



**University of Fort Hare**  
*Together in Excellence*

**An assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in secondary schools in Lady Frere District, Eastern Cape**

**By**

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**Promoter: Prof. S Rembe**

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## **DECLARATION**

I hereby solemnly declare that this thesis entitled “An assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in secondary schools in Lady Frere District, Eastern Cape” is wholly a product of my own research. It has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institution of tertiary education. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of other authors has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is provided.

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**Date**

# ABSTRACT

This study assessed the implementation of Continuous Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) programmes for Lady Frere rural senior secondary school teachers. The interest in the study was aroused by the consistent poor Matric results in the Eastern Cape Province despite the entire efforts by Department of Education to put structures to facilitate teacher development programmes for the secondary teachers in the region. Moreover, research has found that, in spite of the development programmes that are conducted for senior secondary teachers there is no teacher change, no improved classroom practice and therefore no improved learner performance. Subsequently, it appears from literature that there has never been a study conducted to assess the implementation of CPTD programmes. Hence the researcher was motivated to assess how the CPTD programmes are implemented in the Lady Frere district of Eastern Cape with the intention of exploring better strategies to implement CPTD programmes that may result into teacher change.

The nature of the research problem placed the study within the post-positivism paradigm, and used the mixed-method design. Concurrent procedures were used to collect, analyse and interpret data. The quantitative data was collected through the use of questionnaires while qualitative data were collected through interviews, observations and document analysis. With observation, it was necessary for the researcher to observe both the training programmes and the teachers in their classes after each development session organised by the facilitators in the district (three training sessions and three class visits). The fifteen rural secondary schools were involved in the study through questionnaires administered to each grade eleven teacher (one per school), cluster leaders, HoDs, principals and facilitators. Interviews were conducted with a random selection of teachers, cluster leaders, HoDs, principals and facilitators of the programmes. The head of the Curriculum Section (CES) of the district was interviewed as well.

The major short coming in the implementation of CPTD programmes revealed by the study was the use of centralised models of teacher development. Once-off workshops that had no follow-ups were proved not to be effective for teacher. The study also indicated that facilitators had a challenge in the planning and designing of

the CPTD programmes as the teachers were not made to be part of the planning. The incapacity of facilitators was proved in the study by the fact that the only models used for the development of teachers were the transmissive model which focused on the technical aspect of the profession. The study found that the facilitators were less informed about school-based models that were transitional and transformative. Hence, no idealistic on-sited development programmes were conducted in schools. It became clear also that time allocated to CPTD programmes was inadequate as facilitators were less informed of how the schools could come up with ways and means of creating time for school-based activities. Monitoring and support mechanisms in schools were not in place mainly because facilitators were not aware of such responsibilities.

Through observations the study revealed that teachers after the training session were actually implementing what they had been taught, both content and pedagogy. The only challenge revealed by the study was the fact that if teachers were lectured on in their development programmes they would do the same once they get back to their classes. If the method of development was collaborative in the centre they would involve their learners in collaborative class activities once they were back at school.

Based on the findings of the study the researcher has put forth some recommendations for the effective implementation of CPTD programmes. Amongst the recommendation there is planning and designing of CPTD programmes and the creation of ways and means to allocate time for the implementation of the programmes. For CPTD to be able to serve its purpose SACE and DoE should consider restructuring the implementation strategy for the success of the programmes.

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my beloved parents, Nowinett and Jack Mnyande, who loved and understood me in a special way. My mother's spiritual inspiration and Christian values taught with tenderness life and shaped my spiritual path everyday long after she passed on. My late father who always wished that I become a learned person influenced my studies all the way. This work is also dedicated to my parents in-law, Rosamond and Rose-Innes Mashologu who loved me so dearly that they took me as their own child.

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# ACRONYMS

B.Ed	Bachelor of Education
C2005	Curriculum 2005
CASS	Continuous Assessment
CES	Curriculum Education Specialist
CPTD	Continuous Professional Teacher Development
DAS	Development and Appraisal System
DoE	Department of Education
DSGs	Development Support Groups
EC	Eastern Cape
ECDoE	Eastern Cape Department of Education
EDOs	Education Development Officers
ELRC	Education Labour Relations Committee
FET	Further Education and Training
GET	General Education and Training
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HoDs	Heads of Department
IQMS	Integrated Quality Management System
KFC	Kentucky Fried Chicken
LAs	Learning Areas
MCTE	Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education
MIP	Matric Intervention Programme
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NECTL	National Education Commission on Time and Learning
NETF	National Education and Training Forum
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPF	National Policy Framework
NPFTED	National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development
OBE	Outcomes-Based Education
OSD	Occupation Specific Dispensation
PDoE	Provincial Department of Education
PED	Provincial Education and Training
PED	Provincial Education Department
PMS	Performance Measurement System

RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACE	South African Council for Educators
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SMT	Senior Management Team
SMTs	Senior Management Teams
SSA	Sub-Saharan Association
TCUL	Texas Credit Union League
TED	Teacher Education and Development
TEMS	Teacher Economic Management Sciences
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WCED	Western Cape Education Department
WSE	Whole School Evaluation

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# CHAPTER ONE

## BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

There has been an increase in the focus on continuing professional development for the teaching profession in most countries throughout the world (Fraser, Kennedy, Reid & McKinney, 2007; Coolahan, 2002). Studies attribute this to recognition and enhancement of the wider policy agenda of life long learning and increased focus on schooling by states as a means of improving learner performance and production of required skills in order to attain economic prosperity in the globally competitive workplace (Fraser et. al., 2007; Coolahan, 2002; Schwille & Dembele, 2007). Continuous professional teacher development (CPTD) encompasses both teacher professional learning and development (Coffield, 2000; Friedman & Philips, 2004). According to Fraser et al. (2007):

Teachers' professional learning can be taken to represent the processes that whether intuitive or deliberate, individual or social, result in specific changes in the professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs or actions of teachers. Teachers' professional development, on the other hand refers to the broader changes that may take place over a longer period of time resulting in qualitative shifts in aspects of teachers' professionalism (156-157).

The above statement shows that CPTD (both teacher professional learning and development) lead to teacher change, that is, it is a form of change strategy, namely the empirical rational and normative re-educative change strategies (Richardson & Placier, 2001; Fraser et. al., 2007). According to Richardson & Placier (2001: 965), the empirical-rational strategy for change is concerned mostly with promoting a conventional knowledge transfer process. The normative re-educative strategy tends to be more naturalistic and incorporated into the authentic, ongoing, professional

activities of teachers, effected by enabling them to exercise more autonomy and agency and through cultivating their professional growth. Hence the most immediate and significant outcome of any successful CPTD is a positive impact in changing teachers' knowledge and practice, which in turn will lead to improved learner performance (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002).

There are different models of CPTD classified as transmissive, transitional and transformative (Kennedy, 2005). With the transmissive model, teacher development is conducted by an external expert focusing mainly on imparting skills such as the technical aspects of the work instead of issues relating to values, beliefs and attitudes. An example could be teachers being trained on assessment. The main strategy of implementation that is commonly used is workshops and cascade model (Maistry, 2008; Hayes, 2000). These implementation models take place outside and inside the school. For example, an expert conducts workshops to teachers of a particular subject through a lecture presentation. Also, workshops are usually used to introduce a certain aspect of the curriculum. In the case of a cascade implementation model, teacher development is conducted in different levels from the district Education Departmental Officials (EDOs) down to the teachers at school. The subject cluster teachers are trained by EDOs at a central venue. They in turn facilitate the development of subject teachers in their different clusters or schools. This is done by centrally developing one subject teacher per school. These subject teachers in turn develop their colleagues in their various schools (Schwille & Dembele, 2007; Kennedy, 2005).

With transitional models, CPTD has the capacity to support either transmissive agenda or transformative agenda, depending on its form and philosophy (Kennedy, 2005). Implementation models that fit under this category include coaching or mentoring and communities of practice. Peer coaching and communities of practice, for example, can be understood as professional development models where teachers work together to support each other's professional growth (Auckland, 1991; Joyce & Showers, 2002). This can be done through experimentation, observation, reflection and exchange of professional ideas and shared problem solving (Auckland, 1991; Joyce & Showers, 2002). Teachers learn from one another from planning, instruction, developing material and watching each other working with students. This model is generally used to enhance the status and profile of the

teaching profession by creating opportunities that support and contribute to shaping education policy and practice (Edwards, 1991).

Transformative model creates the potential for teachers to critique and shape educational reform (Kennedy, 2005). The models in this case include Action Research model which, is a powerful tool for change and improvement at the local level (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2002: 221). This involves teachers in research and the evaluation of their own performance. It is done by focusing on challenges experienced by teachers in the practice and finding solutions to them. It therefore, provides the means for teachers to enhance their teaching and improve student learning (Stringer, 2008). Transformative models demonstrate the most effective efforts for change to take place close to the action. Transformative models of CPTD are aimed at the needs and expectations of the teachers. They are practical, occur continuously and they give teachers the opportunity for professional development and growth (Kennedy, 2005).

The three models of CPTD presented above do not take place in isolation and are on a continuum (Kennedy, 2005). Following implementation of a transmissive model, which is supposed to impart knowledge, a follow-up can be done by implementing a transitional model which entails monitoring and coaching teachers at school. The transformative models, whose emphasis is on changing teachers' orientation and beliefs, can then be implemented as a follow-up to the transmissive models. Monitoring, coaching and mentoring, in this case transitional models, take place so as to strengthen the transformative models. These models, therefore, all operate together and as such they are supposed to bring about teacher change (Kennedy, 2005). Guskey (1986) on the other hand, outlines a model on how such teacher change takes place in CPTD. According to Guskey (1986), staff development leads to change in teachers' classroom practice, which in turn leads to a change in student learning outcomes, after which teachers' beliefs change.

School-based development strategies are the most effective transformative implementation models for teacher change because they take place close to the action, teacher specific, involve teachers in progress decision, include classroom assistance and have regular meetings that focus on practical problems (Edward, 1991; Engelbrecht, Ankwicz & Swardt, 2007). Furthermore, international evidence

shows that CPTD succeeds best when teachers themselves are integrally involved by reflecting on their own practice, and, when employers provide sustained leadership and support (DoE, 2007). Coolahan (2002: 154) indicates that the best ways of having effective CPTD are that:

- It should incorporate on and off-site school dimensions;
- Teachers should have a greater role in setting the agenda and being actively engaged in an experiential process;
- Teachers should be assisted to work with their peers as facilitators and team leaders;
- Collaborative, interactional techniques are very much in favour rather than lectures to large groups.

## **1.2 SOUTH AFRICAN SITUATION**

In South Africa after 1994, the Post-Apartheid government was faced with the task of transforming the education system in order to ensure equity and redress and also to meet the global challenges of economic development (Department of Education (DoE), 2003; DoE, 2006; du Plessis, Conley & du Plessis, 2007; Maistry, 2008). This entailed fundamental changes in the education system, which included, among other aspects, the adoption of a new curriculum (Jansen & Christie, 1999). The adoption of this new curriculum reconstituted the educational landscape, bringing together the different teachers and their different classroom practices less than one administrative body in each province (Jansen & Taylor, 2001; Adler & Reed, 2002). It also allocated different levels of responsibility for curriculum matters within the new educational system. While norms and standards for educators were the domain of the national department, implementation was a provincial competence (Chisholm, 2004).

Therefore, there was an urgent need for ironing variations in the curriculum, emergency intervention and the development of new curriculum policies (DoE, 2000). Hence, the post-apartheid curriculum reform was intended to be socially transformative as indicated in the White Paper on Education and Training in 1995, and the necessary democratic framework was to be developed to bring about equity and redress (DoE, 1995, 2000). Curriculum reform began with a process of syllabus revision and subject rationalisation by the national Education and Training Forum.

The purpose of this process was mainly to lay the foundation for a single national core syllabus. The National Education and Training Forum curriculum developers, therefore, removed overtly racist and other sensitive language from existing syllabi (Jansen & Taylor, 2001).

The above process was followed with the introduction of the new curriculum referred to as Curriculum 2005 (C2005). It was built around the philosophical principles of outcomes-based education (OBE) (Jansen & Taylor, 2001). The new curriculum emphasized on 'outcomes' instead of input, on learner centeredness instead of teacher centeredness, and on active learning instead of passive learning, thus, signalling a revolutionary new way of teaching and learning in South African classrooms (Stoffels, 2005). It was further argued that teachers would have a more facilitative role and that they would make use of a variety of teaching and assessment strategies, based on learners' experiences and needs. It was, therefore, expected to provide teachers with greater autonomy, responsibility and flexibility to plan and facilitate lessons in ways that suit their particular learners (Jansen & Taylor, 2001).

Curriculum 2005 had some setbacks and had to be reviewed in 1998 (Chisholm, 2004). Teachers complained of frustration, disillusionment, poor training provisions, the complexity of the language and design of the new curriculum, lack of support, and the general haste of implementation (Chisholm, 2004). The review team recommended that C2005 be streamlined and 'strengthened' with a revised version which they referred to as the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (C2005 Review Committee, 2000). The proposed streamlining included reducing the number of Learning Areas from eight to six and discarding some of the problematic designs of C2005 like the complicated language, range statements, performance indicators and phase organisers (DoE, 2000; Chisholm, 2005; Jansen, 1999).

The NCS represents the first curriculum in the history of South Africa that is applicable to all levels in public schools in the country (DoE, 2002). The most important principle of the NCS is that it emphasises an outcomes based approach to Teaching, Learning and Assessment (DoE, 2002). Thus, the outcome of teaching (the observable and demonstrable change within the learner after teaching) is more important than the input (the actual teaching) (DoE, 2002; du Plessis et al., 2007).

The outcome of teaching is, therefore, not only measured in terms of the content that learners can remember, but also more importantly, on what learners can do with the knowledge that they acquire as a result of learning (DoE, 2002).

In order to implement the new curriculum effectively, all teachers were required to shift from old patterns of practice or past orientations to new ones that would lead to change in knowledge as well as attitudes, values, skills and relationships (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). They also needed to strengthen their subject knowledge base, pedagogical content knowledge and teaching skills (Maistry, 2008; Chisholm, 2004). They needed skills in “recognizing, identifying and addressing barriers to learning and creating conducive teaching and learning environments for all learners including those with disabilities and other special needs” (Republic of South Africa (RSA), 2007:16). In other words, it required teachers who are qualified, competent, dedicated and caring, with the ability to fulfil the roles described in the Norms and Standards for educators of 2000 which require a teacher to be:

- i. A specialist in a particular learning area, subject or phase;
- ii. A specialist in teaching and learning;
- iii. A specialist in assessment;
- iv. A curriculum developer;
- v. A leader, administrator and manager;
- vi. A scholar and lifelong learner; and
- vii. A professional who plays a community, citizenship, and pastoral role (DoE, 2006: p.4).

According to the Department of Education (2006), the above identified requirements and changes in teacher development were to be imparted through a well coordinated continuing professional teacher development (CPTD) system. Therefore, the CPTD programmes in South Africa are to transform teachers such that they fulfill their prescribed roles specified in the curriculum policy (DoE, 2006). The National Department of Education regards CPTD as a fundamental aspect that would help improve learner performance by developing teachers such that they learn new roles and ways of teaching (DoE, 2006; Maistry, 2008; Chisholm, 2004; Ramparsad, 2001). The programmes are also designed to enhance lifelong learning that will result in a change in the professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs or actions of

teachers. This would enable them to reflect on and change their own practice (du Plessis et al., 2007).

The predominant concept is that curriculum reform requires input from teachers as well as curriculum specialists if theory is to be translated into practice (Jackson, 1992). Underpinning this concept is the principle that teachers, as agents of change, need to be equipped with the necessary skills to implement the curriculum successfully (Kelly, 2004; Hargreaves, 2003; Taylor & Vinjevold 1999). The significant implication of this principle is that often the knowledge and skills base of the majority teachers is inadequate to reform expectations and needs to be upgraded (Hargreaves, 2003). In the case of South Africa, this requires on-going intensive in-service training courses supplemented with the provision of necessary training materials to be used in the classroom (Kelly, 2004; Hargreaves, 2003, Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999).

In order to achieve the required teacher transformation, a number of organisations, such as the DoE, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), and Academic Institutions, conduct CPTD programmes in South Africa (du Plessis et al., 2007; Chisholm, 2004; Ramparsad, 2001). This study will focus on the implementation of CPTD programmes which are provided by the DoE.

All the CPTD models identified by Kennedy (2005), as outlined in earlier pages, have been adopted in South Africa with an attempt to change teacher classroom practice. The transmissive model uses two implementation strategies: workshops and the cascade model (Kennedy, 2005). When the intention is to generate knowledge and introduce new strategies, workshops are used as the first phase of development. In this phase, an expert facilitates the development by method of lecture presentation to a group of teachers that have gathered in a central venue (DoE, 2006).

The second phase of development is an on-going professional development where cluster leaders who are already established in their various schools are developed centrally on the specific subject didactics of their various subjects. Cluster leaders from various schools; typically come together for varying lengths of time for a workshop (Maistry, 2008; Day & Sachs, 2004). This development of the cluster leaders adopts an off-site cascade model where the departmental officials develop them in two or three days. The lead teachers are then, expected to cascade the

development down to subject teachers in their various clusters or schools, who in turn transfer it to their peers at school (Ramparsad, 2001).

In both phases of development, the DoE facilitators supply materials to the participants (Doe, 2000). In the first phase, the material supplied provides general overview of the curriculum and the policy documents. For the on-going professional development, cluster leaders are provided with materials to supply to the rest of the teachers in their various schools (DoE, 2002). Each package has a Teachers' Resource Book and a Teachers Workbook. At the teacher development centre the facilitators only go through the theoretical aspects of the Resource Book with the lead teachers that are expected to do the same at their various schools (D0E, 2002).

