of specialist subject advisors in certain subjects and areas of teachers' concerns such as multi-grade and overcrowded class teaching teachers seek advice from their peers about how to deal with these extreme situations. Furthermore, the research found that teachers are not motivated to study further as there are no longer incentives for improved qualifications and none of SACE's promises of allocating PD points and or tokens of recognition in the form of gold, bronze or silver certificates, has been implemented yet. Eyal and Roth (2011:260) (see section 3.4) contend that other than the principal's individualised consideration which include his support of his/her subordinates development in the profession there are motivational factors that influence teachers to engage in professional development, namely, the expectancy component (teacher beliefs about their ability to perform a task); the value component (teachers' goals of doing a task) and the affective component (teachers' feelings/reactions to their task or school in general). The research found that principals of all four participating schools have qualifications that range from an initial teacher's diploma (Primary Teachers Diploma or Secondary Teachers Diploma); Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE); Further Diploma in Education (FDE) and the highest of them being an Honours Bachelor of Education degree in Educational Management but none of them was involved in furthering their studies and only one of the total of 290 teachers interviewed, including principals, was busy with his B.Ed. Honours studies.

6.3.4.3 Unfriendly teaching and learning environments

Salina *et al.* (2016:70), as referred to in section 2.5, contend that to boost academic achievement of low-performing schools, learners need to be provided with additional instruction and together with their teachers they should have a sense or feeling, of connectedness. Connectedness, according to Stringer (2013:103), referred to in section 2.5, is the development of meaningful relationships in pursuit of activities that promote student learning.

The research highlighted the presence of several elements of unfriendly teaching and learning environments in rural schools. These range from the unavailability of Senior Education Specialists for some subjects such as isiXhosa, lack of funds in schools to conduct teacher development, insufficient School Management Team members in some schools as well as lack of capacity to deal with progressed learners.

6.3.4.3.1 Unavailability of senior education specialists in some subjects

While acknowledging the population demographic patterns of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district and the province in general, the research revealed that there are few available Senior Education Specialists for isiXhosa Home Language, for an example, to an extent that during PSF meetings language teachers are combined irrespective of the dynamics of individual languages. This tendency becomes a challenge to some teachers as training is usually based on the dominant language in the district. This leads, according to research findings, to isiXhosa Home Language teachers seeking advice from Setswana Home Language teachers for them to translate in English what was said in Tswana in the PSF workshop so that they can make sense of it in isiXhosa. Once again, the research revealed that in the absence of an isiXhosa Senior Education Specialist schools just do not take strides to collaborate with other schools to address such challenges. Stan *et al.* (2013: 1723) (see section 3.4.1) argue that to participate in development programmes is largely influenced by a positive attitude towards learning and towards improving one's work performance. Teachers' attitudes about professional development including self-development, according to Torff and Sessions (2008: 128) (see section 3.4.1), can best be predicted by looking at the teachers' actual teaching experience.

According to Torf and Sessions (2008), teachers become more submissive to professional development when they are in their first two years of their teaching career as well as from three years to nine years of their teaching careers while declining when they reach the ten-year mark of their experience. The research found that on average the participants teaching experience was as follows: principals' experience averaged at 27 years, departmental heads' experience averaged at 22 years and teachers' experience averaged at 13 years, which, according to Torf and Sessions' research findings (see section 3.4.1), amounted to what they referred to as the levelling out phase in which teachers develop negative attitudes to embark on personal development. This could be the reason why in all four participating schools' teachers do not show any positive attitude to do professional development except one teacher in school D who has three years of teaching experience is the only one currently doing B Ed Honours. Teachers should collaborate within schools, circuits, districts and provinces and across schools, circuits, districts and provinces. While acknowledging the prevalence of challenges of the scarcity of Senior Education Specialists in subjects such as isiXhosa Home Language, the research revealed that schools do not take any initiative to address challenges but tend to wait for the Department of Education to fix things for them. As indicated in the previous paragraph, this could be associated to Torf and Sessions's (see section 3.4.1) assertion that teachers' desire to develop themselves further drop from year three to nine of their teaching careers and start to dry out from year ten onwards.

6.3.4.3.2 Lack of funds for teacher development

Part of what school principals are expected to do in the execution of their duties is to organise teacher development opportunities for their staff members (Brunton & Associates, 2003:C63). Schools that are in rural and farm areas which face daily struggles of making ends meet with limited funds from state allocation find it difficult to organise fully fledged activities of teacher development as well as sending teachers to teacher development activities such as AMESA, SAARMSTE and other conferences because of limited resources. The research revealed that due to lack of funds schools do not frequently organise teacher development activities but instead rely on the support of the sub-district officials for them to implement their school improvement

plans. The principal of school C confirmed this in his assertion that they do not attend to individual teachers' needs as contained in their PGPs but rather put them together in the School Improvement Plan for submission to the sub-district for intervention. While one understands the financial challenges of rural and farm schools, it remains the duty of school principals to develop their staff members so that there can be improvement in the performance of learners. According to the NEEDU report (2018: 9), schools that work, allow teachers to learn in a day to day environment where they work and provides opportunities for teachers to work with peers, among other things.

6.3.4.3.3 Insufficient school management team members

Schools have allocated posts, using the Post Provisioning Model (PPM) that is based on the number of learners they have enrolled for that academic year. Ntuli (2012:7) defines PPM as a formula-driven model that allocates teachers and SMT as human capital used by the Department of (Basic) Education to enhance the distribution of available teachers to public schools. According to Regulation 1451 of 2002, the Department of Basic Education uses a formula, which is the *total number of posts available, multiplied by weighted learners of a school and divided by total weighted learners of all schools*, to calculate the number of posts each school qualifies to get (<https://www.education.gov.za>). The research revealed that the PPMs unfair allocation of teachers to schools, particularly SMT, leads to increases in teachers' workload. As revealed by principals of participating schools, (school B and C in particular) which were negatively affected by their lower enrolment numbers, the research revealed that schools with low learner numbers suffer the most as principals must perform duties (teaching and monitoring grades and phases) which were supposed to be performed by departmental heads and deputy principals had circumstances permitted them.

6.3.5 Possible solutions to rural teachers' challenges

To address rural school teacher development challenges, Seltzer and Himley (1995:37) (see section 2.5.2) proposed a professional development and school improvement model that employs four interrelated elements which are associated with how schools change, namely the change process; the school-based improvement; a focus on teaching and learning as well as teacher development.

The research highlighted these elements as participants talked about involving every stakeholder to **effect change** in rural schoolteachers' behaviours and beliefs; they talked about identifying teachers' needs, hiring more teachers, planning school improvement and training teachers to **effect school-based improvement**. Furthermore, participants talked about the acquisition of teaching and learning resources, the involvement of parents as well as collaborations with nearby schools and teachers to **focus on teaching and learning**. The **change process** emphasises on participation and support, changing behaviours and beliefs as well as on addressing the issues of collaboration.

6.3.5.1 The change process

Professional development activities, according to Guskey (2002: 383), are efforts to bring about change in teachers' classroom practices, in their attitudes and beliefs and in the learning of learners. Guskey, (2002:383) presents a model of teacher change that suggests that change in teachers' attitudes occurs after teachers have seen evidence of improvements in learners' learning which is a result of changes that teachers have made in their classroom practices following their development. Fullan (1993: 13) presents four core capacities for building greater change capacity among teachers: personal vision-building, inquiry, mastery and collaboration.

Personal vision-building: - means examining and re-examining why we come into teaching and asking ourselves what difference we are trying to make in our personal capacities.

Inquiry: - means internalising norms, habits and techniques for continuous learning. As agents of change teachers are career – long learners without which they would not be able to stimulate learners to be continuous learners. Furthermore, lifelong learning, referred to in section is essential because in ever – changing society's mental maps "cease to fit the territory".

Mastery: - involves strong initial teacher education and career – long staff development and is central to successful change but surprisingly people pay little attention to it beyond one – shot workshops and disconnected training.

Collaboration: - means being an active member, (*participating in conversations, meetings and interactions contributing actively*) of a group that works together to achieve a common goal. According to Fullan (1993), the ability to collaborate on both a small and large scale is becoming one of the core requisites of post – modern society. Personal strength, if it is inquiry – oriented, goes hand in hand with effective collaboration.

In the absence of the above four change capacities in teachers, there will be no change. In this research, only two schools showed the presence of some of these capacities (personal – vision building and collaboration) among teachers, school B and school C. In school B and school C teachers expressed how satisfying it is to see learners coming back having achieved what they wanted to achieve. Teacher n 2 of school B maintained, *“Seeing these learners prospering, it makes me feel good.”* Teacher n 2 (a departmental head) of school C boasted, *“Their success out there bears fruit for our school as they plough back to us from the corporate world they work in, such as donating uniform for needy learners and office furniture donations we have just received through one of our former learners”*. Collaboration seems to be the only change capacity that teachers enjoy in their development opportunities. However, inquiry and mastery seem to be lacking as many of them in all schools except teacher number 2 of school D are not involved in any personal studies. The principal of school B blamed herself for not leading by example, *“Maybe I am a bit slow myself (to embark on personal studies). If I can begin...if I was serious...I should have long obtained my PhD or whatever... maybe if I can start as a leader, they (teachers) can follow me.”*

One would argue that there is lack of leadership in the School Management Teams in this regard. It cannot be correct that teachers simply do not embark on personal studies because there is no money as a reward or incentives for studying. As lifelong learners, teachers should live up to the expectations of the Norms and Standards for Educators (DBE, 2000: 47) (see section 2.4.4) by becoming learning mediators, interpreters and designers of learning programmes, leaders, administrators and managers, scholars, researchers and lifelong learners, subject, discipline and phase specialists as well as by embracing our community citizenship and pastoral roles.

The research revealed that teacher development opportunities provide teachers with knowledge and skills that make them to make changes in their classroom practices which leads to improved learners' outcome thereby changing the behaviour and beliefs of teachers about their teaching repertoires.