Transitional models of development in South Africa as implied by Kennedy (2005), take the form of monitoring, mentoring and coaching on site. Cluster leaders in this case, as they are supposed to monitor other teachers, combine their monitoring with mentoring and support where they conduct demonstration lesson for their peers (Ramparsad, 2001 & Chisholm, 2004). These models also take the form of peer coaching and communities of practice. Accordingly, teachers work and plan together to support each other's growth. The school support programmes that are conducted by the department officials are an attempt to standardise and deliver quality assurance service at school level (Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDoE), 2004).

In South Africa, transformative off-site continuous professional teacher development programmes such as cluster or cross-school teacher development activities are conducted (du Plessis et al., 2007). This cluster-school professional development supports one of the principles underlying the policy framework where it is clearly stated that it is the responsibility of the teachers themselves, guided by their South African Council for Educators (SACE), to take charge of their development (DoE 2007). Hence, teachers identify the areas in which they need to enhance professionally. In the cluster-school development, subject teachers are gathered in one of the schools in their cluster where they conduct demonstrations using classes of that particular school (du Plessis et al., 2007; DoE, 2007). This approach develops teachers' skills and their content knowledge.

Developmental Appraisal is another transformative programme conducted at school, which is one of the programmes under the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS). As a result, teachers are expected to conduct self evaluation at the beginning of the year after being appraised on the IQMS procedures and processes. It is after this step that teachers will be helped by their Development Support Groups (DSGs) in their various schools to carry on with the following steps of the process, like lesson observation, feedback and discussion. It is only in the first year of implementation that this evaluation/ observation of teachers in practice is carried out quarterly. In subsequent years, only new teachers are evaluated throughout the year while the other teachers are evaluated once per annum (DoE, 2004).

The implementation of CPTD programmes is followed-up by support programmes to assist teachers towards successful teaching and learning activities, so as to enhance learner performance. According to the Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Education (ECDoE), there are on-site curriculum support programmes, from Head Office to districts and from Districts Offices to schools and teachers, which are intended to enhance on-going, continuous growth and development (ECDoE, 2007). It is stated by the Department that conducting school support visits is an on-going development process. It involves supporting teachers in a transparent manner at school and classroom level. It is also an essential component for ensuring effective implementation of what has been learnt in the CPTD programmes. The school support programmes that are conducted by the department officials are an attempt to standardise and deliver quality assurance service at school level (ECDoE, 2004).

These support programmes by ECDoE (2007) outline principles behind school support visits as:

- (i) to ensure teacher development and support;
- (ii) to minimise subjectivity through transparency and open discussion with teachers;
- (iii) to emphasise teachers' feedback and reflection as a critical factor;
- (iv) to recognise good practice as well as areas in need of improvement;
- (v) to encourage continuous teacher development; and
- (vi) to ensure coaching, mentoring and monitoring of teachers by the Development Support Groups (p.3).

Furthermore, it is the duty of the Senior Management Team (SMT) to guide and supervise the staff members and offer professional advice on their work performance (du Plessis et al., 2007). Apart from providing instructional leadership, the principal is responsible for the development of staff training programmes, both school-based and school-focused. To promote effective teaching, principals should encourage innovative teaching, model an array of instructional strategies, help teachers expand their ability to implement a variety of instructional methods (du Plessis et al., 2007). Principals can be effective resources by modelling the selection and implementation of appropriate strategies by helping teachers develop the ability to use alternative instructional strategies. Instructional leadership therefore, is leadership in the design, development and delivery of the curriculum of the school, thus, enabling the school to achieve its goals by making sure that there is effective teaching and learning in the classrooms. The principal and the SMT bear the responsibility of ensuring that there is efficient teaching and learning in the classrooms (du Plessis et al., 2007). In providing the instructional leadership, the principal and the SMT need to perform the following activities:

- i. oversee the curriculum development in the school;
- ii. develop and manage assessment strategies;
- iii. ensure that teaching and learning time is used effectively;
- iv. ensure that classroom activities are learner-paced and learner-centred; and
- v. develop and use team planning techniques (p.103).

Apart from the broad administrative areas listed in the preceding section, which might potentially consist of a number of activities, the SMT (instructional leaders) are also expected to fulfil the following:

- i. setting up staff development programmes;
- ii. participating in an appraisal panel;
- iii. visiting classes and conducting follow-up interviews for purposes of feedback;
- iv. moderating tests and examinations; and
- v. inducting beginner and new teachers at school; making and keeping contact with DoE officials (du Plessis et al., 2007:3).

To a greater extent than before, principals and the SMT in South Africa are expected to provide guidance on tuition and other activities of the school.

The departmental officials are implementing the CPTD programmes which are now in place (Maistry, 2008). All the teachers in South Africa have undergone the CPTD programmes and have also been oriented into new ways of teaching and assessing the curriculum. Moreover, the CPTD programmes are on-going in all the provinces (du Plessis et al., 2007; Maistry, 2008). Despite the implementation of the programmes, some of the teachers still lack capacity in content knowledge and pedagogical skills (Chisholm, 2004; Maistry, 2008). Most of the teachers, particularly those from rural schools, are still using traditional methods of teaching; they remain transmitters of information to passive students who are given summative assessment at the end of the lesson (Craft, 1996; Schoeman & Manyane, 2002; Maistry, 2008). Due to lack of understanding of the material provided during training, most of the teachers are not quite informed on how to utilise the information (N. Yanta, personal conversation, November 12, 2007; Adler & Reed, 2002). Although they are supposed to choose their own material for teaching, most of the instructors do not use the current material; instead they continue using the outdated methods of teaching (Schoeman & Manyane, 2002).

There is a notable low performance of learners at almost all levels which has been partly attributed to a lack of change in classroom practice (Maistry, 2008; DoE, 2007; Umalusi, 2007; Jansen & Taylor, 2003). A report by Umalusi (2007) indicates that 84% of grade 6 learners were unable to read a text and extract basic meaning. It also reveals that only 35.1% of South African learners had minimum reading mastery and 18% had obtained what was regarded as desirable reading.

Internationally, South African learners are performing well below average in core learning areas and even national systematic evaluation does not highlight a bright future (Shuttleworth Foundation, 2009; Adler & Reed, 2002; Smylie, 1999). Similarly, the report of the 2003 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study showed that South African teachers have extensive development opportunities, but the evidence of poor learner performance shows that these have had little impact (Republic of South Africa, 2007:17). Moreover, many teachers, particularly those in the rural schools, are still using traditional methods of teaching. For them teaching is a matter of transferring information to the learners without taking cognisance of the students' participation in their learning; consequently, the pupils are given a

summative assessment at the end of the term (DoE, 2002; Adler & Reed, 2002; Smylie, 1999).

The Eastern Cape Province has had poor performance of learners at almost all levels including Matriculation. In most years, it has had the lowest percentage of students who passed matriculation examination (DoE, 2007; Chisholm, 2004; Christie, Harley & Penny, 2004). According to a report by Daily Dispatch (31 December, 2008), Eastern Cape recorded its worst matriculation pass rate in seven years when just over half of the province's learners successfully graduated. The results were taken as the heavy drop from previous year's figure of 57.1 percent; in 2008, only 50.6% of the matriculates passed. Matriculations pass rates since 2004 range between 50.6% and 59.3% (Daily Dispatch, 31 December 2008; Cape Argus, 31 December 2008). This is also emphasised by the then Minister of Education Naledi Pandor's statement that:

The Eastern Cape, with the pass rate of 57, 1 percent, and Limpopo, with 58 percent continues to be the two bottom provinces; and while the 2007 pass rate is positive in some respects, it is still negative in a number of key performance areas (DoE, 2007: 4).

According to Pandor, this was attributed to the inadequate administrative back-up from the provincial government, the conditions under which children learn and the fact that most teachers in the Eastern Cape were either not qualified or under qualified. The poor matriculation results in the Eastern Cape province was more apparent in schools in the rural areas particularly those in the former homelands (Soudien, 2004; Sayed, 2004; Graven, 2002).

Teachers are also experiencing problems when it comes to promotions of learners in classes at the lower levels. It has been found that many learners do not qualify to be promoted to higher grades/classes but because of the principle of progression they move to the next level (Maistry, 2008; Day & Sachs, 2004). Among the factors that could be identified as contributing to poor matriculation results and poor learner performance in schools in the Eastern Cape, it can be due to the fact that some teachers, possibly, have not changed their classroom practice (Parker, 2002; Grundy & Robinson, 2004). This has been attributed to teaching methods, lack of content

knowledge and pedagogical knowledge and teacher change, despite the fact that there is an assumption of continuous teacher development.

As a result, it was evident that despite CPTD, there had not been adequate teacher change (Chisholm, 2004 & Ramparsad, 2001); hence the need for assessing the implementation of CPTD programmes. The research was conducted in Lady Frere district, which is one of the remote and grossly marginalised rural areas in the northern part of the Eastern Cape.

The district has 164 schools, of which fourteen are secondary schools. These secondary schools are manned by 168 teachers (ECDoE, 2008). All the secondary school teachers in the district have been trained and are currently implementing the new curriculum. They are also supposed to be receiving on going support from district officials and SMTs; however, they are unable to follow the new curriculum guidelines (ECDoE, 2008). They do not seem to have enough knowledge on OBE approaches to teaching and learning (SADTU, 2002 & Chisholm, 2004). The examination results have been poor in all levels, despite all the means by DoE to conduct regular development programmes for teachers (Day & Sachs, 2004; Adler & Reed, 2003; Grundy & Robinson, 2004). Despite the fact that CPTD programmes are still on-going, some teachers still lack capacity to deliver the curriculum practices as many of them are still using the old methods of 'teacher tell' and learner listen', and not the learner finding out for him/herself with the teacher facilitating the learning (Schoeman and Manyane, 2002). Furthermore teacher centredness prevails in most classrooms (SADTU, 2002 & Chisholm, 2004).

### **1.3 THE STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Fundamental changes in the education in South Africa after 1994 including the adoption of the new curriculum led to the introduction of CPTD programmes to enable teachers shift from old orientations to new ones to ensure change in knowledge as well as attitudes, values, skills and relationships (DoE, 2006; Maistry, 2008; Chisholm, 2004; Rampasard, 2001). The move was intended to enhance a change in classroom practice and improve learner performance (Umalusi, 2007; Jansen & Taylor, 2003). Implementation of CPTD programmes has been on-going and all the teachers in the country have been trained (Umalusi, 2007). In the

Eastern Cape all the 62 765 teachers have gone through the professional development programmes (ECDoE, 2008). CPTD programmes are implemented through workshops, cascade model, mentoring/coaching, cluster meetings, teachers planning together, and demonstrations, peer coaching and teacher self-evaluation (Umalusi, 2007; Day & Sachs, 2004; Jansen & Taylor, 2003). The implementation takes place on-school and off-school sites and they are ongoing. As it has been mentioned above, teachers are supposed to be getting on-going support from the SMTs as one of their school-based activities of teacher development.

Despite the implementation of the programmes, some teachers have not changed their classroom practices (Maistry, 2008; Umalusi, 2007; Chisholm, 2004; Jansen & Taylor, 2003). It has also been observed that some teachers do not actually know how to use the materials provided in the training (Maistry, 2008; Schwille & Dembele, 2007). Although they are supposed to choose their own materials for teaching, many of the teachers do not use them; instead they continue using outdated methods of teaching (Schoeman & Manyane, 2002).

As a result, there has been dismal learner performance at all levels particularly in the rural areas. The Eastern Cape has had problems of learner progression; and, the matriculation pass rate has been consistently low (Adler & Reed, 2003; Grundy & Robinson, 2004). Despite the fact that CPTD programmes are on-going in many areas, many teachers have not changed their practice as required; and, learner performance has not improved as expected. Hence, this study assesses the implementation of CPTD programmes in Lady Frere District, in the Eastern Cape Province.

## **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

*The main research question:*

- How are Continuing Professional Teacher Development programmes being implemented in the Lady Frere District?

*The sub research questions:*

- How much time is allocated for the implementation of different CPTD programmes on and off-school sites?

- What is the capacity of facilitators and cluster leaders of the CPTD programmes?
- How appropriate are the:
  - a) Strategies used for training;
  - b) Training and development materials used to implement CPTD programmes?
- How are the teachers implementing what they have learnt from the programmes?
- What are the support and monitoring programmes put in place by Department of Education to assist teachers implement what they have learnt in the programmes?
- What can we learn from the findings of the study regarding implementation of different models of CPTD programmes?

## **1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of the study is to assess the implementation of the CPTD programmes for teachers in the rural secondary schools of Lady Frere in the Eastern Cape.

## **1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The study will assess:

- 1. 6. 1** How Continuing Professional Teacher Development programmes are being implemented in the Lady Frere District;
- 1. 6. 2** How teachers are implementing what they have learnt in the CPTD programmes;
- 1. 6. 3** What monitoring and support programmes have been put in place by the Department of Education to assist teachers in implementing what they have learnt in the CPTD programmes;
- 1. 6. 4** The period allocated to the implementation of CPTD programmes;
- 1. 6. 5** The capacity of facilitators including the effectiveness of their implementation methods and the material used.

## **1.7 ASSUMPTION OF THE STUDY**

**1.7.1** The capacity of CPTD implementers is not up to the required standard;

**1.7.2** The time allocated to conduct the programmes is not adequate;

**1.7.3** There are no proper support programmes by the department of education officials.

## **1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The findings of the study would assist DoE in determining proper transformational strategies for various teacher development programmes, which would lead to teacher change. The challenges facing Teacher Education and Development (TED) in South Africa, including the rural secondary schools of Lady Frere, include a lack of access to quality TED opportunities for prospective and practising teachers, a mismatch between the provision of and demand for teachers of particular type, the failure of the system to achieve dramatic improvement in the quality of teaching and learning in schools, a fragmented and uncoordinated approach to TED (DoE, 2011-2025). Therefore, there is a need for strategies to improve the quality of teacher education and development in order to enable an advancement in the quality of teachers and the methods of teaching. Thus, this study will assist in finding an appropriate CPTD model that would focus on some important aspects of teacher development that would lead to teacher change, like time allocation for different implementation models and different models for different teacher development purposes.

If teachers could be involved in appropriate CPTD programmes and get transformed through the findings of this study, learner performance in the rural secondary schools of Lady Frere in Eastern Cape would improve almost to the required standard.

In spite of all the studies that were done with regard to curriculum and restructuring in the area, the researcher believes that little has been specifically done to bring focus on the proper implementation of teacher development programmes in the rural secondary schools. It has been discovered that the schools in the rural areas produce dismal results as compared to township and urban schools (DoE, 2009). Learners from the rural schools “need accelerated learning because at risk students

must learn at a faster rate than their more privileged peers, not at a slower rate that leaves them further behind. To learn more effectively they need the kind of enriched learning programmes typically provided for gifted students, not a slowed down remedial programme” (Aggarwal, 2005:191).

On the other hand, learners in rural schools need help from powerful teaching and learning activities. If teacher development programmes are not doing what they are meant to be doing and teachers are not changing their practice, there will be less participation in the classroom from both teachers and their learners (Maistry, 2008) and there will be no improvement in learner performance.

## **1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

The study assessed the implementation of the continuing professional teacher development in Lady Frere. It focused only on the on-school and off-school site CPTD programmes that are facilitated by DoE. Participants in the study included Grade 11 teachers of the district, cluster leaders, head of departments, and school principals. The study also assessed all the department officials involved in the teacher development programmes of the district (facilitators) and Curriculum Education Specialist (CES).

## **1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS**

### **1.10.1 Assessment**

Assessment in the study refers to an integrated process for evaluating the nature and extent of teacher development in the implementation of CPTD (Grundy & Robinson, 2004).

### **1.10.2 Implementation:**

Implementation in the study means putting plans and systems of CPTD into Operation (Kennedy, 2005).

### **1.10.3 Continuing Professional Teacher Development:**

This is referring to an on-going development, monitoring and empowering of teachers already practising. It is a process of learning that can be described in terms of transactions between teachers' knowledge, experience and beliefs on one hand, and their professional actions on the other (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). It can also be described as a process of self-development leading to personal growth as well as development of skills and knowledge.

### **1.10.4 On school programmes:**

On-school site programmes are teacher development programmes that occur within the normal school working time and are managed mainly, but not completely, by the school's own personnel in order to fulfill the immediate and specific needs of the school (Kennedy, 2005).

### **1.10.5 Off-school programmes:**

Off-school site programmes are teacher development programmes that occur outside the school site. These may include all centralised development programmes and school-focused CPTD which are presented by agencies like higher education institutions, educationists or the school itself (McBride, 1989 41: in Fraser et al., 2007). Their roles are to comply with the needs of the individual school and personnel (Gettly, 2002). School-focused CPTD should be based on needs identified by teachers (Conner, 1991).

### **1.10.6 Teacher change:**

Teacher change can be described in terms of learning, development, socialisation, growth, improvement, implementation of something new or different, cognitive and affective change and self-study (Richardson & Placier, 2001) that translate well to change in teachers' knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs (Fullan & Miles, 1992).

### **1.10.7 Ongoing support:**

Basically, most of the school-based development programmes are supportive of teacher professional development. According to Kennedy (2005), transitional development models are on-going as they have the capacity to

support both transmissive and transformative agendas; hence support programmes like coaching and mentoring are on-going.

## **1.11 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

The study consists of the following chapters:

### **1.11.1 Chapter 1: The background, problem and the setting of the study**

Chapter 1 focuses on the introduction of the study and its setting. It outlines the whole study by giving the background, statement of the research problem, research questions, purpose of the study, research objectives, assumptions of the study, significance and rationale of the study, delimitations of the study and definition of terms.

### **1.11.2 Chapter 2: Literature review**

Literature related to continuous professional development programmes is reviewed in this chapter. Views from different authors and researchers on CPTD and related gaps are identified. Theories and principles related to in-service professional teacher development are also discussed in this section.

### **1.11.3 Chapter 3: Methodology**

This chapter deals with the philosophy related to the choice of the methodology, considering the epistemological and ontological aspects of the study, research design, population and sampling. Data collection instruments and ethical considerations are examined in this chapter of the study.

### **1.11.4 Chapter 4: Presentation, analysis and discussion of data presented**

Data collected are presented, analysed, interpreted and discussed in this chapter so as to extract meaning out of the data collected. The findings of the research are also explored in this chapter. The discussion focuses mainly on comparing the findings of the research with the related literature so as to bring the findings of the study to the existing knowledge and understanding of CPTD programmes.

#### 1.11.5 Chapter 5: Data presentation, analysis and interpretation

This chapter discusses the findings of the research. In this segment, the researcher makes comparisons between the findings of this study, other related studies and what originated from legendary researchers. The main focus in the study is to bring the findings of this study into the fold of existing knowledge in the implementation of CPDT programmes.

#### 1.11.6 Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

This chapter will summarise the findings in relation to the problem related to the significance of the study and the research questions. Chapter 6 will also explore the conclusions and recommendations and their implications for the CPTD programme planners, designers and implementers.

# CHAPTER TWO

## THEORETICAL FRAME OF THE STUDY

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to explore related literature on the implementation of continuous professional teacher development. The main focus of the chapter is to discuss the views of what various authors have discovered regarding the implementation of CPTD programmes. The chapter begins by presenting the theoretical frameworks which will be used to discuss the data. The frameworks include Wenger's (1998) social practice theory, Speck's (1996) social practice theory and Guskey's (1986) theory of teacher change. It then discusses what has been written in the area of the implementation of CPTD programmes in order to have a deeper understanding of the topic under study. The discussion will also identify gaps which exist in the area. The areas covered in the discussion include time allocated to CPTD programmes, capacity of facilitators, appropriateness of strategies and materials used to implement CPTD programmes, support and monitoring strategies and the extent of teacher empowerment and improvement of classroom practice after teacher development sessions. All these are aspects in the implementation of CPTD.

The globalisation of economies and the emergence of new knowledge-based economies have placed increasing emphasis on the development of professional skills (Fraser et al 2007; Chisholm, 2004). Socio-economic changes have also led to new and pressing demands on educational institutions and other organisations to become more efficient in promoting skills development across the professions (Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006). This led to an increase in the focus on continuing professional development for the teaching profession in most countries throughout the world (Fraser et al., 2007). In the education sector, this globalisation of economies led to recognition and enhancement of the wider policy agenda of lifelong learning and teacher change. It is also attributed to increased focus on schooling by states as a means of improving learner performance and production of required skills

in order to attain economic prosperity in the global competitive workplace (Fraser et al., 2007; Coolahan, 2002; Schwille & Dembelle, 2007).

Concern with curriculum reforms and restructuring and the need to raise standards of achievements and their positions in the world, governments have intervened more actively to improve the system of schooling through CPTD (Day & Sachs, 2004; Chisholm, 2004). According to Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006), the main purpose of most professional development programmes, both formal and informal, including those provided by educational institutions and those occurring in the workplace, is to develop professional skills. As CPTD encompasses both teachers' professional learning and teachers' professional development (Coffield, 2000; Friedman & Philips, 2004), it has multi purposes which account for the diversity of teachers' professional development (Dembelle & Schwille, 2007). Instructors need to be involved in teacher development so that they are able to facilitate implementation of policy or educational reforms and be prepared for new functions. The introduction of the new curriculum led to new school needs and further school development that demands teachers to be involved in school-based activities. Furthermore, teachers need to empower themselves so as to be able to match the required standards of the present dispensation (Chilsom, 2004).

## **2.2 WHAT IS MEANT BY CPTD PROGRAMMES**

Professional development of teachers has become an important subject in teacher education in the world. Increasingly, nowadays teaching is taken as specialised work and that teachers as professionals responsible for social development should reach the maturity both in the context and level of their profession through lifelong learning and exploring (Ding, 2001). Added to this realisation, a teacher's role in the information and knowledge society is changing, thus, bringing about new approaches. The emergence of the information and knowledge society has a change of mindset in learning as teachers learnt the rudiments by watching the teachers who taught them. New approaches to learning now necessitate new approaches to teaching which challenge teachers' traditional role as knowledge providers (Tang, 2001).

Furthermore, the introduction of reforms in South Africa after 1994, like the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005 (C2005) created a huge gap between the aims and principles of OBE and what teachers were trained for (Jansen and Taylor, 2003 in Ono and Ferreira, 2010). It became a concern when transformation of Education in South Africa needed teachers to be appropriately equipped to meet the challenges and needs of the country, as a result the adoption of the National Policy Framework for teacher education and development was an attempt to address the need for suitably qualified teachers (Steyn, 2008). According to Steyn (2008: 15), "...its aim was to improve the quality of education by focusing on the professional development of teachers".

According to Hunsaker and Johnson (1992); Leask, 1995; Steyl (1998), in Engelbrecht (2007), the aim of CPTD is the means of extending content knowledge, instructional methodology and skills. Most importantly CPTD endeavours to develop knowledge skills and attitudes (Steyl, 1998). In addition, Steyl (1998) argues that CPTD may serve mainly two purposes, namely, empowerment of unqualified teachers in order to assist them to survive in a profession for which they are not yet qualified. It is also to develop teachers within a specified content area and all educational staff in the educational service including classroom teachers. It is always taken for granted that professional development does not include support staff in the education field, whereas without their appropriate assistance, practitioners would fall short.

According to Desimone et al., 2006; Knight and Wiseman, 2005:387; Mashile, 2002:174; Wanzare and Ward, 2000 in Steyn (2008), many reform initiatives have focused on the teacher as the key to improved classroom practice and teacher performance. Kind and Neuman, (2001) argue that teachers are considered to be having the most direct sustained contact with students as well as considerable control over what is taught in the classroom and the climate of learning. It is also reasonably assumed that improving teachers' knowledge, their teaching skills and disposition is one of the most critical steps towards improved learner performance and achievement (Kind & Nueman, 2001). This suggests that for teachers' in-service to be competent according to the new demands, as far as classroom practice is concerned, teachers need to undergo professional learning and professional development. Learning and development of teachers is therefore demanded by the

need for quality education and school improvement. Therefore, the enhancement of quality education and school improvement will occur as a result of continuous professional development of teachers.

To ensure quality, education opportunities depend on the ability to secure services of qualified competent and committed teachers, hence, the introduction of the CPTD system to revitalise the teaching profession (South African Government Information, 2008/09). Unlike years ago when initial training in a profession was sufficient for an entire career, nowadays, one cannot be classified as a professional if they do not continually up-date their knowledge, skills and attitudes in every aspect of their work as a teacher or an instructional leader. Then the need for development in knowledge, qualifications and professional skills provides the background against which the need for professional development has to be understood (Gray, Griffin & Nasta, 2000).

Moreover, Desimone et al., (2006) argue that for professional development to be effective it should improve teachers' knowledge and skills, develop teachers' teaching practice and increase learners' performance. This is supported by Hirsh (2005) who identifies three significant qualities of effective teacher professional development that teachers will demonstrate profound knowledge of specific subject content; individual teachers would be changed at the level of belief and plans clearly defined plans for introducing new content and practices and facilitation of follow-up support programmes.

Instructors and teaching teams have to contribute effectively to the continuous improvement of quality by evaluating their own practice, identifying opportunities for personal and professional development, and participating in programmes of personal development (Gray et al., 2000). However, teachers from marginalised rural communities might find it challenging for them to evaluate their own practice unless they form communities of practice because most of them lack the initial training (Maistry, 2008).

## **2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Adult development theories provide a framework for understanding how adult learners are different from young learners. They provide insight into devising better professional development programmes to meet the needs of teachers at all phases of their career (Trotter 2006). This study has been informed by three theories namely: Wenger's (1998) social practice theory, Speck's (1996) adult learning theory and Guskey's (1986) theory of teacher change.

### **2.3.1 Wenger's social theory and adult learning**

Wenger's (1998) social theory of learning emphasises learning as situated in particular social contexts and distributed across the individual, other persons and tools within communities of practice. These communities of practice are defined as being groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to practise it better as they interact regularly. This initiative can be suitable for teachers who want to improve their classroom practice. It involves much more than the technical knowledge or skill associated with undertaking some task, but members are involved in a set of relationships over time (Lave & Wenger, 1991: 98) and, as such, according to Wenger (1998), communities of practice develop around things that matter to people.

Many of the ways of talking about learning and education are based on the assumption that learning is something that individuals do. Furthermore, it is often assumed that learning has a beginning and an end; and that is separated from the rest of activities; and it is the result of teaching. Taking a different track, learning is social and comes largely from experience of participating in daily life. Hence the model of situated learning that proposes that learning involves a process of engagement in a community of practice (Wenger, 1998).

The fact that communities of practice are organising around some particular area of knowledge and activity gives members a sense of joint enterprise and identity. For a community of practice to function, therefore, it needs to generate and appropriate a shared repertoire of ideas, commitments and memories (Lave & Wenger, 1991: 98). It also needs to develop various resources such as tools, documents, routines, vocabulary and symbols that in some way carry the accumulated knowledge of the

community. In other words, it involves practice, ways of doing and approaching things that are shared to some significant extent among members (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It is further posited that any effort that would involve teachers in a joint enterprise, mutual engagement that bind members together into a social entity and the shared repertoire of communal resources can improve teachers' identity and accountability that can result in teacher/member motivation and improvement of classroom practice (Wenger, 1998: 2).

According to Wenger's (1998) theory, the interactions involved and the ability to undertake larger or more complex activities and projects through cooperation, bind people together and help to facilitate relationship and trust. Through this trust, communities of practice encourage teachers to take responsibility for their own development as they see them as self-organising systems that have benefits and characteristics of social capital (McDermott in Murphy, 1999). Learning, in this case, involves motivation that leads to universal participation in a community of practice. McDermott in Murphy, (1999) further explains that:

Learning is in the conditions that bring people together and organize a point of contact that allows for particular pieces of information to take on relevance; without the points of contact, without the system of relevancies, there is no learning and there is little memory. Learning does not belong to individual persons, but to the various conversations of which they are a part (p.17).

This suggests that there is an intimate connection between knowledge and activity and that education involves informed and committed action. All the same, whether these communities arise spontaneously or come together through seeding and nurturing, their development ultimately depends on internal leadership (Wenger, 1998). Certainly, in order to legitimise the community as a place for sharing and creating knowledge, recognised experts need to be involved, as long as they do not smother the teachers' self-organising drive. Communities of practice are mostly self sufficient, but they can benefit from resources such as outside experts, meeting facilities and communication technology (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This means that DoE and ECDoE should form part of the support system in the case of CPTD and the SMT's (principals and HoDs) as instructional leaders ensuring on site CPTD.

The basic argument made by Lave (1993) and Wenger (1998) is that communities of practice are everywhere and people are generally involved in them, whether that is at work, school, and home or in civic and leisure interest. Wenger (2007) observes that communities of practice are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour. Communities of practice are, therefore a group of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly (2007:2).

As Wenger (1998) stipulates that adults learn better when they are in a collaborative group the idea is supported by Maistry (2008), who postulates that teachers learn better in communities of practice. Furthermore, “teacher leaders (cluster leaders) find the opportunity to share experiences with one another, especially across schools, valuable” (Doberneck, 2010: 21). These teachers enjoy meeting one another, to learn together, sharing experiences and brainstorm solutions to their various challenges through peer mentoring (Doberneck, 2010).

The characteristics of such communities of practice vary. Some have names, many do not. Some communities of practice are quite formal in organisation; others are very fluid and informal (Lave, 1993 and Wenger, 1999). However, members are brought together by joining in common activities and by what they have learned through their mutual engagement in these activities. In this respect, a community of practice is different from a community of interest or a geographical community in that it involves a shared practice (Wenger, 1998).

According to Wenger’s (1998) terms therefore, communities of practice can be formed if skills of subject or content learning were preferred to interpretation of the subject matter. This would be further made possible if the sense of the subject matter was discovered through collaboration rather than members being informed about it. Hence, there are three elements that are crucial in distinguishing a community of practice from other groups and communities. As a domain, a community of practice is something more than a club of friends or a network of connections between people. It has an identity defined by a shared domain of interest. Membership therefore, implies a commitment to the domain, and therefore

a shared competence that distinguishes members from other people. As community members, in pursuing their interest in their domain, engage in joint activities and discussions, help each other, and share information. They build relationships that enable them to learn from each other. Members of a community of practice are practitioners. They develop a shared repertoire of resources: experiences, stories, tools, and ways of addressing problems - in short a shared practice. This takes time and sustained interaction (Wenger, 2007: 3).

Wenger's (1998) social practice theory emphasises one of the appropriate teacher development approaches (communities of practice), which can also act as a support and monitoring strategy for teacher empowerment and improvement of classroom practice.

### **2.3.2 Speck's adult learning theory**

Speck (1996), in his adult learning theory, notes that there are points that should be considered when professional development activities are designed for teachers. Teacher development facilitators are therefore required to use these points as both a guide and as an evaluation tool prior to actually conducting training with adults. When planning and designing professional teacher development programmes facilitators and providers of these programmes are urged to observe and use the following points as their 'checklist' (Speck, 1996).

- i. Adults will commit to learning when the goals and objectives are considered realistic and important to them. Thus, application in the 'real world' is important and relevant to the adult learners' personal and professional needs.
- ii. Adults want to be the origins of their own learning and will resist learning activities they believe are an attack on their competence, professional development needs to give participants some control of their learning.
- iii. Adult learners need to see that the professional development learning and their day-to-day activities are related and relevant.
- iv. Adult learners need direct and concrete experiences in which they apply the learning in real work.
- v. Adult learning has ego involved; as a result, professional development must be structured to provide support from peers and to reduce the fear of judgment during learning.

- vi. Adults need to receive feedback on how they are doing and the results of their efforts. Opportunities must be built into professional development that allows the learner to practise the learning and to receive structured and helpful feedback.
- vii. Adults need to participate in small group activities during the learning experience in order to move them beyond understanding to application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.
- viii. Adults come to learning with a wide range of previous experiences, knowledge, self-direction, interests and competences; therefore, this diversity must be accommodated in the professional development planning.
- ix. Transfer of learning for adults is not automatic and must be facilitated. Coaching and other kinds of follow-up support are needed to help adult learners transfer learning into daily practice so that it is sustained (p.36-370).

Speck's (1996) 'checklist' guided the researcher in assessing how CPTD programmes are designed and implemented in the Lady Frere District. It also assisted the researcher in the interpretation of data as it provides valuable information as to how adults learn. Knowles (1980: 43) quoted in Merriam and Caffarella (1999) compliments Speck's theory of adult learning by also contrasting with pedagogy. Primarily, the differences relate to an adult learner being more self-directed, having a repertoire of experience and being internally motivated to learn subject matter that can be applied immediately – learning that is especially, closely related to the developmental tasks of their social role (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999: 272). Andragogy contrasted with pedagogy is the art and science of helping adults learn based on five andragogical assumptions of the adult learner (Knowles, 1980, p. 43), which are: self concept, experience, readiness, problem centred and motivation.

Teachers as mature individuals have already moved from dependency to self-directedness and can direct their own learning. Because adults are autonomous, they must be actively involved in the learning process and instructors serve only as facilitators for them. Specifically, participants must express their perspectives to the facilitators about what topics to cover and they (participants) should work on projects that reflect their interests. As adults, participants should be allowed to assume responsibility for presentations and group leadership. Facilitators should adhere to their role of guiding participants to their own knowledge rather than supplying them

with facts. This approach prevent teachers, being the adult learners, who are at risk of losing concentration if the facilitators continuously impart information instead of guiding the participants to discover for themselves.

Generally, teachers as adults have accumulated a foundation of life experiences and knowledge that may include work related activities, family responsibilities and previous education. In their professional learning and professional development they need to connect their learning to this knowledge/experience base. In order to achieve this, they should draw out participants' experience and knowledge that is relevant to the topic. They must relate theories and concepts to the participants and recognise the value of experience in learning. Adults learn better and quicker when they associate the new knowledge with what they know already.

Teachers like all adults are ready to learn as their learning is closely related to the assumption of new life roles. They are goal-oriented; therefore, upon enrolling in a course they usually know the aims they need to attain. Therefore, they appreciate an educational programme that is organised and has clearly defined elements. With adult learners like teachers, the classification of goals and course objectives need to be done early in the course. Adult learners are reluctant to attend workshops that do not have a clearly defined programme of activities because they are not informed or aware of what they will benefit from the attendance.

Adults are relevancy-oriented; as a result, they must see a reason for learning something. Learning has to be applicable to their work or other responsibilities to be of value to them. At the beginning of a course, facilitators must outline the objectives to the adult participants. This also means that theories and concepts must be related to a setting familiar to participants. This need can be fulfilled by letting participants choose projects that reflect their own interests. Workshops that are organised according to the participants' requests are mostly well attended because the adult learners are aware that their needs will be met.