6.3.5.2 Focusing on teacher development

The NEEDU report (2018: 117) concedes that teachers receive professional development in several ways, including school organised workshops that are facilitated by the schools' departmental heads focusing mainly on teacher content knowledge and pedagogy. Teacher learning, according to Avalos (2011:10) (see section 2.1.1), requires cognitive and emotional involvement of teachers, the capacity and willingness or motivation to examine where each one stands in terms of convictions and beliefs as well as perusal of appropriate alternatives for change. The Department of Basic Education (2011: 75) (see section 2.1.1) further argues that teacher development should be classroom focused, curriculum focused, and achievement focused and collaborative. According to Bostrom and Dalim (2016:11) (see section 2.5), successful schools usually work in teams' hub for development under distinct leaders and such hubs are familiar with the school's aims and objectives. On the contrary, leaders of low – performing schools, according to Salina *et al.* (2016:69) (see section 2.5), often act in isolation, implementing well – intentioned solutions with little inputs or awareness from those who will be affected. High performing schools, according to NEEDU, embark on best practices such as school-based training programmes, teachers own development, teacher collaboration and networking. The research highlighted the prevalence of some of these practices even on the IQMS processes and class visits by departmental heads.

6.3.5.2.1 School organised workshops

Concurring with the NEEDU report (2018:117) on the importance of school – based training, the research revealed that some schools (school B and school C in particular) put more emphasis on training their staff in areas that are identified by the IQMS processes, embark on quarterly analysis of assessment results as well as SMTs observations during their class visits, even though some schools do this only during

IQMS processes as DSG seniors. Under the leadership of departmental heads, grade heads or teachers themselves, schools spend time in grade or phase meetings, joint planning, teacher conversations about curriculum issues or discipline challenges and/or learner wellness issues such as HIV/AIDS. In high performing schools, SMT members observe good practices during class visits and request teachers to share such strategies at grade or phase meetings to encourage information sharing. The research revealed that these school organised workshops only concentrate on report back on meetings and workshops attended and rarely deliberate on teachers' development needs that have been identified by the SMT or the SDT and it can be concluded that they do not bring any development to teachers when compared to district organised workshops that are functional and of value to subject teachers as well as management team and school governing body members. The School Management Teams do not initiate teacher development activities and in some schools (school C and school D in particular) these meetings assist teachers to find other approaches of meeting educational needs of their learners and they integrate such knowledge into their regular classroom practices encouraging them in the process to support each other. During the sub - district organised workshops and PSF meetings, teachers participate actively by making presentations and being involved in group discussions, sharing their experiences of what they do in their schools and collaborating with their peers throughout the PSF meetings or workshops.

On the contrary, during the school organised workshops or meetings, the cascade model is used and teachers must ask questions and points of clarity from the chairperson who is usually the person who attended the workshop or PSF meeting.

6.3.5.2.2 Teachers' own development

Teachers take responsibility for their own development and empowerment in a variety of ways. The research revealed that teachers analyse and interpret learner data monthly and quarterly to evaluate and review their teaching strategies. During such analysis of results underperforming learners and underperforming teachers are identified and thereafter intervention strategies are developed to effect change to those underperformers.

Teachers make use of the internet/Wi-Fi services to search for abstract concepts in their subjects and they also participate in courses such as distance learning opportunities and formal studies. However, the research revealed that very few of them undertake formal studies. The demotivating factor, according to the research, is the lack of financial incentives from the Department of Basic Education. School principals are supposed to encourage their staff members to embark on distance learning opportunities, however, one principal blamed herself for not taking the lead in this regard so that her staff members could emulate her. According to Torff and Sessions (2008:130) (see section 3.4.1), in the first two years of a teaching career teachers become more submissive to professional development and in the second phase of their teaching career which is from three years to nine years of their teaching career teacher's attitudes about professional development drop but decline rapidly from ten years upwards. In this research, out of a total of 20 teachers participating in this study only one teacher was pursuing further studies which indicates that the rest might have reached a career burnout stage or levelling out stage as many have over ten years of teaching experience.

It therefore remains the role of the SMT and the school principal to continuously motivate his/her subordinates to do their own development and personal studies. Furthermore, the Norms and Standards for Educators (DBE,2000) stipulates that prospective teachers and continuing teachers alike must adhere to seven roles and competences to be regarded as competent teachers.

Heystek and Terhoven (2016: 630) (see section 3.4.2) contend that motivation is intrinsic when it is an individual's willingness to take part in an activity for his/her own sake and extrinsic when engaging in it is a means to an end. Furnet *et al.* (2012:516) (see section 3.4.2) further argue that teachers are autonomously motivated when they perform their duties for the intrinsic value of achieving meaningful goals or because of the personal value of their work. As an extrinsic motivator of teachers, the Norms and Standards for Educators (DBE, 2000) compels teachers to embark on their own – development to adhere to the seven roles teachers are expected to honour in order to be regarded as competent teachers.

Teachers are legally obliged to identify their professional development needs through self – evaluation so that the SDT can embark on the development processes of IQMS. As mentioned in section 6.3.2.2 the research revealed that participants in this study disregarded the IQMS processes through, among other things, their failure to provide the researcher with authentic minutes of their DSGs post evaluation meetings where identified teacher's development needs were discussed and plans to support and develop them highlighted.

6.3.5.2.3 Teacher collaboration

In schools that work, according to the NEEDU report (2018:120), teachers work together not only to develop shared understanding of learners, curriculum and practice but also to design and produce materials and activities to improve learner performance. In section 2.3.1.2 reference is made to transformative learning theory in which people effect change in their previously held frames of reference after collaborating, discussing and persuading one another in group engagements on contentious issues until they adopt new perspectives after reformulating their assumptions to permit inclusive and integrative perspectives. This further links with the constructivist theory (see section 2.3.2.2) in which individuals create their own understandings through discussions and persuasions which are based upon interactions on what they already know and believe as well as the ideas with which they come into contact.

Cranton (1994:25) (see section 2.3.1.2) argues that meaning exists within ourselves and that personal meanings that we attribute to our experience are acquired and validated through human interaction and communication. The research revealed that teachers learn from each other in a variety of ways that include, among others, observing colleagues conducting lessons and provide feedback (during IQMS); mentor, coach, model and team teaching; help colleagues to identify development needs (during post evaluation meetings) and lead staff meetings and workshops (during reporting for PSF meetings).

6.3.5.2.4 Networking

This, according to NEEDU (2018: 121), relates to benchmarking or networking by schools with other schools to develop instructional and leadership skills as a strategy to provide quality professional developmental activities. Although the research only revealed clustering (in Mathematics among 39 schools of one Circuit of the district) as one of the networking strategies the NEEDU report highlighted the following, among other things: *Setting links with other high-performing schools in which teachers of different schools meet to tackle topics before they can teach them in their respective schools; work hand in hand with well resourced quintile 5 or former model C schools to help place learners in rural schools on par with learners from a metropolitan town or city; get into partnerships with schools across the provinces, districts with the view of observing what they do and learn from them; Setting up links with primary feeder schools or grades. This relates to discussing curriculum in detail concentrating on concepts that are taught in earlier grades which will have a bearing when learners go to senior grades.* It is therefore convenient to argue that, given the performance of learners from Gauteng and Free State provinces where teachers attend teacher development activities during school holidays and where there are constant interventions between the Department of Basic Education and stakeholders, interprovincial networking as referred to in section 3.4 might be part of possible solutions to rural teachers' developmental challenges.

6.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided the reader with the analysis and interpretation of collected research data. The following chapter provides recommendations on how rural teachers can embark on teacher development opportunities that will lead to learner performance improvement.

CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 6, an analysis and interpretation of the research results were done.

This chapter focuses on the summary of the research study, the summary of the research findings, the conclusions, recommendations and the limitations of the research. The research sought to determine the kind of problems of teacher development that rural primary school teachers of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district experience. The research further provides conclusions of its findings which include the efficiency of teacher development opportunities, the implications of the teacher accountability systems for teacher development, the perceptions of teachers about their current teacher development opportunities as well as guidelines to address the teacher development problems of rural primary school teachers.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

This research study investigated the presence of potential problems or challenges that relate to teacher development for school improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district.

In Chapter 1, the research study was introduced. Aspects covered mostly included clarification of terminologies, the rationale of the study, the preliminary literature review, the aims and objectives of the study, the research design and methods, ethical aspects of the study, trustworthiness, the contributions of the study and the outline of chapters.

In Chapter 2, a review of related literature was done on aspects of teacher development focusing on theories of teacher development such as social theory of learning, human capital theory, self-directed theory, symbolic interaction theory as well as constructivism theory.

In Chapter 3, a review of related literature was done on structural and people related issues of teacher development as well as policies and legislation that regulate teacher

development including models, approaches, trends and principles of teacher development. Trends to teacher development as evidenced by TIMSS, PIRLS and SACMEQ were discussed as well.

In Chapter 4, the main research question and its aims, population and sampling procedures, research methods and design, data collection procedures, data analysis, ethical measures and measures to ensure trustworthiness were provided.

Chapter 5 dealt with the discussion of the research findings from the analysed documents and individual interviews with teachers, departmental heads and school principals.

Chapter 6 dealt with the analysis and interpretation of the research findings. The main research findings were presented and analysed along the four research questions stated in Chapter 1 including the interpretations of how well the results link with what is written in the literature.

Chapter 7 deals with the summary, recommendations, conclusion (which include the efficiency of teacher development opportunities, the implications of the teacher accountability systems for teacher development, the perceptions of teachers about their current teacher development opportunities as well as guidelines to address the teacher development problems of rural primary school teachers) and limitations of the study.

7.3 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Prominent in this research was teacher development as the responsibility of teachers themselves, as the responsibility of the schools in which they teach and as the responsibility of their district officials for improved learner performance. Furthermore, accountability as the moral obligation of teachers to develop themselves and as a legal requirement of practising teachers to acquire a certain number of Professional Development (PD) points was emphasised.

This was followed by an emphasis on consequences or lack thereof if teachers decide not to develop themselves to acquire skills and knowledge for improved learner

performance in the district. The research highlighted several shortcomings that relate to teacher development as executed by individual teachers themselves, by IQMS school-based structures such as Developmental Support Groups (DSGs), by School Management Teams as well as by sub-district personnel such as Senior Education Specialists and District Teacher Development Officials. Below follows a discussion of the summary of the main research findings and conclusions structured along the five research questions as stated in Chapter 1.

7.3.1 The efficiency of the current teacher development opportunities

The research revealed that teachers are exposed to several development opportunities from school level to district level, however, these were not enough from the side of the school as none of the schools initiated teacher development activities on its own. Schools rely on grade, staff and phase meetings that are mostly about reporting back to teachers on meetings attended and rarely focus on developing staff members, grade teachers or phase teachers on issues they face on a daily basis.

However, PSFs, workshops and conferences that were organised by sub-district and district officials were hailed as bringing the necessary development to teachers and provided them with new skills and techniques but the reluctance of the departmental officials to make follow-ups and monitor the implementation renders the development inefficient. The sub-district and district officials, according to the Post Audit Action Plan Report of 2017 (NWED, 2017:5), do not provide adequate recommendations on areas of non-compliance such as curriculum coverage and number of assessment tasks written by learners (see section 5.2.1.1.1). Teachers, according to the research findings, rely on the cascade model of development that is provided by SMT on report-back meetings and workshops attended which is inefficient as there is no active learning in that process other than assimilating the information given by departmental heads, deputy principals and other authorised personnel who attend the meetings.

The research further revealed the failure of the School Management Teams to conduct class visits in schools to support and guide teachers with regard to specific subject related issues including monitoring the actual work of their subordinates in class (see section 5.2.2.2.2). School Management Teams do not organise development

programmes to address identified needs of development for teachers and are therefore ineffective in executing their roles of support and mentoring subordinates.

Furthermore, the research revealed that IQMS processes are not properly done in schools as the tendency is to complete forms just for submissions and not for the purposes of developing teachers. The IQMS processes, according to the research findings, are not being taken seriously by schools starting from the pre and post evaluation meetings where teachers' development needs are supposed to be prioritised and means to address them discussed up to the actual implementation of the models of developing teachers on the identified weaknesses (see section 6.3.2.2).

7.3.2 The implications of the current teacher accountability systems

The research made findings on a number of structures that hold teachers accountable for their development such as SACE, DSGs, SMTs and SES's. According to the research findings, principals, departmental heads and teachers have a negative perception about SACE. Teachers perceive SACE as ineffective as there is no record of points being given to teachers and how many points one has accumulated. Teachers feel they are not adequately informed about the role of SACE and how it links to CPTD, many of them do not have an idea about uploading points achieved as well as about signing-in. The research revealed that teachers have no regard for the IQMS processes, specifically mentoring and support role of DSG members and do not respect or honour the development endeavours of the IQMS processes in particular teacher development. The research highlighted the fact that teachers know that they account to their school-based seniors such as departmental heads, grade heads, deputy principals as well as principals, however, according to the research findings, no proper monitoring is done by SMT members in the form of class visits.

The research further revealed that school principals complain about their workload and how impossible it is for them to teach, monitor and support their subordinates given the magnitude of their work. The research revealed that, despite the negative findings of the Post Audit Action Plan Report of 2017 (NWED, 2017:5) (see section 5.2.1.1.1) about the Subject Education Specialists' inadequacy to monitor curriculum coverage as well as their inadequacy to assess monitoring and support of teachers by SMT

members, SESs do monitor schools and teachers during their PSFs and school visits, even though there are reservations by some teachers about their content knowledge and facilitation skills.

7.3.3 The perceptions of rural primary school teachers about their current development

The research highlighted a number of significant perceptions that rural primary school teachers of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district have about their development opportunities, even though some did not see any significance as contextual factors of their schools such as multi-grade teaching and overcrowding are not adequately addressed during teacher development programmes. The research revealed that teachers who attended workshops and PSFs that are organised by sub-district and district officials regularly become motivated and self-driven and thereby earn the respect of their learners, leading to high levels of discipline in class. Some participants perceived these workshops as informative and collaborative, as platforms to benchmark their level of skills development with their peers and also as platforms where they communicate their challenges with peers and a place where they share common problems and how to solve them. According to the research findings, teachers appreciate the development opportunities they get as they acknowledge that, at some point, they need to be reskilled and refreshed from time to time, however, the research further found that teacher development should be based on the unique and contextual factors of individual schools. The research found that there is a lack of teacher development in areas such as teaching multi-grade classes due to a lack of skilled personnel in such areas.

According to the research findings, teachers have to teach multi-grade classes without any training on how to deal with such classes and only copy what other multi-grade teachers are doing. Classes are also overcrowded due to limited number of teachers which is a result of limited classrooms.

7.4 CONCLUSIONS

The research highlighted several elements that could be adopted by schools in order to address teacher development challenges of rural primary school teachers. The following discussion focuses on these elements.

7.4.1 Teacher development that effects change in rural schoolteachers

The research revealed that individual teachers do not show any interest to pursue personal and further studies. Out of a total of 20 research participants, 13 had B.Ed. degrees specialising in Educational Management, even though all of them were full-time teachers teaching subjects that range from NS/Tech; Xhosa HL; English FAL as well as Mathematics with four of them teaching the four Foundation Phase subjects such as Life Skills, Mathematics, Home Language and First Additional Language. It can therefore be concluded that, as a result of teachers not specialising in what they are currently teaching, they show no interest in furthering their studies as some are now in their mid-fifties with no prospects of being promoted to management positions in their respective schools. Teachers showed reluctance to further their studies even after institutions of higher learning introduced specialist certificate courses such as an Advanced Certificate in Education in a range of subjects like Life Orientation, Learner Support, Mathematics, English Teaching etc. while the Provincial Education Departments provided teachers with bursaries. It is the duty of the management team of a school to motivate teachers to further their studies. The principal of school B (with B.Ed. Honours degree) conceded that, had she led by example and enrolled for further studies, her subordinates would have followed her and furthered their studies. The department also has a duty to motivate teachers to further their studies and register for courses and specialise in subjects that they are teaching and not in management while not occupying any management position.

Such motivation could be in the form of financial incentives such as cash bonuses or salary notch increases that are not as limited as they currently are. Furthermore, the research revealed that IQMS processes are not being implemented effectively and efficiently in schools as observations by DSGs are conducted by peers of participants and departmental heads, many of whom are friends with them and simply allocate

scores without conducting the proper checks and balances of the teacher development processes the IQMS is meant to propagate. Evidence from the research data revealed that: - *“minutes of pre and post evaluation meetings were written scantily in very few sentences in most of the schools with no proper details of what was discussed; the Educator Improvement Plans submitted by schools to the sub-district and district offices do not translate into implementable School Improvement Plans by schools but are just submitted so that the “department can develop us”, according to the principal of school C. This paints a picture of school leaders shelving their responsibility of utilising the summative evaluation findings to develop and prioritise teacher development programmes. There is no evidence of monitoring the progress in implementing the SIP by the SMT and SDT, except monitoring by the sub-district’s IQMS coordinators.*

The research confirmed what is in the literature regarding the learning of adult learners that teacher development *“allows teachers to construct their own knowledge through immersion in educational processes and provide them with opportunities to work in collaborative teams engaging in discourse about the subject and observe effective strategies.”* This is evidenced by the Maths Lab training and the ICT training that all schools in this research attended. On their return to their schools, teachers were able to operate whiteboards, connect the equipment to the Wi-Fi router, including learners’ tablets, and interact with them in lessons that did not only attract learners’ attention but improved their outcomes as well. Teachers who attended training were even able to train the rest of the staff members who did not attend. This is further evidence that attitudes and motivation to learn and develop professionally are really issues rather than instructional issues. The research highlighted several reasons why teachers are not doing their development. First is the issue of financial benefits to teachers. One principal argued, *“People do not want to participate in things that are not beneficial to them.”*

Furthermore, teachers do not want to pay for their professional development, making funding another reason for non-participation. The Departmental Head of school C argued, *“Sometimes we don’t have sufficient funds to empower all teachers...secondly these workshops do take our teaching time (and) it becomes a challenge sometimes*

to catch up.” Another reason for non-participation is distance. All four schools are situated far away from town and sometimes one has to spend days away from home attending workshops which are in many instances held in guest houses or hotels in town.

These reasons link well with the rural context of these schools as in rural schools, which always have few learners, state financial support is limited which forces schools to prioritise items to spend money on. Furthermore, training workshops that teachers are used to are meetings in which they are told what to do and how to do it without them creating and constructing knowledge and looking back at their years of teaching experience. One teacher who teaches a multi-grade class alleged that she consults teachers who teach the same grades as she in order to stay on track in her teaching repertoires and because there are no subject specialists for multi-grade classes and for the home language of the learners that she is teaching. Self-directed learning, which links well with this kind of teacher training is defined in section 2.5.4 as a process in which individuals take the initiative to diagnose their learning needs, formulate goals, identify human and material resources and evaluate their learning outcomes. According to Fullan (1993:13), as referred to in section 6.3.5.1, there are four core capacities that could be utilised to build change capacity among teachers and these include *personal vision building; inquiry; mastery* and *collaboration*. However, evidence from the research data indicates that this is not happening as only one teacher conceded that she envisions successful citizenry that would emanate from the learners that she had taught. Teachers do not build personal visions of what they aspire their impact on the learners they teach to be. Furthermore, being researchers and knowledge enquirers is also something that is not happening as the majority of them stopped embarking on self-study after acquiring teacher’s diplomas and certificates with very few of them having gone as far as B.Ed. degree level, thus showing no mastery of the subjects they are expected to master (see section 4.5.2).

Guskey (2002: 382) further contends that teachers are attracted to professional development by their belief that such development will expand their knowledge and skills, will contribute to their growth and further enhance their effectiveness with learners (see section 2.2). In this research, participants agreed that the few

development opportunities they got from the Senior Education Specialists “refresh and reskill” them as many graduated from college a long time ago. The human capital theory (see section 2.4.1) agrees that, when teachers acquire skills and knowledge, they become effective and productive in the workplace. Below follows a conceptual framework that explains the teacher development chain as it unfolded from the rural schools the researcher studied.

Structural issues of teacher development which include *policies* (like CPTD, NPFTD, Res 9 of 2009 and Draft Policy on Rural Education); *processes* such as IQMS (with all its DSGs, SIP, EIP, PGP and pre and post-evaluation reports); *resources* (such as funds, equipment, venues and distance) and *time* factors make it possible for teacher development to unfold while **people issues** such as teacher attitudes (positive attitude that is prone to potential changed behaviour); teacher motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic); pedagogical content knowledge (from which teachers show mastery of the subject content, skills and methods of dealing with diverse learners) provide teachers with experiential learning that assists teachers to acquire knowledge and skills. Through teacher development approaches which are preferred in schools according to this research, such as workshops, training programmes and professional support forums teachers acquire skills and change their attitudes and the ways of doing things which lead to improved learner outcomes.