As a person matures, s/he receives his/her motivation to learn from internal factors. Adults are practical, focusing on the aspects of a lesson most useful to them in their work. Facilitators must inform participants explicitly how the lesson will be useful to them in their profession.

These five aspects fit together with the thoughts and theories of Merriam and Caffarella (1999) as they point to the three keys to transformational learning namely experience, critical reflection and development. The aspect of experience is an important consideration in creating an effective learning opportunity for adults and it should be relevant and applicable to a person's set of experiences. Argote, McEvily and Reagans (2003), in supporting the idea of experience, point to experience as an important factor in one's ability to create, retain and transfer knowledge. Critical reflection is the second key to transformational learning and part of andragogy's self-directed learning (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Reflection/think time is yet another essential principle to creating an effective learning experience for adults.

Garvin (1993) supports and shares the importance of fostering an environment that is conducive to learning including time for reflection and analysis. Hence, adult learners need time to contemplate the ramifications of the learning experience to their experience and responsibilities. The third key to transformational learning is development. To this, it is stated that the ability to think critically, which is mandatory to effecting transformation, is itself developmental. If development is the outcome of transformational learning, then an effective adult learning opportunity needs to be created that will take personal development into consideration (Merriam & Caffarella (1999). It is, therefore, important to distinguish the unique attributes of adult learners so as to be better able to incorporate the principles of adult learning in the design of instruction or development (Garvin, 1993). Within this context, adult learning is aimed at not only improving individual knowledge and skill, but ultimately, it is the goal to improve the organisational performance by transfer of learning directly to the workplace (Garvin, 1993).

Each of these methods supports the assumptions about how adults learn; specifically they are more self-directed, have a need to direct application to their work, and are able to attribute more collaborative learning through their experience (Yi, 2005). Also, Rogoff et al. (2003) support the idea of adult learning by emphasising the importance of learning from informal community involvement through intent participation. Teacher development activity needs to consider these adult learning theories as they can impact negatively on the effectiveness of implementation. Speck's (1996) theory and the related theories of adult learning

guided the researcher in formulating the research questions for the assessment of CPTD in Lady Frere as teachers in-service are mostly adults.

Moreover, Honey and Mumford (2000) identify four types of adult learners who prefer to learn in different ways. Amongst teachers, as adults, there are theorists who like to learn using abstract conceptualisation and reflection observation like in the case of lectures, papers and analogies. These adult learners can do well with the expert tuition development approach, like in the case of a deficit model of implementation, which in most cases encourage case studies, theory readings and thinking alone. Unlike theorists, there are pragmatists whose learning becomes easier when they learn using abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation like learning from laboratories, fieldwork and observations. Pragmatists can be better developed by peer feedback and activities that apply skills. For a pragmatist, it is challenging to be engaged in a development approach that demands one to sit in a lecture. Thus, for teachers who are pragmatists, there are limited chances of them being effectively trained and developed through centralised training models.

There are also activists who learn better by using concrete experience and active experimentation and they can be better developed by practising the skill, problem solving, small group discussions and peer feedback. Activists enjoy the experience itself and in the process they get developed. These can be better developed by communities of practice where they are going to collaborate with others. Similarly, there are activists who learn better if exposed to concrete experiences because they have the ability to exercise using reflective observation. As a result, they enjoy to be lectured on a particular concept which they can reflect on. Thus, they can perform better with school-based development programmes in which they have the opportunity to observe and reflect on the facilitators who will be demonstrating a lesson.

Therefore, teachers are at the risk of not obtaining the intended skills if they are trained by programme developers who do not consider the participants' learning style. However, teachers are expected to know where their preferences lie to enable the people who organise the professional development training to take this into account. Ultimately, the planners and organisers of CPTD will be able to structure their activities such that they cater for the different types of adult learners.

Moreover, Huberman, (1993) also pointed to teachers' careers as typically characterised by a number of definable phases or stages, which can influence their professional development. Although they parallel life cycle changes, these phases can be differentiated partly by achievement of pedagogical competences but they also parallel life cycle changes. Developers can realise that teachers need different levels and types of support at different times by identifying the career stages. Like any skill or craft, learning to teach is a developmental process characterised by devastating disasters and spectacular successes (Bubb, 2005). Facilitators and organisers of CPTD should, when they actually conduct the activities, consider these career stages as they would influence teachers' participation in the development programme. Huberman (1993, in Day and Sachs, 2004 p. 155) acknowledges these stages as follows:

- i. Survival and discovery has a lot to do with the reality shock associated with confronting the complexity of instructional management and nothing else.
- ii. Stabilization is characterized by personal and administrative affirmation - a personal commitment to teaching as a career.
- iii. Experimentation/ activism are a stage where teachers are typically ready for new challenges and stimulation and experience the desire to increase their impact.
- iv. Taking stock/ self-doubt when some of mid-career crisis might become evident and is connected to a feeling of monotony or lack of challenge.
- v. Serenity/ conservatism are a period of serenity which is characterized by resistance to innovation.
- vi. Disengagement during which there may be a trend towards increasing withdrawal and gradual disengagement from work towards more interest in outside pursuits.

According to Huberman, (1993) not all of these stages are conducive to teacher development and learning, as much as the stage theory tends to constitute the teacher as passive in the development process. CPTD programmes should consider the fact that teacher professional development is a process that is inseparable from the construction and expression of the teacher's personal identity. It also suggests that teachers' backgrounds and their various professional stages, learning styles and

learning cycles should be acknowledged as they might impact negatively on teacher development processes.

As a result, apart from career stage, Kolb (2001) posits that there are four learning cycles that organisers of CPTD should bear in mind. Contrary to Honey and Mumford (2000) whose theory is about individuals having one style of development, Kolb (2001) suggests that learners perceive and process information in a continuum from concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. Although Kolb (2001: 2) perceives these styles/cycles as a continuum that one moves through over time, people usually come to prefer and rely on one style above others and it is these styles that facilitators need to be aware of when creating instructional materials. These styles are described as follows:

i. Concrete experience

Concrete experimentation is when learners are involved in a new experience. They look for significance in the learning experience and consider what they can do and what others have done previously. For this stage of the cycle or style of learning, anything that encourages independent discovery is the most desirable. It is at this stage that facilitators need to make sure that there is coherence between what they are engaged in and their classroom practice so as to draw their attention.

ii. Reflective observation

Because learners at this stage of the cycle or for this learning style like to reason from concrete, specific information and explore what the system has to offer prefer to have information presented to them in a detailed, systematic and reasoned manner. In order for facilitators to accommodate learners that would prefer this style, they need to prepare lessons with adequate audio visual material. These learners prefer lecture methods with ready reference material; also, teachers favour material that they can readily utilise once back at their classrooms.

iii. Abstract conceptualisation

Learners prefer accurate, organised delivery of information and they tend to respect the knowledge of the expert. They are not comfortable with a random exploration of

a system. Learners like a lecture method that is followed by demonstration; Hence, CPTD facilitators need to prepare simulations, demonstration or role plays to accommodate this style of learning.

#### iv. Active experimentation

For this type of learning application and usefulness of information is increased by understanding detailed information about the lesson. At this stage, learners perform well with interactive instruction and collaborative communities of practice; hence, CPTD facilitators should involve them in conducting lessons. Facilitators need to prepare their development activities such that they cater for both different teachers, learning styles and for those whose learning depends on the cycle from the first stage to the last one. Therefore, facilitators should consider these adult learning theories as both different styles and stages of a development process when planning, designing and implementing CPTD programmes. This has informed the researcher on what to observe in the teacher development workshop as far as the capacity of facilitators is concerned. CPTD programmes should consider the fact that teacher professional development is a process that is inseparable from the construction and expression of the teacher's personal identity. Thus, teachers' backgrounds and their various professional stages should be acknowledged (Day & Sachs, 2004). Speck's (1996) theory of adult learning explains how adults learn whereas Guskey's (1986) theory of teacher change is about how and when teachers transform.

### **2.3.3 Guskey's theory of teacher change**

In agreement with what has been indicated by Speck (1996) above, it is further acknowledged that adult learners learn best in situated learning and that teacher attitudes and beliefs towards a new strategy will only change once the strategies are found to positively impact learner learning. Significant change in teacher's beliefs and attitudes is likely to take place only after a teacher has experimented and evidenced changes in students' learning outcomes (Guskey, 1986). Guskey's model of teacher change implies that change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes are primarily a result, rather than a cause of change in the learning outcomes of learners (Guskey, 1986 in Fieman-Nemser, 2001).

Developers and facilitators of teacher development programmes frequently attempt to initiate staff development programmes by trying to change teachers' beliefs about certain aspects of teaching or the desirability of a particular curriculum or instructional innovation. Their assumption is that it is change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes that will lead to specific changes in their classroom behaviours and practices, whereas it is change in learner performance and achievement that leads to teacher change which will result in change in classroom practice (Guskey, 1986 cited by Maistry, 2008).

As stated earlier, the major goals of professional development programmes are change in the classroom practices of teachers, change in their attitude and beliefs and change in the learning outcomes of learners. Of particular importance are the efforts to facilitate change; however, it is the sequence in which the outcomes frequently occur (Guskey & Sparks, 1991). The relationship among these outcomes is detailed and highly complex and numerous factors can snarl the process of change (Fullan, 1995; Guskey & Sparks, 1996). Still professional development programmes are deliberate and purposeful endeavours and the changes professional wishes to bring about can usually be well defined (Griffin, 1983 in Guskey, 2000).

Professional development programmes based on the assumption that change in attitudes and beliefs comes first are typically designed to gain acceptance, commitment and enthusiasm from teachers and school administrators before the implementation of new practices or strategies (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1994). They involve teachers in planning sessions and conduct need surveys to ensure that the new strategies are well aligned with what teachers prefer (Joyce, Mcnair, Diaz & Mckibbin, 1976 cited in Guskey, 2002). But, as important as these procedures are, they seldom change attitudes significantly or elicit strong commitment from teachers (Guskey, 2002).

According to Guskey's Model of Teacher Change, significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs occurs primarily after they gain evidence of improvements in student learning (Guskey, 2002). These improvements typically result from changes teachers have made in their classroom practices, a new instructional approach, the use of new materials or curricula, or simply a modification in teaching procedures or

classroom format (Guskey & Sparks, 1996). The crucial point is that it is not the professional development, as such, but the experience of successful implementation that changes teachers' attitudes and beliefs (Fullan, 1995). According to the model, the key element in significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs is clear evidence of improvement in the learning outcome, of their attitudes (Guskey, 1986 in Guskey, 2002).

Guskey's Model of Teacher Change is supported by Bolster's (1983) ethnographic studies of teacher change which show that new ideas and principles about teaching are believed to be true when they give rise to the actions that work (Guskey, 2002). This research demonstrates that experienced teachers seldom become committed to a new instructional approach or innovation until they have seen it work in their classrooms with their students. In successful improvement efforts, on the contrary, teacher commitment was found to develop primarily after implementation took place. Teachers became committed to the new practice only after they had actively engaged in using them in their classrooms, and also perceived some change in student learning (Crandall, 1983 in Guskey, 2002). This may primarily be the result of appropriate development strategies and the capacity of facilitators to conduct in-service training.

Still, further support comes from studies on one particular investigation involving a large scale professional development effort that focused on the implementation of mastery learning in California, Ohio, Missouri and Chicago (Bloom, 1968 in Guskey, 1997; Robinson, 1992). Following initial training, most of the participating teachers used the mastery learning procedures in their classes and saw improvements in student learning. It then became an approach mostly used internationally by countries like Asia and Japan. Despite the modest changes required to implement mastery learning, some research evidence in Asia shows the careful and systematic application of mastery learning principles. Some researchers even suggest that the superiority of Japanese learners in international comparisons of achievement in Mathematics and problem solving may be due largely to the widespread use in Japan of mastery instructional practices similar to mastery learning (Nakajima, 2006). Therefore, a few teachers used the new procedures but noted no improvements. Several others took part in the training but never tried the

procedures in their classes (Guskey, 1997). This might have been due to reasons explained below.

According to Guskey, (1986) and Huberman, (1992), if the use of the new practice is to be sustained and changes are to endure, the individuals involved need to receive regular feedback on the effects of their efforts. It is well known that successful actions are reinforcing and likely to be repeated while those that are unsuccessful tend to be diminished (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Similarly, practices that are new and unfamiliar will be accepted and retained when they are perceived as increasing one's competence and effectiveness. Furthermore, new practices are likely to be abandoned in the absence of any evidence of their positive effects (Huberman, 1992).

With Guskey's (1986) model, if change occurs mainly after development programme implementation and there is evidence of improved student learning, follow-up, support and pressure is crucial. This support allows those engaged in the difficult process of implementation to tolerate the anxiety of occasional failures. The model also suggests that pressure is often necessary to initiate change among those whose self-impetus for change is not great. It also provides encouragement, motivation and occasional nudging that many practitioners require persisting in the challenging tasks that are intrinsic to all change efforts (Loucks-Horsley, 1998). After the training or development programmes, teacher support is necessary; hence, the introduction of CPTD programmes that include support and monitoring.

However, part of Guskey's model is criticised for representing teacher change as a strictly linear process (Clarke & Peter, 1993). Teacher development programmes should be adapted to accommodate adult learning principles as indicated by Speck (1996), because teachers enjoy participative learning especially if it is relevant to their needs. Therefore, Wenger's social practice theory suggests communities of practice as an appropriate model of teacher development. According to the researcher, these three theories could work well for teacher development if they could form programmes that take into consideration adult learning principles by establishing social practice that will lead to changed classroom practice.

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3.1 MODELS OF IMPLEMENTING CPTD

For professional development to proceed successfully it should be a continuous process (Bredeson, 2003; Muijs et al., 2004); it should not consist of isolated inputs which have little value for those attending the training especially if teachers were not part of the planning. Professional development does not only require the informal and spontaneous learning of teachers from one another (Bunting, 1997; Day, 1999; Kagaan, 2004), but also relies, among others, on the prior knowledge, personal development, background and needs of the teachers (Bredeson, 2003). Therefore, CPTD programmes must cater for this diversity so that the needs of each participant may be met.

In South Africa, the adoption of a single system of education that used to have different systems of education for different races, resulted in a challenge (Chisholm, 2004). Teachers are diverse in almost every dimension and, therefore, their needs are different. Thus, if CPTD programmes are not formally and systematically planned with proper needs analysis, there is little hope of an effective teacher development (Chisholm, 2004). In addition to the aforesaid principles, in order to achieve successful CPTD, there should be clarity of aims, which reflects on what is to be accomplished (Waddington, 1995) and in consideration of certain theories that have influence on in-service learning (Maistry, 2008). Moreover, current teachers need to be committed to and continually engaged in pursuing upgrading, self-monitoring and reviewing their own professional learning. Nevertheless, a variety of teacher development approaches were reviewed to determine the strengths and limitations of current approaches to professional development. None of them came up with a systematised programme of teacher development (Chisholm, 2004).

Dembelle and Schwille (2007) have pointed out that CPTD has multiple purposes that may have different approaches to or different forms of professional development. These include preparation of teachers for new functions and personal professional development chosen by individuals for their enrichment. Also, activities should be structured to support the reform or the intended change. These should

include special interventions such as mentoring, networking, study groups and resource centre as opposed to a more traditional workshop or conference. Even though traditional approaches typically do not provide the time, activities and content necessary to bring about meaningful change, they can be meaningful if they have the other characteristics already mentioned. Apart from their different forms, teacher professional development activities can be grouped into three categories according to the main basis of their priority, like teacher priority activities, school priority activities and profession priority activities. Therefore, teacher development programmes have different forms for different purposes. For example, teacher priority activities do not have the same form as school priority activities.

Moreover, the organisation of the development programme must be efficient, so, the environment must be conducive enough to enable effective learning to take place for example, the right time of the day or school year. These aspects are frequently overlooked and may have disastrous effects on the quality of the CPTD especially if professional development is not school-based (Steyl, 1998). Also, the use of Facilitators who cannot communicate effectively with their audience and are able to involve and motivate the audience into full participation is another common weakness in CPTD delivery. But, organising efficient facilitators who are knowledgeable, credible and skilful will ensure effective delivery (Steyl, 1998).

It is also important to review the success of a CPTD intervention with a view to improving the quality of activities and learning for the next time as it is the obligation of any CPTD to successfully develop the targeted group. Hence it is, crucial for the CPTD programme to address all the options that would lead to a successful development programme. Also, cost is minimised as it can be quite expensive when developers have to frequently conduct these programmes due to teachers' lack of attendance of previously planned workshops (Steyl, 1998).

### **3.1.1 CPTD models**

This understanding of teacher change resulted in the emerging of new models for effective professional development in recent years. Most of these models share some common characteristics and can be categorised as centralised (off-site) and school-based (on-site) professional development programmes (Gettly, 2002). Steyl

(1998) posits that both the central and school-based models are needed for both centralised and school-based in-service teacher training (CPTD) to be effective.

With regard to both centralised and school-based development models, Kennedy's (2005) framework analyses how these models might be facilitated. According to Kennedy (2005), professional opportunities must consider purposes of the development programmes before implementation. The CPTD models where the purpose is transmissive rely on centralised models delivered by an expert, focusing on the technical issues of the work rather than transformation as a result of changed values, beliefs and attitudes. As a result, this approach supports replication and compliance (Sprinthall et al., 1996 in Fraser et al., 2007). There are also transitional models which have the capacity to support transmissive and transformative agendas. Coaching, mentoring and communities of practice are models in this category. The third category is that of transformative professional learning that emphasises theory and practice (Sprinthall et al., 1996).

Kennedy's (2005) transmissive implementation model is a traditional professional development model. It is most commonly delivered by external experts (Sprinthall et al., 1996; Boyle, Lamprianou & Boyle, 2005) and is only concerned with the technical aspects of teaching and learning rather than transforming teachers (Elmore, 2005). In contrast, there are transitional and transformative models that locate teacher development within the school programmes (Galloway, 2000). If transitional and transformative models of development are well planned, they replace the ineffectiveness of the transmissive models (Kennedy, 2005). Thus, professional development models should be guided by a proper paradigm and approach relevant to the purpose of CPTD.

### **3.1.2 Centralised (off-site) traditional programmes**

A centralised CPTD is a model where teachers are gathered centrally for courses or workshops of a day or longer. Initially, the centralised training was meant to be managed by competent personnel of the Institutions of Higher Learning who would ensure that the designing, planning, implementation and training material are of high quality (Gettly, 2000). The traditional development model is based on the belief that learners will benefit when teachers acquire competencies and good teaching behaviour over their career (Grace, 2001). This belief also leads to an

understanding that being exposed to new information and approaches, teachers will change their thinking and adopt behaviours that will lead to learner achievement and performance. According to Education Quality Improvement Program, centralised models are termed as *third party external providers* that are offered by independent providers like Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs or Institutions of Higher Learning (MacNeil, 2004). Although this model has some benefits such as being more easily planned, overall research in this area indicates that short-term workshop and development leave much to be desired (Hargreaves, 1994).

A centralised approach of teacher development poses a challenge where the purpose of CPTD is transformative because there could be cases where teacher development is needed just to align teachers with educational policies. In such a case, the purpose is transmissive because it focuses on technical aspects of the job. There are situations where there is a need for improving learning outcomes of learners by improving teachers' performance through transformative professional learning. Hence, teacher development needs internalisation of concepts, reflection, reconstruction of new knowledge and its application in different situations (Kennedy, 2005; Day & Sachs, 2003).

There are transmissive CPTD models that create potential for teachers to contribute to critique and shape the educational reform (Kennedy, 2005). According to Stringer (2008), action research, which involves teachers in research and the evaluation of their own practice, is one of them. It is a distinctive approach to teaching that is directly relevant to classroom instruction and provides the means for teachers to enhance their teaching and improve student learning (Hopkins & Harris, 2001). Another one is the transformative model that draws on a range of other approaches like school-based, school-focused, teacher networks.

Kennedy (2005: 08) has observed that there are different models of implementing CPTD, most of which are transmissive and are mostly equipping teachers to implement centrally driven reforms. Most of them are characterised by reflecting views of teachers' needs by those outside the classroom. For example, the deficit model of CPTD aims to address perceived deficits in teacher performance and may be connected to performance management. This model assumes that teachers need to be provided with new knowledge and skills. It also suggests that all teachers'

circumstances are the same and that there is a corresponding relationship between teacher learning and student progress (Day & Sachs, 2004).

A training model is meant to provide teachers with the skills required for demonstrating competence. Experts who usually deliver the model and set the training agenda are often criticised for lack of connection to the classroom context. Frequently related to the standard-based concept of teacher development, the training model supports centralised control of teaching and is often veiled as a quality assurance measure rather than complying with the need and expectations of teachers. It also advances a skills-based, technocratic view of teaching and is often conducted by experts with an already determined agenda that places teachers in a passive role (Kennedy, 2005). Like most traditional approaches to teacher professional development, this model has not proved to be very effective as it does not succeed in improving teacher's subject knowledge or pedagogical skills (Mewborn & Huberty, 2004). It rather separates theory from practice. Role-takers can be best developed by this CPTD model (Clawson, 2009; Honey & Mumford, 2000). The award-bearing model, which is premised on the concept of standards, is based on the completion of programmes of study, often validated by institutions of higher learning. This model is directed to professional learning that has little to do with teaching skills although teachers with strong content knowledge measured by high qualifications are more likely to take sustained content-focused professional development than teachers with weak content knowledge (Desimone, Smith & Ueno, 2006).

The cascade model focuses on teachers who attend sessions with the aim of transmitting information and skills to colleagues, but oblivion of the fact that each time the information is cascaded, the message becomes more diluted and distorted. The cascade model has been widely criticised as an inadequate model for delivering effective teacher development (Khulisa, 1999; Chisholm, 2004). The cascading of information results in the watering down or misinterpretation of crucial information (Khulisa, 2001 & Chisholm, 2004). According to MacNeil (2004), this model is a teacher professional development delivered by education authorities when they want to disseminate a particular policy by influencing teacher practices. It can be worse if teachers' initial training had been of a lower standard, because they cannot draw from their past experiences (Maistry, 2008).

According to Boyle, Lamprianou and Boyle (2005), cascade development models reach only a small percentage of teachers. They rely on those who attend the workshop to pass new information on to their colleagues. Abstract information is transmitted to the teacher by desk bound experts based on a series of lectures; therefore, presenting negative models of passive learning. These models lead to little change in teachers' classroom approaches. These models depend on exhortation rather than modelling, process and structured practice in which teachers play an active role. The cascade development models are an effective strategy to pass information about aspects of educational reform (Grace, 2001); but, the intended message does not pass down to lower levels without the appropriate mechanism and support to ensure multiplication. The researcher will examine whether it is the matter of not having mechanism of ensuring the cascading of information that these models are known for being ineffective.

### **3.1.3 School-based (on-site) programmes**

The on-site development programmes are mostly transitional and transformative and they are characterised by school-based and school-focused models and communities of practice. According to Edwards (1991: 42 cited in Engelbrecht et al., 2007: 584), a school-based CPTD model has a basic point of departure that training occurs within the normal working milieu and is organised and managed mainly by the school's own personnel, with or without the development officers, in order to fulfil the immediate and specific needs of the school (Gettly, 2002). Another understanding of this programme is that it is a self-organised school development programme. The provider in this case is the school itself, such as teachers of the same school working together in groups or teams (MacNeil, 2004). It is the challenges of the centralised development programmes that led to the development and the establishment of school-based development programmes (Craft, 1996; Gettly, 2002).

The basic purpose of adopting a school-based model was to get a model that would accommodate the needs of a particular group of professionals, for example, teachers (Gettly, 2002). Craft (1996) is also of the opinion that all teacher development should be school-based. Edwards (1991 in Engelbrecht et al., 2007) also advocates for the idea of school-based models of teacher development as the most effective

change would be the one taking place close to the place of action. According to MacNeil (2004), the school-based development model employs the aspects of both the cascade and the centralised models. In a school-based development activity, an aspect will be introduced by a lecture to senior teachers who would then use the information to develop their subordinates (Hargreaves, 1994). Collaborative strategies would be used by the rest of the teachers to contextualise the activity in order to fulfil their needs (Birman, Desimone, Porter & Garet; 2000; Harris, 2003; Guskey, 2002).

For effectiveness and efficiency, school-based development models are not wedded to a particular model; instead, they apply suitable features of each. Most importantly, school-based teacher development programmes should aim at the needs and expectations of teachers, should be practical, continuous and should afford teachers the opportunity for professional development and growth (Gettly, 2002). Furthermore, one general clear trend within workplace learning and development is the attempt to draw working and learning closer together (Raizen, 1994 in Brown & Keep, 1999).

For teacher development, the Provincial Department of Education of the Eastern Cape promotes school-based professional development, claiming that many teachers find that their best development opportunities come through learning from and with other teachers (Kelly, 2007). Lieberman and Wood (2002) argue that the best way for teachers to learn is through their own involvement in defining and shaping the problems of practice in the school context and with the support of their colleagues. On the other hand, Little (1993) posits that school-based development programmes require more than downloading resources and activities to a school site. It needs a set of supporting conditions and adequate opportunities to learn within the teachers' day to day work (Little, 1993). Nonetheless, without effective instructional leadership and support, this model can be challenging as it would demand adequate supervision.

Apart from collaboration, where teachers assist one another, there is coaching and mentoring which is another form of school-based development approach (Bubb, 2005). However, there is a considerable confusion about terms and definitions around coaching and mentoring. Mentoring is mainly about helping newly qualified

teachers, giving them access to a range of professional learning opportunities, including coaching. Coaching focuses on the development of specific skills and knowledge and both coaching and mentoring are highly beneficial but they are not often used to help develop experienced teachers (Bubb, 2005). Nonetheless, mentoring, which needs a temporary collaborative relationship between two teachers, is based on a relationship between an experienced teacher and a novice or new teacher. It is a school-based model whose goal is to provide the new teacher with the support system that can help him/her succeed (Hargreaves, 1995).

On the other hand is peer coaching which is a professional development programme in which pairs of teachers work together to support each other's professional growth (Ackland, 1991; Engelen, 2002; Golden 1997; Joyce & Showers, 2002). As professional development of teachers can be improved through experimentation, observation, reflection, exchange of professional ideas and shared problem solving (Joyce & Showers; Robinson, 1999), peer coaching, therefore, provides teachers with such opportunities of engaging in such activities. Most of the practitioners in South Africa were trained during the apartheid period before educational institutions were closed down. The researcher will be finding out whether and how CPTD is implemented.

### **3.1.4 School-focused (off-site) programmes**

In the case of school-focused CPTD programmes, training occurs outside school and can be presented by agencies like Higher Education Institutions, educationists or the school itself (Conner, 1991). The role of the school in this model is to compile training material, plan the structure of the programme and implementation. These roles are to comply with the needs of an individual school and its personnel (Conner, 1991). Hence this model is known for complying with the expectations of individual teachers, group or school and through these it contributes to the quality of education in the classroom (Day & Sachs, 2004).

According to Gettly (2002), the school-focused development model can be an advantage to the school as it contributes directly to the improvement of the quality of education of the teachers, thus leading to improved classroom practices. The collaborative nature of the model promotes teacher growth and transformation. However, instructional leadership plays a crucial role in the implementation of

school-focused development programmes. SMTs should be role players who are creating an orderly nurturing environment that would support teachers in their activities and stimulate their efforts (Yu et al., 2000; Bernauer, 2002). It is the duty of the SMTs to guide teachers such that at school they are involved in and committed to meaningful school-based and school-focused development activities (Yu et al., 2000). Principals and HoDs need to be of assistance in the identification of teachers' needs and evaluation of teachers' level of development (Dymoke & Harrison, 2006; Heany, 2004). This suggests that teacher development programmes initiated by the school can be more effective if teachers could be supported by both SMTs and the teachers themselves.

### **3.1.5 Communities of practice and teacher networks**

This new approach to professional development encourages and demands teachers to learn with and from colleagues in their school communities, to reflect critically on their daily practices and to enhance their capacity to understand their complex subject matters from the perspectives of diverse learners (Day & Sachs, 2004). Therefore, the focus of professional development needs to shift from supporting teachers' acquisition of new skills or knowledge to providing occasions for them to reflect critically on their practice and to fashion new knowledge and beliefs about content, pedagogy and learners (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Knowledge and skills are better learned in contexts that reflect how knowledge is obtained and applied in everyday situations (Goodall, Day, Harris Lindsay, & Muijs, 2005).

Internationally, teacher networks are considered as one of the best strategies of teacher development programmes (MacNeil, 2004). Hence, according to MacNeil (2004), teachers also participate in Teacher Circles which are groups of teachers from different schools who meet regularly to train each other and share their experiences. O'Grandy, (1996 cited by World Bank, 2000, in MacNeil, 2004), supports the idea of teacher networks as in the case of Lesotho District Resource Teacher (DRT) programme was established to develop teacher support networks in small schools in the mountainous areas. Teams of this programme visited isolated schools four times a year for two to three days a year to support teachers in instructional improvement and material development by providing specialised training. Clusters of schools were provided with workshops to afford them

opportunities for additional training and teacher sharing. The researcher will investigate if similar situations are found in Lady Frere.

To assist teacher development initiatives, the New York City schools introduced various models of teacher networks (MacNeil, 2004). The first model which is referred to as the Professional Development Laboratory is about schools selecting experienced teachers who become Resident Teachers whose role will be to assist visiting teachers who apply to upgrade their skills. The second model employs different experienced teacher consultants who are paired up with eight to ten groups of teachers from New York schools and work with them intensively on a particular instruction-related issue. Model three is about inter-visitation and Peer Networks where teachers and principals are exposed to exemplary practices through visits to schools within the district or other districts. In the fourth model the teachers travel off-site to a university to receive training in a content-specific, time bound course to close whatever content gap that may exist amongst teachers. Elmore (1997, quoted in MacNeil, 2004:13) explains further that the central idea is not to provide training in the innovation day, or whatever the prevailing new instructional idea is in any given year, but to provide support to larger and larger numbers of teachers to learn and teach new content at increasingly higher levels of complexity in a few select areas. The fifth model is about school superintendents and their deputies who make visits to principals to review their performance against each principal's own action plan for the year.

In describing an implementation model of high quality professional development for teachers, Hargreaves (1992) and Huberman (1993) posit that teachers learn best when they are active in directing their own learning and when their opportunities to learn are focused on concrete tasks and dilemmas that emanate from their daily encounters with learners. Such opportunities are based on enquiry, experimentation and reflection. Furthermore, such opportunities should be intensive, on-going, allowing for collaboration and interaction between teacher and educational professionals (Maistry, 2008; Hargreaves, 1992; Huberman, 1993). These collaborative initiatives that manifest themselves in teacher learning communities allow teachers to participate more in decisions that affect them. They also allow teachers to share pressures and burdens that result from policy changes. Although collaboration may at first appear to be suggesting an increase in the quality of

teachers' tasks, it is likely to make teachers feel less overloaded if their tasks are viewed more meaningful and teachers have high control over them (Hargreaves, 1992 & Huberman, 1993).

Moreover, learning communities have an advantage of not requiring a designated expert because teachers basically learn from each other. Rogoff (1998) in support of this idea asserts that in a learning community, learners scaffold one another's learning through a powerful exchange of ideas. CPTD therefore, that is based on work selected by the learning community learners, would create a sense of ownership and collegiality that may lead to the development of communities of mutual inquiry. This however, may be a challenge in a context where teacher knowledge of subject content is seriously lacking. Hence, a serious question may arise as to whether such systematic, practitioner enquiry, scaffolding and self-selection can in fact occur in a teacher learning community where teachers do not have content knowledge (Rogoff, 1998). This can seriously be a question in the case of South African teachers where the apartheid legacy has left most teachers without enough content and pedagogical knowledge (Chisholm, 2004). The researcher will investigate if the idea of South African teachers, as indicated previously, who do not have enough content and pedagogical knowledge, is the same with the case of rural school teachers who are marginalised with minimal resources and almost away from the rest.

### **3.2 TIME TO BE ALLOCATED FOR DIFFERENT CPTD IMPLEMENTATION**

Efficient teachers form the foundation of good schools, and improving teachers' skills and knowledge is one of the most important investments of time and money that local, district, provincial and national leaders make in education. Nonetheless, for quality teacher education and development, time must be made available for teacher development activities. In order to ensure that time is available for teacher development, a number of strategies could be followed (Bolam & MacMahon, 2004). These strategies form an integral part of school planning (Ismat, 1996). For example, time for teachers to participate in professional learning communities and engage in quality school-based teacher development could be scheduled into the school year. But the scheduled time for teacher development could utilise the immediate pre and

post term periods so as to minimise loss of teaching time. It could also be appropriate for teacher development to be integrated into the school time table through the adjustment of the school week (Ismat, 1996).

Furthermore, according to Watts and Castle (1993) cited in Ismat, (1996), professional development has not been widely seen as an intrinsic part of making teachers more adept and productive in the classroom; thus, school schedules do not normally incorporate time to consult or observe colleagues or engage in other professional activities. Typically, administrators and parents perceive anything that draws teachers away from direct engagement with learners as unfavourable. Also, the teachers themselves often feel guilty for being away from their classrooms for professional development activities (Cambone, 1995; Raywid, 1993 quoted in Ismat, 1996). A number of researchers contrasted this approach with the approach found in countries like China, Japan and Germany where time for collegial interaction and collaboration are integrated into the school day (Ismat, 1996). Teachers in these countries teach few classes and spend 30-40% of their day out of the classroom conferring with learners or colleagues or engaged in other professional work (Danahoe, 1993 cited in Ismat, 1996). It is further suggested that set-aside time is particularly important when significant school improvement plans are underway. School districts are therefore, advised to formally establish 'collective staff time' just as they set time for class time and teaching days (Ismat, 1996).

For teachers to find time to collaborate there are three broad approaches that are found to be effective. Time can be added by extending the school day or year, by extracting time from the existing schedule and altering staff utilisation patterns. Moreover, Watts and Castle (1993) quoted in Ismat, (1996: 3) suggest options that would be used to create time for teacher development. The first option is that time can be created by using teaching assistants (contract teachers in the case of South Africa), college students, parents and administrators to take care of the classes in the absence of the class teachers (Watts & Castle, 1993).

This arrangement can mean that the school has regularly scheduled release days in the year plan. Secondly, school days can be restructured or rescheduled by lengthening school days on four days of the week (Watts & Castle, 1993). The third option suggests that time used for regular staff or district meetings can be better

used for planning and professional growth rather than for informational or administrative purposes (Ismat, 1996). The last suggestion is that block scheduling can also be used to accommodate teachers that have common planning and having common assignments (Tanner, Canady & Rettig, 1995). One other alternative is that a middle school block schedule that frees one-fourth of the faculty to plan or engage in other professional work during each period of the day. At least one day a week, teachers in the Teaching and Learning Collaborative in Massachusetts have no teaching duties. The learning instructors use this alternative professional time to pursue professional interests or alternative roles. This arrangement is facilitated by the presence of full-time teaching interns or team teaching” (Troen & Bolles, 1994) cited in Ismat, 1996: 4).