7.4.2 Identifying teachers’ development needs

Theoretically, teachers, according to Rogers (2002: 5) (see section 2.6.2), are known to have lifelong development needs, however, this research revealed that they are not doing lifelong development because of a number of reasons which include demotivation due to no rewards or incentives, unclear CPTD points system, limited financial support to rural schools due to fewer number of learners enrolled, travelling expenses to workshop or training venues which are usually in town, teachers who have specialised in educational management but currently teaching different subjects (see sections 4.5.2; 4.5.3 & 4.5.4) in both foundation and intermediate phases as well as limited time for teacher development activities. The research further revealed that individual school needs such as Senior Education Specialists in certain subjects and areas such as multi-grade teaching and teaching progressed learners as well as

limited number of departmental heads compound their problems of not developing their teachers as lifelong learners. All these factors bear testimony to the rurality of these schools. As Ellinger (2004: 160) puts it in self-directed learning individuals take initiatives to diagnose their learning needs, to formulate goals and identify resources to implement learning strategies and evaluate their learning outcomes. However, in order to do that they need appropriate teacher development models such as coaching, motivating/guiding or facilitating which match their degrees of interest, involvement and self-direction.

7.4.3 Improving teachers' preferred development practices

The research revealed that rural schoolteachers still prefer workshops, conferences, short courses and professional support forums as their development platforms. However, the research further showed that the majority of workshops and short courses rural teachers attend are not based on the contextual environmental factors of individual schools such as multi-grade teaching, overcrowded classes, distance to workshop venues, time allocated for workshops or conferences, the competency of facilitators in the areas of teachers' concern, the availability of resources including funds and human resources. Workshops ought to be experiential training programmes that are dedicated to assisting teachers and learners to learn skills and competencies in specified areas of need. Proper planning of these training programmes ought to consider the circumstantial issues of individual schools so that individual teachers can reap the benefits of their training after each session. However, teachers in this research complained about workshops in which all GET band teachers are usually put together and trained without taking into consideration challenges of particular grade teachers in a certain school while some complained about workshops in which mainstream school teachers are combined with multi-grade teachers and trained on mainstream school issues and not focusing at all on multi-grade teacher challenges.

This kind of learning contradicts with what Kim (2006:2) (see section 2.5.2) describes as learning that emphasises the importance of culture and context in understanding what happens in society and in constructing knowledge that is based on this understanding. According to the constructivism theory, learners learn by constructing their own knowledge through interacting with the environment and reorganising their

mental processes. It is therefore imperative that contextual factors of rural schoolteachers be taken into account when planning workshops, conferences or training programmes and improvements need to be done in them as they are, according to the research, the preferred development opportunities of rural school teachers.

7.4.4 Contributions of the study to educational leadership and management

The original contributions this research study makes to some of the pillars of education leadership and management such as theory, practice, research and policy are that:

- The study suggests a paradigm shift from the traditional deficit-based approach (*in which the focus is on needs assessment and what teachers cannot do*) to an asset-based approach to teacher development (*in which the focus is on what teachers can do in terms of their strengths, skills, talents, interests and competencies*).
- The study propagates for the establishment of professional learning communities among similar grade or phase subject teachers of the same school, community, circuit, district and province in which they collaborate and continuously plan together.
- The study has further revealed a need for more research and policy development on issues such as:- scantily written minutes of pre and post evaluation meetings during IQMS processes; insufficient details and absence of in-school monitoring reports; availability of School Improvement Plans with no connection to teacher development; inconsistency of SACE in the allocation of Professional Development points and certificates to teachers who have done professional development activities as well as the principal's concerns about

insufficient staffing resources which cause them to resume many roles within their schools.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following are recommendations for schools and districts to plan, implement and monitor teacher development programmes effectively for the improvement of learner performance. These recommendations are in respect of the efficiency and value of the teacher development opportunities and structures for teachers as well as in respect of appropriate learning strategies for rural primary school teachers.

7.5.1 Embarking on coaching and mentoring programmes

As alluded to in section 3.4.5 by Minter and Thomas (2000:43) that coaching and mentoring processes operate on different situational assumptions, principals should consider contextual dynamics of their schools in order to apply relevant and appropriate development models with their employees. While it might not always be possible for experienced teachers or school leaders to apply coaching or mentoring as an appropriate teacher development model because of a number of factors such as negative attitudes of teachers, a too unionised teaching force in some schools, limited funds and long distances to venues where mentoring and coaching programmes are to take place, the research revealed that there are still teachers who value coaching and mentoring programmes. Teacher number 1 of school C concurred, *"Presently we are doing appraisal, we make it a point that every teacher is developed, we schedule that for each and every quarter so that we see the performance of the teacher together with the performance of learners."* This is in line with the assertion of Management Matters ([www.management-mentors](http://www.management-mentors.com)) (see section 3.4.5) in which they suggest that institutions should consider coaching when seeking to develop their employees in specific competencies using performance management tools such as IQMS instruments and involving their immediate managers. The principal of school D concurred, *"Our Circuit Manager visits us (individually) as principals under his Circuit to monitor and provide support."* Management mentors (see section 3.4.5) further contend that institutions should consider mentoring when seeking to develop its employees to remove barriers that

hinder their successes. Even though the research found that departmental heads rarely conduct class visits, Minter and Thomas (2000:43) (see section 3.4.5) contend that mentoring could also be applied when seeking to completely develop employees in ways that are additional to the acquisition of specific skills or competencies. It can therefore be concluded that the successful application of coaching and mentoring models of teacher development as additional to the preferred workshops, seminars and training programmes largely depends on the circumstantial conditions of individual schools such as teacher attitudes, levels of motivation, the availability of funds in schools and the distance to training venues or neighbouring schools or well performing schools. Coaching is task oriented, performance driven and of a short-term period aiming to bring the beginner teacher to a higher level of competency regarding skills and knowledge acquisition. School leadership, particularly principals, should not only change teachers from one subject to the other and from one grade to the other but should seek the services of expert teachers within the school or elsewhere to coach teachers who teach critical and underperforming subjects so that they acquire the necessary skills and competencies to impart knowledge to their learners. On the other hand, inter-school mentoring relationships should be encouraged in which underperforming schools partner with well-performing schools in mentoring programmes that seek to provide safe environments where the mentee can freely share issues that affect his/her professional relationship in which an experienced person assists the other in developing specific skills and knowledge that will enhance the less experienced person's professional and personal growth.

7.5.2 Adapting teacher development models

Minter and Thomas (2000: 450) (see section 3.4.5) observe that the dynamics of many teacher development programmes focus mostly on the “tell” side or cascade way of developing teachers and as a result provide the trainee teacher with minimal experiential practice or instructor feedback.

In this research, the most preferred teacher development methods found to be used include workshops, seminars, training programmes as well as conferences. However, common in this research and with positive references in all four participating schools, was the Maths Lab training in which Maths teachers from all primary schools of Dr

Kenneth Kaunda district (1 in Foundation Phase, 1 in Intermediate Phase and 1 in Senior Phase) were trained by specialist Maths teachers on how to teach Mathematics topics from Grade 1 to Grade 7, using tablets for each learner, manipulatives, a whiteboard and a teachers' laptop. Hailing the success and efficiency of the Maths Lab training and subsequent revamp of Maths Lab classrooms in schools with equipment that brought about motivation and positive attitudes to teach among Maths teachers and to learn among learners, teacher nr 2 of school D lamented, *"We can be taught how to use projectors but if there are no projectors in the classrooms it actually doesn't provide more opportunities for learners to gain from the developmental opportunities that we get."* Schools should make adaptations to their models of teacher development and shift their focus to quality outcomes rather than inputs and outputs. Quality outcomes are learner centred learning results that describe the measurable skills, abilities, knowledge or values that learners should demonstrate after completing training or a course while inputs refer to resources that are used to teach learners and outputs being the effects of learning on learners in relation to their knowledge acquisition, skills, beliefs and attitudes. Holyoke (2007:42) (see section 2.6.3.3) contends that learning needs to be practical and be applied practically in a meaningful context as adult learners are self-directed, task-oriented and problem-oriented.

In this research, teachers in all participating schools were trained in the use of Maths Lab equipment through tablets and laptops that were issued to all schools in the district. This is a cognitive-rational approach to transformational learning which asserts that knowledge is not out there to be discovered but created or constructed from interpretations and reinterpretations. This is a relevant approach for rural schoolteachers as it further asserts that adult education should lead to empowerment. It is therefore important to note that the most important aspect of a development programme is that teachers learn and apply what they have learnt.

Teacher training programmes must be aligned to the modern times, the use of technology, e-learning and the introduction of electronic learning material. This obviously will require more funding in schools by the department and school stakeholders such as parents and businesspeople. Companies like Vodacom have electronic school programmes that can be accessed by Vodacom subscribers and if

the Department of Basic Education can be involved, schools can have electronic learning material that can be uploaded to gadgets such as tablets and laptops which many schools currently have. This might motivate teachers and improve learning outcomes.

7.5.3 Schools' contextual environments

Different school contexts influence teachers' attitudes, motivation and ultimately teachers' changes in classroom practices as well as in their willingness to participate in professional development programmes. The key contextual factors include distance, funds, administrative support, collegial support and resources. Teachers who teach in schools where the principal and his/her management team support them, develop higher confidence levels and beliefs in their own abilities to bring about improved learner performance. The research revealed the existence of several factors that influenced teacher participation in development programmes. These include: time allocated to teacher development which, unlike in the Free State and Gauteng provinces where workshops, seminars and other teacher training programmes are held during school holidays, are conducted during school time; limited funding in rural and small schools which ultimately result in schools not purchasing relevant and proper teaching and learning resources; distance among or in between schools which renders the implementation of teacher development strategies such as coaching, mentoring and others ineffective as well as the highly politicised teaching force which often takes an uncompromising position of rejecting every initiative of the management of schools. It is therefore recommended that contextual factors of rural schools such as distance, utilisation of time for development programmes, the lack of funds and resources as well as the influence of teacher unions on teachers should be taken into consideration whenever teacher development programmes are planned. Furthermore, no one-size-fits-all approach should be used when planning such development. Context is a mediating influence not only on the extent to which professional development leads to changes in teacher's instructional practices but also on the extent to which learners' achievement or improved performance is structured over time. Teachers can meet regularly to share expertise and collaborate to improve their teaching skills and the academic performance of learners. This is referred to as

professional learning communities (PLC). Grade or phase or cluster teachers of the same subject can meet to do joint planning, to set common assessment tasks, to do joint marking or to discuss previous years' question papers of the same subject. Teachers of different schools can meet and discuss the above areas in which the expertise of teachers in well performing schools or ordinary teachers can be utilised either as coaches or mentors. An example could be the utilisation of the expertise of the district NTA winner who excelled in a certain category which is of great interest to the other teachers or a visit to schools such as Onkgopotse Tiro Combined school in the Bonajala District that is known for well performance. In section 2.5.1, reference is made to Chavis (2011:472) who singles out the social learning theory as focusing on learning that occurs within a social context in which people learn from each other either by modelling, observing or imitating each other in workshops, lesson observations and in mentoring programmes.

Schools should adapt their teacher development models to suit their operational contexts, improvements in teaching practice should take centre stage and teachers should receive ongoing support. Research on school contexts indicates the existence of differences between schools' interactions among school level factors such as principal and teacher leadership, human and material resources, classroom practices, professional teaching conditions and teacher communities. The operating environment within classrooms and schools affects the quality and level of learners' attention, interest and engagement with the school. If the classroom is at the heart of learners' opportunities to learn, the quality of teachers' instructional practices is of prime importance (Bascia, 2014:6). Teacher communities (*groups of teachers who identify themselves in relation to the work they do in common and who share a set of norms and values*) have a strong positive impact on learners' outcomes when teachers participate in professional learning communities.

These PLCs are based on the assumption that the day-to-day experiences of teachers generate rich knowledge about learners' learning and that knowledge is best understood through critical reflection with others who share the same experiences, as in the transformative learning theory. Bascia (2014:7) further contends that PLCs, that maintain a consistent focus on student learning; that engage in reflection

engagements about curriculum, instruction and student development; that use various classroom-based information to inform and refine their work; and that have access to new pedagogic ideas and professional development opportunities impact on instructional practices and student learning. It is therefore imperative that schools should adapt their teacher development models taking into consideration classroom, school and environmental contexts that will improve learner achievement.

7.5.4 The quality of school initiated and district-initiated teacher development

After teachers and their DSGs have identified their development needs following the summative evaluation findings, SMTs and SDTs are supposed to look at the whole list of their entire teachers' development needs and sift them in terms of the above priority needs, allocate some to the school, circuit and sub-district so that these can be included in the School Development Plan (for the long-term) and School Improvement Plan (for the short-term). However, the research revealed that none of the IQMS processes are working in schools. Schools should therefore strike a balance between school-initiated teacher development opportunities and district-initiated teacher development opportunities so that each structure can plan the development activities in advance for it to be effective and sufficient. The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) should have been managed through a management plan that will detail dates for baseline evaluation as well as who will do what and how will the findings of baseline and summative evaluation be included in the total development programmes of teachers. Teachers have to fulfil the requirements of the Norms and Standards for Educators Act of 2000 (RSA, 2000) which requires that teachers should possess seven roles and competencies that include being researchers, knowledge inquirers, designers and interpreters of learning programmes and materials (see section 2.6.4).

School Management Teams (SMT) should further do their duties of monitoring curriculum coverage by teachers, providing support and guidance to teachers by conducting class visits and assisting teachers through coaching, mentoring and demonstration lessons.

7.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations are, according to Thill and Boree (2007:379), those contextual factors over which one doesn't have control, such as access to information or people, schedule constraints and budget constraints.

In this study, limitations included the following:

- i. The researcher could not obtain the list of performing and underperforming rural primary schools from both sub-district managers as it was difficult for them to do so for primary schools. It would have been easier if the study was about NSC examinations.
- ii. Some rural primary school principals refused to allow the researcher permission to enter their schools, citing the fact that Circuit Managers did not give written permission which the researcher felt would have taken more time to get.
- iii. Two of the possible site research principals reneged from their initial agreement of giving permission, citing internal staff problems and the researcher had to look for alternatives or replacements on the lists.
- iv. In one school, two SGB employed teachers were not qualified.
- v. The researcher's study leave application couldn't be approved by the incumbent District Director because he was due to go on pension. As a result, the leave was delayed for four months giving the researcher limited time to prepare for the empirical research.

7.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The significance of this study is that there are indeed persistent problems with teacher development for school improvement in the rural primary schools of Dr Kenneth Kaunda district. Teacher development and improvement planning, which are part of

what School Management Teams of individual schools should be doing for the preceding year, are not being done, which results in limited teacher content knowledge and skills development. The regular assessments of individual teachers during the IQMS processes of pre-evaluation and summative evaluation periods as well as school-wide evaluations (WSE) during the end of the year's school self-evaluation (SSE) period should receive the focus of school management teams and school development teams for teachers' and schools' development needs to be identified and properly planned for. This should then be followed by thorough development of School Development Plans (SDP) (medium-term plans that outline the school's achievable goals, activities and priorities over a period of three years) that result in School Improvement Plans (short-term annual plans of action developed as extracts of the SDP and based on the nine areas of evaluation that emanate from the SSE/WSE). School improvement and teacher development, therefore, should assist schools to constantly reflect on their function of facilitating teaching and learning, enhancing the progress and achievement of learners as well as developing and enabling teachers to grow professionally.

The study further signifies that supporting, monitoring and guiding teachers through a series of context-based interventions and support systems by school management teams and District Support Teams could assist and motivate teachers to grow professionally resulting in improved learner performance.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 PERMISSION LETTER FROM SCHOOL A PRINCIPAL

TO : Mr S.V Tiwane
PHD Student No 10861378

FROM :
PRINCIPAL

DATE : 22 JUNE 2018

SUBJECT : PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

“Teacher Development as a Requirement for School Improvement in Rural Primary Schools of DR KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT.”

With reference to your letter dated 1st March 2018, being a request to conduct research, kindly take note that permission is hereby granted to conduct research as per your request subject to the following provisions:

1. Research work itself should not compromise the normal school functionality.
2. That the principle of confidentiality will be observed in its strictest terms.

Yours Sincerely

PRINCIPAL

Department of Education

APPENDIX 2 PERMISSION LETTER FROM SCHOOL B PRINCIPAL

TO: Mr. S.V Tiwani

PHD Student No: 10861378

From: _____

Principal

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH:

**"TEACHER DEVELOPMENT AS A REQUIREMENT FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT IN RURAL
PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF DR KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT"**

Reference is made to your letter dated 1st March 2018, being a request for permission to conduct research under the above-stated topic.

Accordingly, permission is hereby granted for you to conduct the research as per your request, subject to the following provisions:

1. Considering that your research work will involve School Principals, Head of Departments as well as Teachers, it is directed that you take active steps to ensure that the research work itself should not compromise the normal school functionality.
2. That the onus to make individual arrangements with your target schools rests with you.
3. That the principle of confidentiality will be observed in its strictest terms.
4. That the research findings will be made available to the Department of Education & Sport Development upon request.

With our best wishes.

Principal

APPENDIX 3 PERMISSION LETTER FROM SCHOOL C PRINCIPAL

08 August 2018

The Principal

Mr Tiwane

Inyatelo Primary School

Klerksdorp

Sir

**LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO INTERVIEW SCHOOL REGARDING
TEACHER DEVELOPMENT**

This serves to inform you that the school agrees to participate and support you in a research project regarding teacher development.

May all go well.

Kind regards

(Principal)

APPENDIX 4 PERMISSION SEEKING LETTER FROM SCHOOL D PRINCIPAL

24 July 2018

TO: Mr Tiwani S.V.
Student Number: 10861378

Sir/Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

This matter refers to your request dated 06 April 2018 and received on 24 July 2018.

I, _____ the Principal of the above-mentioned school gives you the permission to conduct your research.

The only condition is that we should protect learning and teaching time in order for us to strive to reach expectations of Quality Learning and Teaching (QLT).

Hope to hear from you in terms of arrangements for your research study.

Kind Regards

PRINCIPAL

School: _____



APPENDIX 5 PERMISSION LETTER FROM THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR



Departement van Onderwys en Sportontwikkeling
Lefapha la Thuto le Tlhabololo ya Metshameko
NORTH WEST PROVINCE

Tel: (018) 299-8216 / Fax: 294-8234
e-mail: bmonale@nwpg.gov.za
Office Manager: Linda Nelson - Tel: (018) 299-8264
e-mail: lnelson@nwpg.gov.za

**OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR
Dr KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT**

Enquiries: Linda Nelson	Tel: (018) 299 8264 / e-mail : lnelson@nwpg.gov.za	Fax: 018 294 8234
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9 March 2018

To: **Mr. S.V. Tiwane**
PHD Student No: 10861378

From: **Mr. B. Monale**
District Director

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH:
"TEACHER DEVELOPMENT AS A REQUIREMENT FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT IN
RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF DR KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT"**

Reference is made to your letter dated 1st March 2018, being a request for permission to conduct research under the above-stated topic.

Accordingly, permission is hereby granted for you to conduct the research as per your request, subject to the following provisions:

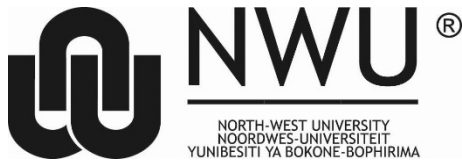
1. Considering that your research work will involve School Principals, Head of Departments as well as Teachers, it is directed that you take active steps to ensure that the research work itself should not compromise the normal school functionality.
2. That the onus to make individual arrangements with your target schools rests with you.
3. That the principle of confidentiality will be observed in its strictest terms.
4. That the research findings will be made available to the Department of Education & Sport Development upon request.

With our best wishes.