The most formidable challenge to institutionalise effective professional development time, as indicated by the National Education Commission on Time and Learning (NECTL, 1994) in Massachusetts United States, is that of considering a teacher’s proper place during school hours as being in front of a class, which isolates teachers from one another and discourages collaborative work. It is further explained that this is a culture that does not place priority on teacher learning and in which professional development needs are not usually made by teachers but by the government (Ismat, 1996). This does not consider the fact that implementing a more effective pattern of teacher professional development requires struggling against these constraints, but it may also help to create a school climate that is more hospitable to teacher learning (Cambone, 1995).

According to Knapp (2003), the traditional model of a centralised once-off workshop can be more successful at promoting change or affecting learner performance if it could be of longer duration. Most professional development programmes are more effective in changing teacher’s practice when they are of longer duration (Porter et al., 2000). It is further stated that longer time professional development permits more time for teachers to learn about their practice, especially if it includes follow-up (Joyce & Showers, 1995). Stein, Smith and Silver (1999 cited by Smith & Gillespie, 2007) find a direct and positive correlation between the numbers of hours teachers participate in a professional development activity and the extent and type of change after the training. Studies on the implementation of professional teacher development indicate that creating change in teachers is a time consuming process

that requires many meetings and workshops over an extended period of time (Maistry, 2004). Once-off workshops that are conducted in one day, therefore, are likely to result in limited teacher development and change.

Teachers participating in the on-site community of practice professional development often work together over extended periods of time, a year or more (Maistry, 2008). This involves much more than the technical knowledge or skills associated with undertaking some task. Members in a community of practice are involved in a set of relationships over time and communities develop around some particular area of knowledge and activity, giving members a sense of joint enterprise and identity (Wenger, 1998). The interaction involved, and the ability to undertake larger or more complex activities and projects through cooperation for a period of time, bind people together and help to facilitate relationship and trust which leads to professional learning (Lave, 1993 & Wenger, 1999). However, according to the Texas Credit Union League (TCUL), for someone making commitment to on-going and effective professional development seems overwhelming when coupled with other duties like fulfilling responsibilities as expected by the employer and commitment to family and friends (TCUL, 2011).

Staff development days in the form of workshops and brief meetings held before, during or after the school day, are grossly insufficient for the collegial learning and planning that are essential to successful improvements efforts (Spark, 1994). Internationally, teachers spend more hours in school but they spend less time actually teaching learners. Teachers spend only three hours per day actually instructing learners and much of the remainder of their time is spent planning lessons and interacting with colleagues (Sparks, 1994). These are two powerful forms of teacher development that would be essential for any effective teacher development.

Teachers who truly understand the importance of additional time for adult learning, as indicated by Greece, China and the Netherlands teacher development activities, will find many ways to make that possibility a reality (Price, 1993 cited by Sparks, 1994). It is further argued that an important barrier to providing time to teacher development is the uncertainty about what to do with learners while teachers are away from their classrooms. As options to consider are activities such as school-

based extra-curricular activities, course-related projects and community service (Price, 1993). On the other hand, Cohen (1993 in Sparks, 1994) indicates that somewhere in this mix of extended learning activities may lie an answer to the mystery of how to engage teachers in sustained professional development at comparatively little extra cost. This viewpoint suggests that teachers of the same community of practice should plan together and find time and creativity in looking at how both teachers and learners might spend the school days (Price, 1993). This would also mean that parents and policy-makers in this country need to be persuaded and informed about the experiences of Greece, China and the Netherlands which proved that less classroom time can yield high-quality learning (Price, 1993). In other words, this example of creating time for teacher development could provide a lesson for South Africa if it could be adopted. The researcher examines whether there are any means of creating time for teacher development in the Lady Frere district. It is clear, therefore, that time separate from class time, needs to be allocated for the implementation of these different models.

Moreover, duration which has to do with the number of hours participants spend in the activity and over what span of time the activity takes place, needs to be considered. Hence, longer duration activities provide for the desired content, specific focus, active learning and more connection to teachers' other experiences (Dembelle & Schwille, 2007). This understanding indicates that the development of professional practices is a continuing process that needs to last for the duration of the career of a committed teacher (DoE, 2008). According to Adler (2002: 62), "...once-off workshops without follow-up or support have been the order of the day although such workshops and courses of limited duration are ineffective in developing subject matter knowledge or even pedagogical knowledge". Maistry, (2008) also advocates that sustained programmes over extended periods of time are much more likely to have a lasting impact on teachers than once-off workshops. That is why it is emphasised that the CPTD system is conceived as an essential, career-long component of a comprehensive teacher education system. One of the characteristic of CPTD as envisaged by DoE (2008) is that the system combines incentives and obligations to enable teachers to continue improving their professional knowledge, understanding and practice throughout their teaching career. There are also new professional developments, like new approaches to teaching and learning that will need teacher development programmes for teachers

to be able to meet the required standards. That happens throughout the teaching career.

Weber and Bethoin Antal (2003) suggest that the key question is how long organisational learning processes take and whether duration can be externally influenced. They further contend that learning processes that require practice are much slower than those that do not require practice. Time consideration is, therefore, an important element in considering the process of learning within an organisation that must meet specific deadlines or has a client base that needs to be managed continuously. The conditions may not be suitable for an elaborate training or educational programme. Organisations must consider time pressure as a tool that can influence learning and also speed up processes. However, it can be contended that time pressure can both accelerate and slow down, can be motivating and threatening to the learning processes (Weber & Bethoin Antal, 2003).

### **3.3 STRATEGIES USED TO IMPLEMENT CPTD**

This section will focus on the structure and features of a CPTD programme. Before the implementation of any CPTD programme, there should be a thorough view of the professional development cycle that forms the structure of a professional teacher development programme.

#### **3.3.1 Structure of a CPTD programme**

Earley and Bubb (2004) have six stages of a professional development cycle which are: identifying needs, analysing needs, designing professional development, implementing professional development, monitoring and evaluating impact (Honey & Mumford, 2006). This suggests that any professional development programme that does not follow these stages is likely not to be effective (Earley & Bubb, 2004).

Garet et al. (2001) claims that professional development should focus on quality and features of professional development rather than on format or type. Most important professional development features for increasing knowledge and self reported changes in practice are focus on content knowledge or pedagogical knowledge,

opportunities for hands on, active learning and greater coherence (Garet et al., 2001).

### **3.3.2 Professional development features**

#### ***3.3.2.1 Content knowledge/pedagogical knowledge***

A professional teacher development could be a good activity if it could focus on improving and deepening teachers' content knowledge instead of focusing on generic methods of teaching (Chisholm, 2004). Focusing on content will assist teachers in developing their knowledge gap because before 1994, educational opportunities were extremely limited for the black population (Chisholm, 2004). On the other hand, after 1994, due to curriculum change, teachers were required to improve their pedagogical content as well (Chisholm, 2004). Taylor and Vinewood (1999) argue that the most critical of teacher education in South Africa is the limited conceptual base of many teachers. Therefore, for equity and redress, CPTD needs to be properly implemented to overcome the South African situation, especially for teachers in the rural schools. The researcher will find out if CPTD programmes are properly implemented to be able to further the goals of the new curriculum statement of equity and redress.

#### ***3.3.2.2 Opportunities for hands on***

Groups of teachers from the same professional culture participating as a group work better as opposed to teachers from the same location participating individually (Elmore, 2002). Furthermore, teachers of the same school are comfortable collaborating and demonstrating lessons amongst themselves. According to Elmore (1996), this can happen only if teachers are given enough time to practise what they learnt from the development programme, especially after the short-term development programmes. CPTD should also afford teachers an opportunity to apply their newly acquired knowledge in practice. According to Anderson (2001), it is essential for teachers to be guided to develop their own ideas and experiment with them in order to determine their success. It is further stated that assessment should also be an integral part of CPTD and in the process the teacher should be given a chance to discuss with others what has been done. In support of this statement, Anderson (2001) contends that guidance, support by own peers, and formative assessment must also be integrated into professional development.

### **3.3.2.3 Active learning**

If teachers could be afforded opportunities to engage in a meaningful analysis of teaching and learning they would get effective development because adult learning is regarded as an issue of engaging in and contributing to the practices of their communities (Wenger, 1998). Learning by doing, has always been the best for adult learners as it would be the case if teachers get together, plan and discuss their lessons and improve their knowledge. Lessons that are developed jointly lead to confident and more freer and purposeful interchange with learners (Lessing & de Witt, 2007).

### **3.3.2.4 Greater coherence**

There should be coherence in the development activities where CPTD incorporates experiences that are consistent with teachers' goals and aligned with system-level curriculum standards. Adults are goal oriented and they appreciate an educational programme that has clearly defined elements (Lieb, 1991). Thus, teachers find it profitable for them to meet in their small communities of learning because they know what they are aware of what they intend to achieve from the programme (Maistry, 2008).

Professional development under the on-site or job-embedded professional development is located within a school programme as part of an effort to create on-going professional communities (Engelbrecht et al, 2007). Schools and programmes develop site-based learning communities where professional development is woven in the fabric of the school community, balanced at times with the cross-fertilisation of new ideas from outside the school (Taylor, Pearson, Peterson & Rodriguez, 2005). A site-based development program focuses on developing teacher knowledge in the content area, analysing learner thinking and identifying how that knowledge can be applied to changes in instructional practices tailored to the local educational context (Porter et al., 2000 & Elmore, 1996).

According to Joyce and Showers (1995), professional development should include a variety of activities like demonstrations, practice and feedback. It is further noted that if professional development is short-term or single session, it needs to be followed by assistance to help teachers implement what they learnt. The argument is that teachers are more likely to learn from direct observation of practice rather than trial

and error in their classrooms that are from abstract descriptions of teaching (Elmore, 1996: 24). Apart from direct observation of practice, professional development should also follow principles of adult learning by establishing a supportive environment, taking recognition of teachers' prior knowledge and helping teachers consider how new learning applies to their situation (Elmore, 1996).

### **3.3.3 Establishing a supportive environment**

Since knowledge is embedded in experience and personally constructed, teacher development must situate learning in authentic, real-world contexts that involve collaboration and social interaction (Speck, 1996). For learning to be authentic for adult learners, learning environment must have attributes of real-world problems. Adults need to participate in small group activities that are structured such that they provide opportunities to share and generalise their learning experiences with peers so as to reduce the fear of judgment during learning (Speck, 1996).

Professional development is not a one-time activity; it should be embedded into teachers' professional lives. While it is the duty of the individual teachers to be proactive and seek opportunities for personal and professional development, employers should also play their part (Texas Credit Union League (TCUL), 2011). If the employer is determined that teacher development is a continuing priority, then it is important that they create an environment that supports and promotes teacher development (TCUL, 2011).

### **3.3.4 Environment promoting teacher development**

#### ***3.3.4.1 Acknowledging teachers' prior knowledge***

Teacher professional development that acknowledges teachers prior knowledge and focus on teachers' learning will strive to meet individual needs of teachers (Lee, 2005; Robinson & Carrington 2002). According to Desimone, Smith and Ueno (2006), it can be easy to develop teachers according to their needs. Their prior knowledge can be determined because teachers with more expert content knowledge have more confidence and motivation to continue developing their knowledge (Desimone et al., 2006).

### **3.3.4.2 Application of new knowledge**

Professional development that gives feedback on teacher development helps teachers consider how new learning applies to their specific teaching situation and encourages them to make their implicit knowledge about teaching (Elmore 1996). “Teachers need to know whether they are making progress and that their professional learning has a positive impact on learners’ performance” (Lam & Pang 2003:87; Birman et al., 2000:29; King & Newman 2001:87 cited in Steyn, 2009). According to Elmore (1996), this supportive environment can occur only if teachers are allocated enough time to practise what they learnt from the development programme. CPTD should also afford teachers an opportunity to apply their newly acquired knowledge in practice. According to Anderson (2001), it is essential for teachers to be guided to develop their own ideas and experiment with them in order to determine their success. It is further stated that assessment should also be an integral part of CPTD; and, in the process, the teacher should be given a chance to discuss with others what has been done. In support of this statement, Anderson (2001) contends that guidance, support by own peers and formative assessment must also be integrated into professional development. Anything that has to do with classroom activities need to be integrated into teacher professional development. All forms of assessment are essential for adequate classroom practice; therefore, need to be part of content in teacher development programmes.

Moreover, there is a strong correlation between student achievement and the level of knowledge of teachers. Garet, Porter, Desimore, Birman and Yoon, (2001) posit that teachers themselves report that professional development focusing on content knowledge contributes to changes in instructional practice. Hence, professional development should include a strong emphasis on analysis and reflection, rather than just demonstrating techniques (Guskey, 1997). Furthermore, as advocated by Guskey (1999) and Sparks (1995), professional development focuses on learning rather than on teaching, on problem solving instead of acquiring new techniques, and on embedding change within the programme rather than on individual change. Among other professional development strategies, it has been found out that when teachers are introduced, through professional development, to how students learn various subject concepts and how they think about those subjects, they are able to implement their own strategies for teaching the subject (Joyce & Showers, 1995; Guskey, 1997). If teachers in their development activities could be introduced to

action research, they could be able to use various approaches to teaching and learning.

Professional development is more effective when teachers participate with others from their school, grade or department (Porter et al., 2000). This means that the short-term development programmes like workshops can also be productive if teachers with the strategies mentioned above could be developed per school or if the programmes could be run in their various workplaces (Smith & Gillespie, 2007). Garet et al., (2001) claims that professional development should focus on quality and features of professional development rather than on format or type. It is also stated that the most important professional development features for increasing knowledge and self reported changes in practice are focus on content knowledge or pedagogical knowledge, opportunities for hands on, active learning and greater coherence (Garet et al., 2001).

### **3.4 CAPACITY OF FACILITATORS AND CLUSTER LEADERS OF CPTD**

As the quality of teacher professional practice is at the root of quality schooling, CPTD is an essential component of a comprehensive education system (National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTEd), 2007). Hence, employers and CPTD facilitators should encourage teachers to engage in continuous professional teacher development, especially the subject advisors (facilitators) as they are the main resource persons in CPTD. The facilitators are supposed to be well informed about the CPTD activities (DoE, 2008). Therefore, the capacity of facilitators, as people responsible for CPTD will be measured by considering a number of aspects as discussed below.

Before the implementation of any CPTD programme, facilitators need to examine the professional teacher development cycle and identify how adults learn. Qualified and capable facilitators in their designing of CPTD programmes will consider the six stages of a professional development cycle as specified by Earley and Bubb, (2004); Honey and Mumford (2006). As indicated by these stages, facilitators have to identify and analyse needs, have a design for professional development, implement professional development, monitor and evaluate impact. Capable facilitators will

know that any professional teacher development programme that does not follow these stages is likely to be ineffective (Earley & Bubb, 2004).

Capable facilitators are aware of the fact that teacher development programmes should be adequate and effective as they will know that there is a strong correlation between learner achievement and the extent of development and level of knowledge of teachers (Garet et al., 2001). Facilitators need to know that teacher development programmes that focus on content knowledge contribute to changes in instructional practice (Smith & Gillespie, 2007). Guskey (1997) posit that facilitators are supposed to know that professional teacher development should include a strong emphasis on reflection instead of demonstrating techniques.

For professional teacher development to be effective, the programme should be facilitated by experts and specialists in both subject content and pedagogical knowledge (Steyl, 2009). Facilitators with theoretical knowledge and skills as well as communication skills, also need to have expertise based on practical experience for them to be capable of conducting CPTD programmes. Hence, CPTD facilitators need to be aware that professional development is more effective in changing teachers' practice when it is of longer duration. It permits more time for teachers to learn about their practice (Porter et al., 2000).

Furthermore, professional development focusing on content knowledge contributes to change in instructional practice (Porter et al., 2000). Therefore, facilitators need to be experts in subject content, focus on learning, on problem-solving and reflectiveness (Guskey, 1999; Sparks, 1995). Professional development that does not include a variety of activities like theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and classroom application (Joyce & Showers, 1995) indicates incapacity of facilitators. Furthermore, professional teacher development that does not encourage teachers to participate in professional development with others from their school, grade or department can be termed ineffective (Porter et al., 2001).

Facilitators in their CPTD programmes are supposed to introduce teachers to research driven classroom practice (Guskey, 1997). When designing CPTD, facilitators need to take into consideration that teacher priority activities do not have

the same form as school priority activities although they might both be school-based (Elmore, 2002). They should not decide on what teachers want without getting their views. In that way they will deal directly with teachers' perceived reality which will lead to permanent effect on teachers (Elmore, 2002).

Due to quality and specialisation of service, facilitators may not have the capacity to support teachers; on the other hand, teachers cannot be required to undertake facilitator-driven activities if they are not accessible to them (DoE, 2008). The unavailability of facilitators of teacher development programmes in terms of geographical spread, capacity and range of specialisation is a serious risk (DoE, 2008). Limited numbers of facilitators may be available generally, and even fewer in more rural provinces. The obvious sources of professional development facilitators are the subject advisory services in Provincial Education Departments (PED), and higher education institutions (DoE, 2008). The fact that facilitators are not trained on facilitation as a skill can render the capacity of education departments to support and monitor the envisaged CPTD system for their employees inadequate, especially at district office level (DoE, 2008).