Mr. B. Monale
District Director
Dr. Kenneth Kaunda District

CC: **Mr. S.S. Mogotsi – Matlosana Sub-district Manager**
Ms. S. Yssel – J.B. Marks Sub-district Manager

APPENDIX 6 CONSENT LETTER FOR PARTICIPANTS



Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222

Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Faculty Education

Dear Sir/ Madam

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

I herewith wish to request your consent to participate in this research, which involves teachers and principals from primary schools. Before you give consent, please acquaint yourself with the information below.

The details of the research are as follows:

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT AS A REQUIREMENT FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT IN RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF THE DR KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT.

PROJECT SUPERVISOR: Professor Jan Heystek

ADDRESS: North West University, Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom, South Africa, 2520

CONTACT NUMBER: 018 299 1906/079 922 3683

MEMBER OF PROJECT TEAM, PhD-Student: SV TIWANI

ADDRESS: 2725 MOLOSI STREET, KANANA, 2619

CONTACT NUMBER: 072 202 7060

This study has been approved by the Ethics committee of the Faculty of Education of the North-West University and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines of this committee. Permission was also asked from the Department of Basic Education as well as the school principal.

APPENDIX 6 CONSENT LETTER FOR PARTICIPANTS

What is this research about?

The aim of this research is:

- To investigate and understand the problems of teacher development for school improvement in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District primary schools and provide guidelines for the professional development of teachers.

Participants per school

- Principal (1)
- HOD's (2)
- Teachers (2)
-

What is expected of you as participant?

An interview session of about 60 minutes with each of the participant in each school.

Benefits to you as participant

Individual participants will get an opportunity to reflect on their teacher development challenges and learn about how to resolve them following the guidelines that the research study promises to produce when the findings have been released.

Risks involved for participants

There will be very minimal risks to the participants which might lead to minor discomfort or inconvenience as a result of the length of interview and may be the boring routine of questions.

Confidentiality and protection of identity

The research interviews will be kept strictly confidential and will only be made available to members of the research team and that; excerpts of the research interview may be part of the final research report but the names or identifying characteristics will not be included in the report. The research study will provide minor discomfort to the participants as a result of the length (60 minutes) of the interviews with the selected participants. The participants will be tape recorded after they have provided the researcher with permission to do so. Furthermore, the research questions will be formulated in a way that would not require participants to disclose sensitive information.

APPENDIX 6 CONSENT LETTER FOR PARTICIPANTS

Dissemination of findings

A report will be provided to each school after the Examinations committee has confirmed the research results. An electronic version of the thesis will be available after the examination process.

If you have any further questions or enquiries regarding your participation in this research, please contact the researchers for more information.

DECLARATION BY PARTICIPANT:

By signing below, I agree to take part in a research study entitled:

Teacher development as a requirement for school improvement in the rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District.

I declare that:

- I have read this information and consent form and understand what is expected of me in the research.
- I have had a chance to ask questions to the researcher and all my questions have been adequately answered.
- I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary and I have not been pressurised to take part.
- I may choose to leave the study at any time and will not be penalised or prejudiced in any way.
- I may be asked to leave the research process before it has finished, if the researcher feels it is in my best interests, or if I do not follow the research procedures, as agreed to.

APPENDIX 6 CONSENT LETTER FOR PARTICIPANTS

Signed at (place) _____ on (date) ____/____/2018

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

SIGNATURE OF WITNESS

Yours sincerely

SV Tiwani

PhD Student [10861378]



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY[®]
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

Faculty of Education Sciences

Faculty Research Administration

15 May 2018

The Principal

Re: Request to Conduct Research

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a student at the North West University doing PhD in Educational Management and my research title is, **Teacher Development as a requirement for school improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district.**

I herein request your permission to conduct research at your school. The research project will not compromise teaching and learning programmes of the school and will include the Principal, two Departmental Heads and two PL1 teachers as well as an analysis of documents that will include:-

Minutes of Pre and Post Evaluation Meetings; School Improvement Plans; IQMS monitoring reports as well Educators' Improvement Needs.

Find attached a copy of a permission letter from the District Director as well as consent forms for participants.

I hope you will find this request in order.

Kind Regards

SV Tiwani

Student (10861378)

APPENDIX 8 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Faculty Education

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this research. As the head of the school I have decided to include you in this research. Are you okay with me tape recording this interview? Before we can continue with the interview can you confirm your age, qualifications and provide a brief background of your teaching career as to where and when did you start your teaching career and at what management levels.

1. What opportunities of development are available for you as the departmental head and generally as a teacher in this area?
 - Where and who are the organisers – Is it the school, the district or a private NGO? Who is the presenter and what is the duration or length of the sessions, who is paying the cost? Is the focus on the development of leadership, the content acquisition of the subject or the academic development of the teacher?
2. How do you participate in the above mentioned teacher development opportunities?
 - Explain why you participate or do not participate
3. What benefits do you get from these development opportunities?
 - Could it be leadership or management development, teaching and learning development or personal development? Specify and clarify?
4. Are teachers accountable for their participation in development?
5. If yes, to whom are they accountable and how are they held accountable?

APPENDIX 8 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

6. How effective are the current systems of holding teachers accountable for their development?
 - How would you determine the effectiveness of holding them accountable?
 - Is it improved teaching? Improved learner performance? Improved remarks?
7. How effective are the current systems of holding teachers accountable for learner performance?
 - How do you link accountability for performance and accountability for development?
8. What are your feelings or views about participating in the current development opportunities?
9. What challenges do you encounter in your daily professional development endeavours as a rural school principal?
 - Specify and indicate whether these are processual, structural or personal related issues?
10. How would you address the teacher development challenges of rural primary schools if you were in charge of teacher development in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District?

APPENDIX: 9- INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH DEPARTMENTAL HEADS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH DEPARTMENTAL HEADS

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this research. As the head of department who is in charge of appraisal processes and development of teachers in the school, I have decided to include you in this research. Are you okay with me tape recording this interview? Before we can continue with the interview can you confirm your age, qualifications and provide a brief background of your teaching career as to where and when did you start your teaching career and at what management levels.

1. What opportunities of development are available for you as the departmental head and generally as a teacher in this area?
 - Where and who are the organisers – Is it the school, the district or a private NGO? Who is the presenter and what is the duration or length of the sessions, who is paying the cost? Is the focus on the development of leadership, the content acquisition of the subject or the academic development of the teacher?
2. How do you participate in the above mentioned teacher development opportunities?
 - Explain why you participate or do not participate
3. What benefits do you get from these development opportunities?
 - Could it be leadership or management development, teaching and learning development or personal development? Specify and clarify?
4. Are teachers accountable for their participation in development?
5. If yes, to whom are they accountable and how are they held accountable?

APPENDIX: 9- INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH DEPARTMENTAL HEADS

6. How effective are the current systems of holding teachers accountable for their development?
 - How would you determine the effectiveness of holding them accountable?
 - Is it improved teaching? Improved learner performance? Improved remarks?
7. How effective are the current systems of holding teachers accountable for learner performance?
 - How do you link accountability for performance and accountability for development?
8. What are your feelings or views about participating in the current development opportunities?
9. What challenges do you encounter in your daily professional development endeavours as a rural school departmental head?
 - Specify and indicate whether these are processual, structural or personal related issues?
10. How would you address the teacher development challenges of rural primary schools if you were in charge of teacher development in Dr Kaunda District?

Original details: (12103380) C:\Users\12103380\Desktop\Briefhoof.docm
6 April 2018

APPENDIX 10: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

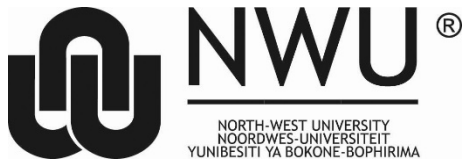
Faculty of Education Sciences

Faculty Research Administration

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this research. Before we can continue with the interview can you confirm your age, qualifications and your current place of residence as well as the subject you are currently teaching and the number of years in the current grade and or phase?

1. What opportunities of teacher development are available for you as a teacher in this area?
2. How do you participate in the above mentioned teacher development opportunities?
3. What benefits do you get from these teacher development opportunities?
4. How effective are the current systems of holding teachers accountable for their development?
5. How effective are the current systems of holding teachers accountable for learner performance?
6. What are your feelings or views about participating in the current teacher development opportunities?
7. What challenges do you encounter in your daily professional development endeavours as a rural school teacher?
8. How would you address the teacher development challenges of rural primary schools if you were in charge of teacher development in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District?

APPENDIX 11: AN EXAMPLE OF AN INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A SCHOOL PRINCIPAL



Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222

Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Faculty Education

INTERVIEWER: Good Morning Ma'am

INTERVIEWEE: Morning, morning Sir

INTERVIEWER: If we may begin with our interview, thank you very much Principal for agreeing to participate in this research project. As the head of the school and in line with your job description of ensuring that the education of learners is promoted in a proper manner and in accordance with the approved policies as well as that of managing the school satisfactorily, I have decided to include you in this research. But before we can continue with the interview can you confirm your age, qualifications and a brief background of your teaching career as to when did you start teaching?

INTERVIEWEE: I am 49 years old.

INTERVIEWER: And then your qualifications?

INTERVIEWEE: Its Primary Teachers Diploma, Further Diploma in Education, ACE and Bed Honours.

INTERVIEWER: And then can you provide a brief background of your career

INTERVIEWEE: I started at.....primary school in 1992.

INTERVIEWER: At what management levels

INTERVIEWEE: By then I was a PL1 educator and then promoted in 2000 as a departmental head. In July 2012 I was promoted as a deputy principal.

INTERVIEWER: And now you are leading the school.

APPENDIX 11: AN EXAMPLE OF AN INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

INTERVIEWEE: Yes I am leading the school now.

INTERVIEWER: What opportunities of teacher development are available for you as the principal?

INTERVIEWEE: As a principal I was developed. Our Circuit Manager constantly visits us as principals under his Circuit to monitor and provide support with regard that we need assistance in at school.

INTERVIEWER: And now as a teacher?

INTERVIEWEE: Our subject advisors helps us, like we always have PSF meetings, In-service training and develop us with regard to our subjects. In our school we have subject heads. We meet and support each other if there is an area that you need assistance in they are of great help if you need assistance.