Generally, facilitation like all skills needs thorough training and development for the facilitator to be able to conduct a training programme. With regard to availability, quality and specialisation of service, facilitators might not have the capacity to train and support teachers and they could not be required to undertake facilitator-driven activities if they were not provided or they have no convenient access to them. The unavailability of facilitators of teacher development programmes in terms of geographic spread, capacity and range of specialisation, as revealed in data collection, is a serious risk. Limited numbers of facilitators might be available generally, and even fewer in more rural provinces like Eastern Cape. The obvious sources of professional development facilitators in Eastern Cape are the subject advisors in the district offices and higher education institutions where possible. The capacity of department of education facilitators to support and monitor the envisaged CPTD programmes for their employees may be inadequate, especially at district office level (DoE, 2008).

Furthermore, according to Guskey (2002), there are principles that are believed to be essential in planning effective professional teacher development programmes that

result in significant and sustained educational improvements. CPTD programme providers should know that change is gradual and a difficult process for teachers because learning to be proficient at something new and finding meaning in a new way of doing things requires both time and effort (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1993). The once-off development programmes without follow-up programmes and the sessions that were cut short as revealed in data collection can, therefore, yield limited results.

One major determining factor to efficient CPTD programmes is the professional experiences/qualifications of the CPTD programme facilitators. Similar to a study conducted by Burchinal et al. (2002), quality of early education programmes is strongly associated with the qualifications of the teachers' programmes. The same applies to the quality of CPTD programmes for the secondary school teachers, the development of secondary school teachers can, therefore, be affected by the qualification of CPTD programme facilitators. Experience coupled with substantial professional qualifications of the CPTD programme facilitators, plays a role in sound delivery of lessons during the training. Similarly, a study conducted by Muijs, Geoff & Lindsay (2008) on impact of professional development on teacher knowledge and quality early language and literacy practices in centre- and home-based setting, suggested that to meet the demands of high quality teaching, trainers need to know not only what to teach, but, how to teach it effectively. They need to identify the skills that individual teachers can bring to the training and their cultural histories, building upon their prior knowledge in a way that engages the teachers' understanding of the concept at hand.

For professional teacher development to be effective, it should be facilitated by experts and specialists in both subject content and pedagogical knowledge (Steyl, 2009). Facilitators with theoretical knowledge and skills, as well as communication skills, also need to have expertise based on practical experience in order for them to be capable of conducting CPTD programmes. Professional development is more effective in changing teachers' practice when it is of longer duration, because it permits more time for teachers to learn about their practice (Porter et al., 2000). This opinion suggests that facilitators who organise once-off workshops are not fully capacitated to conduct CPTD programmes. Hence, Ottoson (1997) argues that preparation for application cannot be adequately done if too little time is spent on programme integration and synthesis.

Furthermore, professional development focused on content knowledge contributes to change in instructional practice (Porter et al., 2001). Facilitators, therefore, need to be experts in subject content, focus on learning; on problem-solving and reflectiveness (Guskey, 1999; Sparks, 1995). Professional development that does not include a variety of activities like theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and classroom application (Joyce & Showers, 1995) indicates incapacity of facilitators. Furthermore, professional teacher development that does not encourage teachers to participate in professional development with others from their school, grade or department (Porter et al., 2001) can be termed ineffective. Competent facilitators assist teachers to organise work-embedded or on-site professional development.

These aspects are frequently overlooked and may have disastrous effects on the quality of the CPTD especially if professional development is not school-based (Steyl, 1998).

The unavailability of facilitators of teacher development programmes in terms of geographical spread, capacity and range of specialisation is a serious risk (DoE, 2008). Limited numbers of facilitators may be available generally, and even fewer in more rural provinces. The obvious sources of professional development facilitators are the subject advisory services in Provincial Education Departments (PED), and higher education institutions (DoE, 2008). The capacity of education departments to support and monitor the envisaged CPTD system for their employees may be inadequate, especially at district office level (DoE, 2008). With that envisaged inadequacy districts that are mostly rural and depend solely on subject advisors may, therefore, not be getting sufficient support and monitoring (DoE, 2008).

### **3.5 TEACHER PERFORMANCE AFTER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES**

Appropriate strategies need to be adopted for short-term professional development programmes, and there should be a strong connection between what is learnt during training and the teachers' own context (Day & Sachs, 2004). Professional development also needs to assist teachers plan for application and to identify barriers to application that they will face once back in their classrooms. Also

devoting no time or little time for synthesis, integration, and planning beyond the professional development programme is inadequate preparation for application (Ottoson, 1997).

In developing CPTD programmes, it is useful to consider the problematic issue of transfer as the immediate manifestation of teacher learning, although the development of strong subject content knowledge has potential for classroom practice, immediate transfer is not likely to occur (Maistry, 2008). Teacher learning through professional development may not result in changed practice and improved student performance, although it is assumed that teachers who have developed strong content knowledge are more likely to become effective teachers as compared to those with weak content knowledge (Hargreaves, 1994; Bolam, 2000). CPTD does not always produce 'pay off' in classroom learning and student performance and achievement, but can only have an indirect impact on student learning (Day & Sachs, 2004).

Generally after attending the CPTD programmes, it is expected that teacher change and performance should be marked in terms of improved teachers' attitudes, beliefs and understanding, which will lead to improved classroom practice (Hargreaves, 1995). Teachers make changes to the content of lessons through specific teacher activities or in generic learning processes (Cordingley, Bell & Rundell, 2003). Then there is more effective teaching and learning after teachers have increased their knowledge in various subjects. Also as teachers benefit themselves from more active learning opportunities; this becomes manifested in their practice, with greater focus on active learning (Bell & Gibert, 1996; Clarke & Hollingston, 2002). According to the result of the study by Lessing and de Witt (2007), teachers involved in active learning through collaborative CPTD teach with less unpacking of information to students. They use student problems as a focus for learning or teachers provide more feedback to students and teaching becomes learning rather than task oriented (Lessing & de Witt, 2007). In cases where the collaborative and sustained CPTD did not lead to the targeted improvements teachers commit themselves to an additional and more specifically focused year of action research. This can be typical of teachers who have been appropriately developed and have taken responsibility of their development (Cordingley, Bell & Rundell, 2003).

On the other hand, CPTD programmes from the international practitioners' perspective in Japan, China and Netherlands, as reviewed by Cordingley et al. (2003), seem to be enhancing teacher confidence and teachers are sharing a stronger belief in their own power to make a difference. After a CPTD session (communities of practice), there is a notable increase in teachers' willingness to take risks including experimenting with what they had previously thought to be difficult (Maistry, 2008). In a study of a South African CPTD situation done by Maistry (2008) on: *Towards collaboration rather than cooperation for effective professional development of teachers in South Africa: Insights from social practice theory*, collaboration amongst teachers in learning communities is beginning to emerge as a strategic response to overcome the argument that there is much ambiguity surrounding responsibility for CPTD in South Africa (Hargreaves, 1995; Maistry, 2008).

### **3.6 SUPPORT, MATERIAL AND MONITORING OF PROGRAMMES**

Teachers experience significant difficulties in accessing and receiving support, resources and CPTD opportunities close to where they live and work (Chisholm, 2004). According to a Canadian study by Yu et al., (2000), teachers' development and learning is affected by some variables in the school context which may enhance or hamper the professional development of teachers. This Canadian study included means of mediating variables such as school culture, teacher collaboration and the school environment which can easily prevent teachers from being committed to CPTD and therefore impacting on the effectiveness of CPTD programmes conducted at school (Steyn, 2008).

Schools require positive school culture for successful CPTD (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). For schools to have positive school culture, they should be humane and professionally supportive where teachers are provided with resources they require and opportunities to work together and learn from each other. Collaborating teachers utilize strengths and complement each other in acquiring knowledge and skills, thereby stimulating reflection and broadening their perspective. This support creates more effective teaching and learning and ownership of teachers' own professional development and learning (Steyn, 2008).

The traditional culture of teacher isolation and limited time available for collegial interaction does not support collaboration among teachers (Collinson, 2001). In most cases teachers isolate themselves because they are not sure of their teaching skills (Bernauer, 2002). Teachers working in isolation need to be supported by the SMT so that instructors can work together as professionals (Bernauer, 2002; Collinson, 2001 in Steyn 2008). This kind of support contributes to the development of a school culture that leads to teacher commitment and teacher change (Bernauer, 2002; Houghton-Hill, 2000 cited in Steyn, 2008).

In most of the training programmes, what determines the effectiveness of the training received is the quality of materials used in the training. Teachers are severely constrained in what they can do by the resources they have at hand. For them, the knowledge of creative activities for pupils is of little value if there are no materials or resources to support such activities (Maguvhe, 2003). Teachers expect to benefit from the development programme (Maguvhe, 2003). If development programmes do not provide support, systems can result in the disempowerment and demotivation of teachers (Maguvhe, 2003).

Apart from the variety of training, there is yet another important aspect to consider as far as CPTD programmes are concerned, that of monitoring and support services (Jansen & Sayed, 2001). Efforts have been undertaken both nationally and locally to transform education and training teachers, but Jansen & Sayed (2001) suggest that necessary as this professional challenge has been, it needs to be accompanied by a strategy for implementation that includes teacher training programmes and support. (Maistry, 2008) argues that it must be recognised that the lack of high quality support teacher learning and limited long-term CPTD programmes are critical barriers to effective teacher learning. There is no risk attached to giving teachers control over the curriculum, but the product ought to be monitored. It is clear that teacher empowerment loses its effectiveness if the instructors do not have instructional leaders to monitor and keep them on track (Carl, 2005)

Teachers, researchers and policy makers consistently indicate that the greatest challenge to implementing effective professional development is lack of time (Ismat, 1996). Teachers need time to understand new concepts, learn new skills, develop new attitudes, research, discuss reflect, assess, try new approaches and integrate

them into new practice, and, time to plan their own professional development as means of supporting each other (Cambone, 1995; Corcoran, 1995; Troen & Bolles, 1994; Watts & Castle, 1993). Teachers as adult learners, need both set-aside time for learning (e.g. workshops and courses) and time to experience and digest new ideas and ways of working with others (Ismat, 1996).

As means of support, professional development policies need to attend to school structures that stifle teachers' change for supporting high quality professional development. Furthermore, policies need to structure teachers' work week so they do not spend virtually all their time teaching, but, instead have adequate preparation, consultation and collaboration time (Ismat, 1996). Regular time for teacher collaboration can help ensure that lessons are more highly polished, learners' needs are better met, and curriculum is cohesive from year to year (Maistry, 2008). CPTD is best when teachers themselves are integrally involved, reflecting on their own practice, when there is a strong school-based component, when activities are well coordinated and above all when employers provide sustained leadership and support (Ismat, 1996).

In terms of providing support and monitoring the instructional leadership (SMT) need to provide individualised support by means of a motivational and supportive style of leadership (Heaney, 2004). It is also the duty of the SMT to provide appropriate support to teachers such that they may continue developing new classroom habits by identifying teachers' needs, motivating and supporting their continuous professional development. For the teachers to be able to work towards a collaborative school culture, the SMT, especially the HODs, should support, motivate and monitor them.

The vision of the National Policy Framework (DoE, 2006) is to support and facilitate the process of CPTD activities so as to revitalise the teaching profession - classroom practice. Regarding classroom practice, the CPTD system aims at improving schooling and the quality of learner achievement and to coordinate professional development activities focusing on effectiveness (DoE, 2006).

### **3.7 SUMMARY**

This chapter reviewed literature that is related to the implementation of Continuing Professional Development. The theories of adult learning were explained; and, the concept of CPTD, its purposes and the historical perspectives were also examined. The literature review also demonstrated that for CPTD to be effective there is need for support material and trained personnel to conduct the programmes. Studies related to the subtopics were also analysed. The reviewed related literature also assisted the research in exploring the extent to which the CPTD programmes were implemented in the Lady Frere District. Chapter three provides information regarding the design and methodology employed in this study.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is devoted to a detailed description of the research design and methodology that was used in the study. It covers research paradigm, research approach/methodology, research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection, instruments, issues of validity, reliability and trustworthiness, data analysis and ethical considerations.

Research methodology is a process of inquiry that adds knowledge about a phenomenon. It is concerned with problem-solving, investigating relationships and building on the body of knowledge (Smith & Dainty, 1991). It is a strategy or plan of action that links methods to outcomes and governs the choice and use of methods (Creswell, 2003). There are different approaches to research, each based on the enquirer's values, assumptions and beliefs about the world. An understanding of alternative perspectives is, therefore, essential to develop a research approach appropriate for a research question. Writing a substantial research requires a researcher to use methodology that is relevant to the situation and the goals that are being pursued.

### 4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The philosophical frameworks that guide researchers are termed paradigms. Paradigms are a set of assumptions, values or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which give rise to a particular world view and serve as the lenses or organising principles through which researchers perceive and interpret reality; hence, they represent how society perceives the world (Creswell, 2007; Maree, 2007). A paradigm is a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world into simplified examples of world views (Patton, 1990) and a framework that is guided by a set of feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied (Guba, 1990; Clark, Dyson & Millward, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Our actions in

the world, including the actions we take as inquirers, cannot occur without reference to the paradigms.

A paradigm can also be known as a person's best perspective about the world based on the answer to ontological, epistemological and methodological questions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Sharing the same view are Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) who posit that paradigms are all encompassing systems of interrelated practices and thinking that define for investigators, the nature of their inquiry along the three dimensions of ontology, epistemology and methodology.

Gall, Gall and Borg (2006) and Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) postulate that ontology specifies the nature or essence of the social phenomena or reality being investigated; hence, pure reality cannot be known as it can be interpreted through our senses and experiences resulting in different perspectives of reality.

Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated. Epistemology, as viewed by Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), specifies the nature of the relationship between the researcher and what can be known, thus showing the researcher's philosophical orientation. Similarly, Cohen and Manion (1990) explore whether it is possible to identify and communicate the nature of knowledge as being hard, real and capable of being transmitted in tangible form. Furthermore, they explore whether knowledge is of softer, more subjective, and spiritual or even transcendental kind, based on experience and insight of a unique and essentially personal nature.

People's epistemological orientation enables them to either see knowledge as absolute and separate from the researcher and linked to a knowable external reality or to see it as part of the researcher and relative to the individual's experiences that are associated with his/her environment. The researcher's theoretical lenses play an important role in the choice of methods because the underlying belief system of the researcher largely defines the choice of methods. The methodology defines the practical way in which the researcher conducts the study (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). It deals with how we know the world or gain knowledge of it. Our knowledge about the phenomena is organised and increased through methodology which is a set of rules, principles and formal conditions that ground and guide scientific inquiry.

There are, therefore, different paradigms or knowledge claims that have taken root in today's research, among them positivism, interpretivism, and post-positivism (Creswell, 1994 in Khumwong, 2004). The researchers who perceive knowledge as absolute and separate from the researcher are likely to adopt an objective or positive paradigm as discussed below.

#### **4.2.1 Positivism**

Positivist paradigm claims a deterministic and empiricist philosophy when causes determine effects (Hammersley, n.d.; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). It aims to directly observe, quantitatively measure and objectively predict relationships between variables as means of understanding human behaviour (Dash, 2005). It further assumes that social phenomena, like objects in natural science can be treated in the same way (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Positivistic thinkers and researchers adopt scientific methods as means of knowledge generation; hence, positivism is understood within the framework of the principles and assumptions of natural science (Dash, 2005)

Gephart (1999) alludes to the same understanding when he posits that positivism assumes an objective world which scientific methods can more or less readily present and measure, and it seeks to predict and explain causal relations among key variables. With the same understanding Kim (2003) notes that positivism asserts that knowledge and truth are questions of correspondence because they relate to an external referent reality. Hence, positivism is often known for searching for facts conceived in terms of specified correlations and associations among variables. Thus, the positivists focus on experimental and quantitative methods used to test and verify hypotheses (O'Leary, 2004). Hence, Ryan (2006: 15) writes that within positivism, knowledge has been treated as follows:

- i. What counts is the means (methodology) by which knowledge is arrived at. These means must be objective, empirical and scientific;
- ii. Only certain topics are worthy of enquiry, namely those that exist in the public world;
- iii. The relationship between the self and the knowledge has been largely denied- knowledge as separate from the person who constructs it. The political is separate from the personal;

- iv. Mathematics, science and technical knowledge are given high status, because they are regarded as objective, separate from the person and the private world;
- v. Knowledge is construed as being something discovered not produced by human beings.

Although the positivist paradigm continued to influence educational research for a long time, it was criticised due to its lack of regard for the subjective state of individuals and regards human behaviour as passive, controlled and determined by external environment (Gephart, 1993). Hence, it falsely represents the object of study by reifying social reality as existing objectively and independently of the social world whose action and labour actually produced those conditions (Horkheimer, 2008:128). Positivistic methods strip context from meaning in the process of developing quantified measures of phenomena. In particular, quantitative measures often exclude members' meanings and interpretations from data which are collected and impose outsiders' meanings and interpretations on data (Horkheimer, 2008). Hence, Somekh and Lewin (2005) posit that the expectation that a researcher can observe without allowing values and interest interfering is arguably impossible. These methods do not require statistical samples which often do not represent specific social groups and which do not allow generalisation to or understanding of individual cases (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Since knowledge cannot be divorced from ontology (reality) and personal experience, this paradigm is inadequate when it comes to learning about how people live, how they view the world and how they cope with it (Ryan, 2006). It also requires statistical samples which often do not represent specific social groups and which do not allow generalisation to or understanding of individual cases (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Gephart, 1999) and place emphasis on the precise measurement of the phenomena (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Positivistic concerns to uncover truths and facts using experimental or survey methods have been challenged by interpretivists who assert that these methods impose a view of the world on subjects rather than capturing, describing and understanding (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As the positivist paradigm places emphasis on the precise measurement of phenomena (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001), within the context of this study it is unlikely that a precise measurement can be achieved given the explanatory nature of the research

problem. With these assumptions, the ultimate goal of science is to integrate and systematise findings into a meaningful pattern or theory which is regarded as tentative and not the ultimate truth. Hence, theory is subject to revision or modification as new evidence is found (Cohen et al., 2000). Furthermore, having considered all the above shortcomings as far as positivism is concerned and the context of the research problem, it is evident that this study cannot be located solely in this paradigm.