INTERVIEWER: And then you mentioned the Circuit Manager and subject advisors, are they the ones who organise these workshops.

INTERVIEWEE: Yes SIR.

INTERVIEWER: And then who foots the bill, who pays when there has to be payments?

INTERVIEWEE: The department of education.

INTERVIEWER: And then they also play the role of presenting these workshops?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes

INTERVIEWER: How do you participate in these development opportunities?

INTERVIEWEE: We do partake because when they are presenting as principals we are given a chance to interact with them. Also when we have meetings everybody participates like if there is something that you want to understand they ask questions and we respond to the questions.

INTERVIEWER: What benefits do you get from these development opportunities?

INTERVIEWEE: I benefit more knowledge. As I growing I have noticed that there are things that I did not know when I started teaching so now as the levels go up I gain more knowledge.

INTERVIEWER: Alright Ma'am. Are teachers accountable for participating in these developments?

APPENDIX 11: AN EXAMPLE OF AN INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

INTERVIEWEE: They are accountable because when the circular says a teacher must go to a workshop or meeting, he has to go. You have to go.

INTERVIEWER: So they are accountable to whom?

INTERVIEWEE: In our department of education as teachers we know that we are accountable. If a teacher cannot attend he has to provide a valid reason as to why he cannot go to the departmental head as well as the principal and subject advisor.

INTERVIEWER: Ma'am, there is this thing of SACE and CPTD which has a point system whereby one should attend development activities if you don't attend this and that will happen to you. Has it not come to your attention that SACE says one, two, three.

INTERVIEWEE: It did come to our attention. It has already started. Everybody who participate in development activities get the point.

INTERVIEWER: Which brings us to the next question, how effective are the current systems of holding teachers accountable for teacher development?

INTERVIEWEE: Up to so far no one monitors our loaded points. According to me it is not effective because after writing those assessments for our developments we thought that there would be something that we would get or someone would come to monitor or encourage us on what we have done but so far it is not effective.

INTERVIEWER: At school how effective are the systems of holding teachers accountable for learner performance?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes they are very effective, they make improvements. I can say in our school every term we check how our learners have performed through quarterly analysis and after that we sit as grade teachers or subject teachers then we design intervention strategies and implement them, (one of which) some teachers remain after school (extra classes) others come with learners on Saturdays to implement those intervention strategies. In our school there are progressed learners. We also check their performance and involve their parents because some of the learners are slow. There is also a teacher who deals with progressed learners.

INTERVIEWER: Generally Ma'am, how are the progressed learners perform after all these interventions including parents' involvement.

APPENDIX 11: AN EXAMPLE OF AN INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

INTERVIEWEE: There is a slight improvement, is not that much because when you checked them after second term there was a slight improvement although some are still struggling.

INTERVIEWER: In your assessment Ma'am, what could be their problem?

INTERVIEWEE: Sometimes it lies with the teachers. You will find that when teachers are supposed to identify learners with barriers (early identification of learners with learning barriers) they didn't and simply progressed them without any referrals to specialist structures and individuals.

INTERVIEWER: How developed are teachers in supporting a child who has learning barriers at an early age?

INTERVIEWEE: I can say fortunately in our school they have got that eye of identifying learners with barriers to learning and there is also a committee [ILST] that assists.

INTERVIEWER: Ma'am, how do you link accountability for teacher development and accountability for learner performance? Is there any link between the two?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes there is a link. I think so because when teachers are developed they come back with information gained from development?

INTERVIEWER: What are your perceptions about the current teacher development opportunities?

INTERVIEWEE: I feel that there has to be more teacher development activities because we gain a lot from them. There are things that I was not aware of but now as I also meet other principals of other schools and my seniors I gain more. There are also challenges of other schools whereby when you meet other principals they give you advises on how to solve those challenges.

INTERVIEWER: What challenges do you encounter in your professional development endeavours as a principal in this area?

INTERVIEWEE: Firstly we have learners who stay far from school leading to late coming, the second one is absenteeism even though it is not that high due to the NSNP feeding scheme.

APPENDIX 11: AN EXAMPLE OF AN INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

INTERVIEWER: With regard to distance are there no attempts from the side of the department or you as the school, through the SGB in ensuring that you alleviate that?

INTERVIEWEE: Our department is trying as we attended a meeting where we were told how to help those learners who are walking long distances. They are still looking at interventions as they have noticed that learners travel long distances. As a school we do not have means to assist in this regard.

INTERVIEWER: What challenges do you encounter as a subject teacher?

INTERVIEWEE: The main challenge still remains the distance that these learners travel to and from school.

INTERVIEWER: And then lastly, if you were in charge of teacher development in the district what would you do to improve the situation.

INTERVIEWEE: I would call a meeting involving SGB members and look at ways of resolving the identified problems.

INTERVIEWER: This brings us to the end of our interview.

APPENDIX 12: AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A DEPARTMENTAL HEAD



Private Bag X6001,
Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Faculty Education

INTERVIEWER: Good Morning Ma'am

INTERVIEWEE: Hallo, Good Morning Sir

INTERVIEWER: Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this research project. As the head of department who is in charge of appraisal processes and development of teachers in the school I have decided to include you in this research. But before we can continue with the interview can you confirm your age, qualifications and a brief background of your teaching career as to when did you start teaching?

INTERVIEWEE: I started teaching in 2001 here in Dr Kenneth Kaunda District at.....I worked there for five years and then I got this promotional post...(departmental head) in 2006. I am 42 years old. I studied at Tsengiwe College of Education from 1995 to 1997 doing a Primary Teachers Diploma. I did Grade 1, 2, Grade 3 and Grade 4 in music with UNISA. In 2009 I did ACE in Technology with the NWU. I then did CUBA and Grade 8 with ABRSM [Associated Broad of Royal Schools Music]. In 2010 I did a Certificate in Life Skills teaching in 2010.

INTERVIEWER: Have these qualifications, especially the one in Music and the ICT one, assist you in any way in your current position as the departmental head?

INTERVIEWEE: I can say music...both but...with regard to music they did because I got this post because of music. With regard to ICT it's also having something...it's an advantage on my side. Its reducing my workload...there is now a reduction of the workload from the AA's because before this I used to write by hand and request someone to type for me but now I can type my things myself and I can set my assessment tasks...

INTERVIEWER: What opportunities of teacher development are available for you now as a departmental head?

APPENDIX 12: AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A DEPARTMENTAL HEAD

INTERVIEWEE: I think I can serve as a subject advisor...I can serve as a principal...I can lead a school.

INTERVIEWER: Have you been to a developmental programme that makes you to be confident as you are?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes...partly yes...let me refer to subject advisors. They (often) call us...to those PSF's and they require from us as teachers from schools.

INTERVIEWER: How do you participate in these PSF's?

INTERVIEWEE: Usually when they (subject advisors) call us they demand things from us...proof of work...where there are questions to be asked I ask and deliberate and I usually ask both as a teacher and also as a departmental head because in some of the PSF's they call teachers who are responsible for certain subjects and I am also responsible for some subjects because I am also teaching.

INTERVIEWER: What subjects are you teaching and in which Grades?

INTERVIEWEE: I am teaching IsiXhosa HL in Grade 7, Life Skills in Grades 5 & 6, Social Sciences in Grade 4, and Creative Arts in Grade 7.

INTERVIEWER: Is it not too much? What about the workload?

INTERVIEWEE: It is but there is nothing that I can do. According to the allocation [PPM] of teachers that we have it had to end there.

INTERVIEWER: What benefits do you get from these workshops and PSF's?

INTERVIEWEE: As an HOD...I end up understanding...and able to follow the subjects that I am not teaching and not conversant with. I end up understanding what demands are there, following the policy of course...These PSF's come in handy because they analyse what is needed in each subject and on that day I will be able to know that for such and such subject this must be done. I will be coming to school knowing what should be done (for each period of each subject).

INTERVIEWER: How many teachers do you have at your school Meneer?

INTERVIEWEE: There are 13.

APPENDIX 12: AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A DEPARTMENTAL HEAD

INTERVIEWER: Are teachers accountable for their participation in development activities?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes, yes.

INTERVIEWER: To whom do we account and how do we account?

INTERVIEWEE: In general as teachers we account to the department and I know you will ask who the department is. The department has put responsible personnel in all the areas that the department owns (sic). Teachers in schools...PL1's ...account to the HOD's (departmental heads), HOD's (departmental heads) account to the deputy principal when there is a deputy principal and if there is no deputy principal they account to the principal...categorically so the principal has to account to the circuit inspector (circuit manager). When he or she has come to the school.

INTERVIEWER: Let us say Sir I didn't go to any development activity including ignoring circulars that invite me to attend workshops as a teacher or as an HOD. Who is going to ask me what?

INTERVIEWEE: Like I said, there are personnel who are stationed in each centre...Schools are known. If you are teaching for example SS there is sometimes what is known as an attendance register that is used by people who are attending. That is not just for signing, the subject advisor must check how many schools did attend the subject advisor must report to the circuit manager who must also report...There is a way...the circuit manager goes back to the principal who must also give reasons. It usually happens.

INTERVIEWER: How effective are these systems of holding teachers accountable for their development?

INTERVIEWEE: They are very much effective because some of these teachers don't do their work and you as an HOD. You hold them accountable by monitoring them and write. You will note that after you have monitored and wrote your observation you will see that there is a change t...regardless ...because there will be those who will go on going slow.

INTERVIEWER: How effective are the systems of holding teachers accountable for learner performance?

APPENDIX 12: AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A DEPARTMENTAL HEAD

INTERVIEWEE: That one...that one is very difficult. They are not much effective. If you do continuous monitoring, you will see change in their work giving learners activities and learners doing their activities but there is an element that needs to be put there.

INTERVIEWER: What about analysing learner's performance after their results? Is it not working? Is it not bearing any better fruits?

INTERVIEWEE: It is but it does not go to 100% that's why I say that. What is important is that these learners must achieve on their own...but you will see even if the teacher has changed his ways of doing things those one two three learners will lag behind.

INTERVIEWER: Which brings me to this other question, the progressed learners. How effective are your ways of ensuring that these learners pass on their own because I have learnt that in many instances a progressed learner that is in Grade 7 now was progressed in two or three Grades (before)?

INTERVIEWEE: Recently, I have noted that there is not much difference...I followed up on learners that are in my school. I noted that almost all the learners that are progressed in Grade 6 were all progressed for two to three years before.

INTERVIEWER: How do you link, if there is any link, accountability for learner performance and accountability for teacher development?

INTERVIEWEE: They have a link...because the achievement ...performance of learners comes from what the learners are doing when they are with the teacher during the time that is timetabled. If the teacher is incapable of what he/she is supposed to do, obvious he is going to pass on to the learner. I will make an example even though I am not a Mathematician.

If you allocate Mathematics to a teacher who is not mathematically literate that teacher will give learners wrong information, wrong ways of dealing with Maths.

INTERVIEWER: In other words what are saying about learner performance and teacher development?

INTERVIEWEE: If...like I said as an HOD if you see that there is no change therefore you must make means to organise that this teacher is helped where there is a challenge.

APPENDIX 12: AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A DEPARTMENTAL HEAD

INTERVIEWER: What are your perceptions about participating in the current teacher development opportunities?

INTERVIEWEE: They are good...They are good because we cannot say if you are a teacher ...if you were good then you will always be good. You need to be revived, number one that's why I am saying they are good, you need to be revived, what you know must be refreshed, and then... we are dealing with CAPS now, some of the things in your subject...the way to do them...yes you may know it...but the way to do it CAPS has come with new ways new styles of dealing with things. They are also good because of...some of the meetings that we attend give us an opportunity to understand how do we do and how are we in our schools because we are now grouped with other schools then as a result you are able to rate yourself...you are able to rate your performance...how you do things. If you are a person with a nerve you will come back because you want to improve your level if you were wrong and if you were higher...you will need to keep on the level.

INTERVIEWER: What challenges do you encounter in your daily professional endeavours as a departmental head?

INTERVIEWEE: Not much...I cannot much challenges. Like I said I lead sometimes teachers who do subjects that I don't know but on that ground I am saying there are not much challenges because I involve them in all my activities. When I don't understand something I ask and they will enlighten me, I always interact with them not as a boss this time but as a leader so that where I don't know I know and we move...life moves on.

INTERVIEWER: What challenges do you encounter in your daily professional endeavours as a teacher?

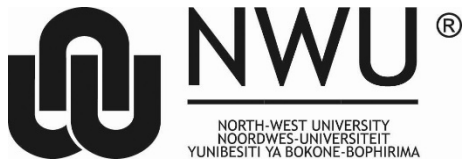
INTERVIEWEE: Also there I cannot say there are no much challenges... I am conversant with the subjects that I teach.

INTERVIEWER: If you were in charge of teacher development in the district how you would address teacher development challenges of rural primary school teachers?

INTERVIEWEE: To address the challenges that are there...the parent must always be there. We are having a big problem with parents who not involved [in the education of the learner]

INTERVIEWER: This brings us to the end of the interview.

APPENDIX 13 AN EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT WITH A TEACHER



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Faculty Education

INTERVIEWER: Good Morning Ma'am

INTERVIEWEE: Good Morning Sir

INTERVIEWER: Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this research. As of the experienced teachers of the school I've decided to include you in this research. Before we can continue with the interview can you confirm your age? Qualifications and also provide a brief background of your teaching career?

INTERVIEWEE: My age...I am 50years old. I started teaching in the Eastern Cape in 2005.

INTERVIEWER: And your qualifications...?

INTERVIEWEE: My qualifications...I am having PTD and Bed [Educational Management]

INTERVIEWER: What grade are you teaching?

INTERVIEWEE: Presently I am teaching NS and Technology in Grade 7.

INTERVIEWER: What opportunities of teacher development are available for you as a teacher in this area?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes am having so many... [teacher development] opportunities...PSF meetings whereby they are developing us in learner development and they are developing us in our subjects...to [have] expertise (sic) in our subjects.

INTERVIEWER: Alright, and mostly who organises these PSF's?

INTERVIEWER: Subject advisors?

INTERVIEWEE: Alright, and in terms of paying for them...for accommodation, food as well as transport if there might need for transport?

INTERVIEWEE: The department of Education is also involved.

INTERVIEWER: Ok, Ma'am. And...Err...how do you participate in these workshops?

INTERVIEWEE: I participate a lot, I've become deeply involved in the activities in assisting our colleagues, and in the group activities, for an example in NS when they need an experiment I become a leader because I like NS.

INTERVIEWER: Alright...and then...err. What about in your group do you also group activities and then share ideas with your fellow colleagues?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes as a result most of the time I become a group leader because I like to know.

INTERVIEWER: What benefit do you get from them?

INTERVIEWEE: I get a lot of information...I get a lot of knowledge from them because some of the things I don't know... there are a lot of ideas and opinions in so much that in some of the things that I don't know I get them and my school...benefits.

INTERVIEWER: Ok, including your learners? Are teachers accountable for teacher development?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes they are accountable, in so much that if you didn't attend these PSF's your account a lot because there follow ups.

INTERVIEWER: Who make those follow ups?

INTERVIEWEE: Subject advisors, they the make follow ups...they visit our schools as individuals and ask the principal...did (so and so) attend the PSF...and principals are also accountable for us. They must submit ... (reasons) why didn't you attend. So it's very much important to come with the feedback to the principal as well as tour colleagues including the learners.

INTERVIEWER: Ok, Mam. How effective are these systems of holding teachers accountable? The influence and the follow-ups of subject advisers and the intervention of the principal as you have just mentioned?

INTERVIEWER: In the first place this thing goes with the procedure because there is a circular that comes saying teacher x is supposed to attend a workshop so the principal will call you and tell you that you are supposed to go to a workshop. If you didn't go and the subject advisor comes to your school to find out why you didn't go it is a sign of misconduct and a disgrace to school.

INTERVIEWER: How effective are the ways of accounting for learner performance?

INTERVIEWEE: They are very much effective because as a teacher in the first place you must explain why did your learners fail and what is the problem and what are the challenges in the classroom and outside the classroom. And immediately when you are laying out the challenges as a teacher again you must explain how you are going to resolve those challenges, how are you going to improve your results. Then you make a time table or an improvement plan for your subject...

INTERVIEWER: Ma'am, is there a link between accountability for learner performance and accountability for teacher development.

INTERVIEWEE: Yes, in my opinion they link because if as a teacher they don't develop you will suffer in class...you can't develop the learners if you are empty you don't know anything. You must be developed through those workshops and PSF meetings.

INTERVIEWER: Alright Ma'am, and...err...what are your perceptions about the current teacher development opportunities?

INTERVIEWER: Yes, they are very good...in my perception because...we are gaining lots of things even from other teachers that we don't know...we are gaining so many things...genuine information in terms of the learners how to handle discipline...how to teach the learners in right way... how to follow the right rules in your class.

INTERVIEWER: Before we go to the last one, what challenges do you encounter in your daily professional development endeavours as a rural school teacher?

INTERVIEWEE: My challenges that I face as a rural school teacher?? I can just mention one challenge whereby in many times when it rains there is high absentee rate in my class.

INTERVIEWER: How would you address the teacher development challenges of rural primary schools if you were in charge of teacher development in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District?

INTERVIEWEE: I think I would consult the department of public works to maintain roads so as to be accessible even during rainy days.

INTERVIEWER: In your post evaluation meeting that you had....how has your DSG or the management team or HOD assisted you so far in terms of the development needs that you indicated.

INTERVIEWEE: Yes they assisted me especially in learner discipline.

INTERVIEWER: Talking about discipline Ma'am how do you involve parents so that disciplining learners isn't only your responsibility?

INTERVIEWEE: Yes we do call parents meetings.

INTERVIEWER: In your encounter in this school how would you rate the in school monitoring [done by departmental heads, deputy principals, subject advisors and principals].

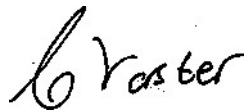
INTERVIEWEE: At the school level monitoring is fine. Departmental heads, deputies and the subject advisors monitor our work. In fact as teachers we are not supposed to wait for seniors to monitor our work. We must do our work.

INTERVIEWER: Ma'am, this brings us to the end of our interview.

DECLARATION

I, C Vorster (ID: 710924 0034 084), Language editor and Translator and member of the South African Translators' Institute (SATI member number 1003172), herewith declare that I did the language editing of a research work, written by Mr SV Tiwani (student number 10861378), from the North-West University.

Title of the work: Teacher development as a requirement for school improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district.



23 September 2019

C Vorster

Date

APPENDIX 15 ETHICS CERTIFICATE



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Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Research Ethics Regulatory Committee
Tel: +27 18 299 4849
Email: Ethics@nwu.ac.za

ETHICAL APPROVAL LETTER OF STUDY

Based on approval by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences (ESREC) on 20/06/2018, the North-West University Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-RERC) hereby **approves** your study as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-RERC grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the study may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Study title: Teacher development as a requirement for school improvement in rural primary schools of the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District.															
Study Leader/Supervisor/Researcher: Prof J Heystek															
Project team: SV Tiwani															
Ethics number:	N	W	U	-	0	0	2	8	2	-	1	8	-	A	2
	Institution				Study Number					Year			Status		
Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation															
Application Type:															
Commencement date: 2018-05-24					Expiry date: 2019-04-30					Risk:		Low			

Special conditions of the approval (if applicable):

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, the following general terms and conditions will apply:

- The study leader (principle investigator/researcher) must report in the prescribed format to the ESREC:
 - annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the study, and upon completion of the project
 - without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project; and
 - Annually a number of projects may be randomly selected for an external audit.
- The approval applies strictly to the proposal as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the proposal be deemed necessary during the course of the study, the study leader must apply for approval of these changes at the ESREC. Would there be deviation from the study proposal without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-RERC via ESREC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility, the NWU-RERC and ESREC reserves the right to:
 - request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the study;
 - to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process;
 - withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected;
 - it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the ESREC or that information has been false or misrepresented;
 - the required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately; and/or
 - new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.
- ESREC can be contacted for further information or any report templates via Erna.Greyling@nwu.ac.za or 018 299 4656

The ESREC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the NWU-RERC or ESREC for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Prof Jako Olivier
Chair NWU Education Sciences Research Ethics Committee