#### **4.2.2 Interpretivism**

Interpretivism is characterised by seeing the social world from a highly subjective viewpoint. It places the emphasis of explanation in the subjective consciousness of the social participants instead of the objective observer (Denscombe, 2002). Because of the highly subjective nature of the interpretive research, studies tend to be small in scale and emphasis is placed on the validity and insight of the research, rather than simply the outcomes or results (Brandon, 2008).

The ontological aspect of interpretivism holds that social reality is the result of interactions between actors in real social context. The social world, according to interpretivism, cannot exist outside of the independent minds of social actors (Brandon, 2008). Burrell and Morgan (1979 cited by Brandon, 2008) state:

The social world is no more than the subjective construction of individual human beings who, through the development and use of common language and the interactions of everyday life, may create and sustain a social world of inter-subjectively shared meaning (p. 260).

Given this view of social ontology, the experiences of actors in any social context must then be nominalist, a process of subjective interpretation rather than a physical perception of the 'real' material world (Brandon, 2008). It is further argued that epistemologically, interpretivism is anti-positivist in nature. Given that the social ontology is highly subjective, the epistemology is likewise highly relativistic and exclusive to the actors directly involved in the social activities. Moreover, knowledge and understanding can only be obtained by having the same frame of reference as the actor; consequently, such knowledge is distinctly subjective to the actors' reality. Subsequently, methodologically, the interpretivist takes an ideographic approach to

the study of society (Brandon, 2008). As opposed to a homothetic approach to a methodology in positivism, interpretivism requires a more detailed and thorough analysis of the social situation. It is further pointed out that, an ideographic approach requires first hand knowledge and a complete analysis of the subjective accounts of the actors or situation (Burrell & Morgan, 1979 in Nwokah, Kiabel & Briggs, 2009: 431).

In the interpretivist paradigm the subject matter that is investigated by the natural science is different to the social sciences where human beings as opposed to inanimate objects can interpret the environment and themselves (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). This means that the notion that facts and value cannot be separated is acknowledged and that understanding is inevitably prejudiced because it is situated in terms of the individual and the event (Cousin, 2005; Elliot & Lukes, 2008). Interpretivist researchers recognise that all participants involved, including the researcher, automatically bring their own unique interpretation of the world or construction of the situation to the research. The researcher needs to be open to the attitudes and values of the participants, or more actively suspend all prior cultural assumptions (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). With other interpretivist researchers, the focus is on the collaborative process of bringing meaning and knowledge (Elliot & Lukes, 2008; Somekh & Lewin, 2005). Interpretivist research methods include focus group discussions, interviews and methods that allow for as many variables to be recorded as possible (Creswell, 2008).

Furthermore, interpretivism emphasises that social reality is viewed and interpreted by the individual according to the ideological positions the individual possesses. Knowledge, therefore, is personally experienced rather than acquired from or imposed from outside (Dash, 2005). The interpretivists believe that reality is multi-layered and complex (Cohen et. al., 2000) and a single phenomenon having multiple interpretations. They emphasise that the verification of a phenomenon is adopted when a level of understanding of a phenomenon is such that the concern is to probe into the various unexplored dimensions of a phenomenon rather than establishing specific relationship among the components, as it happens in the case of positivism (Dash, 2005).

Unlike positivism which is concerned with objective reality and meaning thought to be independent of people, interpretivism assumes that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation; hence, there is no objective knowledge which is independent of thinking and reasoning of people. That is why interpretivism often addresses essential features of shared meaning and understanding (Schwandt, 1994: 125). The main advantage of the interpretivist approach is formation of the study that is not restricted by the physical limitation of the natural sciences, but one in which a rich and detailed theory related to the individual perception of social issues may emerge (Krauss, 2005). At the same time, interpretivism has its greatest strength in the richness and depth of exploration and descriptions it yields through its qualitative approach to research. Hence, interpretivists feel that human behaviour is highly voluntaristic in that people choose the paths they take and the decisions they make (Denscombe, 2003).

One of the criticisms of this paradigm is that it does not allow generalisations as it encourages the study of a small number of cases that do not apply to the whole population (Denscombe, 2002). However, it is argued that the detail and effort involved in interpretive inquiry allows researchers to gain insight into particular events. It also brings out a range of perceptives that may not have come to light without that scrutiny (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2005)).

The interpretivist paradigm, with its qualitative methodology, has also been criticised for a lack of rigour (Karshall, & Rossman, 1999; Denscombe, 2002). This is said to be associated with the lack of statistical analysis and the use of emergent samples. It is also criticised for its subjectivity and the failure of the approach to generalise its findings beyond the situation studied. Yet, through the application of the qualitative systematic research approach, it is possible to maintain a high degree of rigour within interpretivist research (Maree, 2007). Despite the level of detail and meaning provided for when conducting research within the interpretivist paradigm, there are a number of inherent restrictions that might inhibit its overall usefulness (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The primary deficiency of interpretive based research seems to be the paradigm's lack of widely applicable facts (Springer, 2010). Truths are basically socially context sensitive facts, yet, due to the high level of subjectivity in interpretivist epistemologies, any results derived from its research might only be applicable to the highly specific social conditions of that research. In other words,

researchers may not be able to take the results and apply them to other situations because they are subjective truths and not objective facts (Brandon, 2008). Due to the limitations identified in the positivism paradigm and the interpretive paradigm, the study adopts the post-positivist paradigm which is discussed here below.

### **4.2.3 Post-Positivism**

Post-positivism is a shift away from positivism. It is referred to as a wholesale rejection of the central tenets of positivism (Trochim, 2006). In the same understanding, Creswell (2003: 7) defines it as 'thinking after positivism' while on the other hand Miles and Huberman (1993) explain post-positivism as a recent revolution of positivism. Post-positivism is consistent with positivism in assuming that an objective world exists but it assumes the world may not be readily apprehended and that variable relations or facts might only be probabilistic, not deterministic (Creswell, 2003). Positivists' focus on experimental and quantitative methods used to test and verify hypotheses have been superseded or complemented to some extent by an interest in using qualitative methods to gather broader information outside of readily measured variables. Hence, the recent focus has been on attempts by post-positivists to address the methodological challenges to quantitative methods by incorporating a qualitative component into an otherwise quantitative study (Miles & Huberman, 1993; Creswell, 2008).

According to Ryan (2006), post-positivism is a knowledge claim that challenges the absolute truth and recognises that we cannot be 'positive' about claims of knowledge when studying the behaviours and actions of humans because we are all biased; therefore, all of our observations are affected. Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) argue that in post-positivism, the knower and the known cannot be separated as is the case in positivism; and, although human beings cannot perfectly understand reality, researchers can approach it with rigorous data collection and analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1993). Hence, the post-positivistic approach opens the door to multiple methods and different worldviews as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis so as to provide and justify that rigour in the process of carrying out the research. Post-positivists emphasise the importance of multiple measures and observations, each of which may possess different types of error (Guba & Lincoln, 2000).

Post-Positivist paradigm works with the assumption that any piece of research is influenced by a number of well-developed theories, apart from and as well as, the one which is being listed (Cook & Campbell, 1979: 24 cited in Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Since new understandings may challenge the whole theoretical framework, O'Leary (2004) aligns post-positivism with constructivism paradigm, claiming that post-positivists see the world as ambiguous, variable and multiple in its realities. Moreover, according to Guba and Lincoln (1994) post-positivists research is an interactive process in which the researcher and the participant learn from each other. It values and encourages different approaches, encouraging insights that extend beyond the measurable, discoverable facts. It is further claimed that post-positivism is consistent with positivism in assuming that an objective world exists but the world may not be readily apprehended and that variable relations or facts might be only probabilistic, not deterministic (Miles & Huberman, 1993). Thus post-positivists believe that human knowledge is not based on unchangeable rock-solid foundations; it is a conjectural. This means that knowledge is a human contrivance; it is subject to paradigm shifts and renewals (Zammito, 2004: 146; Philips & Burbules, 2000: 57).

Trochim (2006) posits that one of the most common forms of post-positivism is a philosophy called critical realism. A critical realist believes that there is a reality independent of our thinking about it, that science can study. This is regarded as being in contrast with subjectivists who would hold that there is no external reality. Although positivists are seen to be also realists, the difference is that the post-positivist critical realist recognises that all observation is fallible and has error and that all theory is revisable (O'Leary, 2004) . Because measurement is fallible, the post-positivist emphasises the importance of multiple measures and observations, each of which may possess different types of error, and the need to use triangulation across these sources marred with errors, to try to get better information on what is happening in reality (O'Leary, 2004) . Hence, the use of both quantitative knowledge and qualitative means of data collection in the same study is encouraged. Trochim, (2006) further argues that the post-positivist believes that all observations are theory laden and that scientists are inherently biased by their cultural experiences and worldviews. Post-positivism reflects the relativist idea of incommensurability of different perspectives, but, because perception and observation is fallible, constructions of different paradigms must be imperfect (Trochim, 2006).

This study is located in the post-positivist paradigm as it allows for the combined application of both positivist and interpretivist paradigms as complimentary; hence, it utilises the advantages or strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. It also neutralises the biases and the weaknesses of both approaches. In combination, these approaches enabled the researcher to carry out surveys among the research participants and closely study individuals through face to face interviews for in-depth understanding of the phenomena under study. The use of quantitative survey questionnaires was used to collect data that was buttressed with the qualitative face to face interviews in order to understand the issues as they relate to the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in the secondary school.

### **4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH**

A research design can be quantitative, qualitative or a mixed method approach. Approaches are broad, holistic, methodological guides or roadmaps that are associated with particular research motives or analytical interests (Creswell, 2008). Methods on the other hand, are more specific. They are techniques of data collection and analysis, such as a quantitative standardised instrument or a qualitative theme of text data (Creswell, 2003). Discussed below is the analysis of the three research approaches to a study. The first one is quantitative, the next qualitative and the final is the mixed methods approach.

#### **4.3.1 Quantitative methodology or approach**

Quantitative research methodology or approach employs experimental methods and quantitative measures to test hypothetical generalisations (Ary et al., 2006). Measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables is emphasised. In this design approach, the emphasis is on facts and causes of behaviour (Golafshani, 2003). It is further claimed that in this research approach, information is in the form of numbers that can be quantified and summarised. In this case, the mathematical process is the norm for analysing the numeric data and the final result is expressed in statistical terminologies (Creswell, 2008, Charles, 1995) Although data collection using a quantitative approach is relatively quick and data analysis

less time consuming, results relatively independent of the researcher and it may have higher credibility with people in power (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2004).

Quantitative research is based on numerical data. The information obtained from questionnaires is numerical or can be converted into numerical form and then analysed (Springer, 2010). There are four types of quantitative research, namely; experimental research, where one or more variables are manipulated. Experimental research is characterised by the control that have over independent variables (Creswell, 2008 & Springer, 2010). A second type of quantitative research is causal-comparative research. This type of research is like experimental research, except that the researcher does not manipulate independent variables (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2004). A third type of quantitative approach is a correlational research which explores the relationship between variables that can be negative or positive. In the case of positive correlational research as one variable increases the other one also increases. This approach does not only indicate relationship between variables but also the strength of that relationship (Springer, 2010). The descriptive research is reflected as the fourth type of quantitative approach. This type provides numerical characteristics of phenomena and useful insights into people's attitudes, beliefs intentions and actual behaviours (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007; Springer, 2010). Quantitative research approach is not appropriate as a method to develop creative ideas and it is essentially evaluative, not generative. Due to the nature of the research problem of this study, the quantitative research approach will not suffice.

#### **4.3.2 Qualitative research methodology**

Qualitative research methodology, broadly defined, means any kind of research that produces findings that are not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). It is a kind of approach that produces findings arrived at from real world settings where the phenomenon of interest unfolds naturally (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). It uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomenon in context-specific settings, such as real world setting where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 1990). Qualitative researchers seek illumination, understanding and extrapolation to similar situations (Hoepfl, 1997:47).

This approach is based on methods and assumptions that are non-quantitative. This approach can be described as more or less as phenomenological which indicates that it focuses on subjective experience (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2004). This approach attempts to provide comprehensive descriptions of people's experiences and their perceptions from interacting with other people and the environment (Springer, 2010). According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007), there are different approaches to qualitative research but two will be given here, ethnographic research and case study. Ethnographic research is based on attempts to describe cultural and social groups. Results are presented in narrative as opposed to numerical terms (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2007). Contrary to ethnographies, a case study focuses on individuals or anything that can be treated as a single unit (Merriman, 1998 cited in Springer, 2010).

Qualitative inquiry begins from a different assumption that the subject matter of the social or human sciences differs fundamentally from the subject matter of the physical or natural sciences and therefore, requires a different goal for inquiry and a different set of methods for investigation (Springer, 2010). Therefore, qualitative researchers argue that human behaviour is always bound to the context in which it occurs that social reality cannot be reduced to variables in the same manner as physical reality (Cohen et al., 2000). According to qualitative researchers, what is most important in the social disciplines is to understand and portray the meaning that is constructed by the participants involved in particular social settings or events (Creswell, 2003). Glesne and Peshkin (1992) and Krueger (1994) posit that qualitative inquiry is an intensely personal kind of research, one that freely acknowledges and admits the subjective perceptions and biases of both the participants and the researcher. However, qualitative data collection techniques such as open-ended interviews that provide actual words of the people in the study, offer many different perspectives on the study topics and provide a complex picture of the situation (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Krueger, 1994). Qualitative researchers embrace their involvement and role within the research (Creswell, 2008). Khumwong, 2004) supports the notion of researchers' involvement and immersion into the research by discussing that the real world is subject to change; therefore, a qualitative researcher should be present during the changes to record an event after and before the change occurs.

Qualitative research designs use methods that are distinct in collecting data and emphasise gathering data on naturally occurring phenomena (Springer, 2010). Most of these data are in the form of words rather than numbers, and in general the researcher must search and explore with a variety of methods until a deep understanding is achieved (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006).

Moreover, qualitative research's advantage is that it provides understanding and description of people's personal experiences of the phenomena under study as it does for individual case information. It describes, in rich detail, phenomena as they are situated and embedded in local contexts. Data is collected in naturalistic settings and approaches are responsive to local situations, conditions and stakeholder's needs. Data in the words and categories of participants lead themselves to exploring how and why phenomena occurs (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2004). However, qualitative methodology has a number of disadvantages. Knowledge produced is not able to generalise to other people in other settings as it could be difficult to make quantitative predictions. It generally takes more time to collect data when compared to quantitative research and data analysis is often time consuming. It can be easy for the results to be influenced by researcher's personal biases and idiosyncrasies (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2004).

To increase the validity, strength and interpretative potential of the study, decrease researcher bias and provide multiple perspective, the researcher decided to use methods involving triangulation (mixing quantitative and qualitative approaches) which will limit the implications of using qualitative design. A qualitative design would not give a multidimensional perspective of the phenomenon (Patton, 1990). It would not provide rich, unbiased data that could be interpreted with a comfortable degree of assurance (Breitmayer, Lioness, Knaft, 1993). Using both quantitative and qualitative in combination therefore would provide a better understanding of the research problem and questions than either method by itself (Creswell, 2008). Hence, the study followed a mixed method design, a paradigm whose time has come (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

### **4.3.3 Mixed method research design**

The mixed method research design adopted for this study is associated with the post-positivist paradigm that combines and integrates the survey (quantitative) and

the interviews (qualitative) approaches. Mixed method research design is a procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative research and methods in a single study to understand a research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The two approaches view reality differently. The basic assumption is that the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in combination provides a better understanding of the research problem and questions, than either method by itself (Brewer & Hunter, 1989, cited by Creswell, 2008). Greene and Caracelli (1997 in Creswell, 2008), claim that when one combines quantitative and qualitative data the result is a very powerful mix and a development of a complex picture of social phenomenon. The mixed method research prefers an interactive approach between these approaches.

Subsequently a mixed methods study can be conducted when a single research design is not enough to address the research problem or answer the research questions. Also if the researcher wants to incorporate a qualitative component in an otherwise quantitative study they will conduct mixed methods research (Creswell, 2008). Nevertheless, according to Trochim (2006), the mixed methods design is supported by pragmatic, realist and post-positivist ideals as they advocate for triangulation and the use of multiple measures and observations. Mixed methods design is classified into six primary types of designs: three sequential (explanatory, exploratory and transformative) and three concurrent (triangulation, nested and transformative). Since mixed methods design is generally complex it is important to describe each of the six designs. Following is the brief description of each (Trochim, 2006 & Creswell, 2008).

In sequential explanatory designs, quantitative data are collected and analysed and followed by qualitative data. In this case priority is given to quantitative data and qualitative data merely used to augment quantitative data. Data analysis being connected, integration usually occurs at the interpretation stage. These data are usually used to explain relationships and study findings (Creswell, 2008). With sequential exploratory designs qualitative data are collected and analysed first and followed by quantitative data. Priority in this case is given to qualitative data and integration at the data interpretation stage. These data are useful for exploring relationships and generalising qualitative findings to a specific population (Creswell, 2008). Contrary to the two other designs sequential transformative designs either

form of data may be collected first depending on the preferences of the researcher. Priority may be unequal and may be given to one form of data or the other. These designs may be used for giving voice to alternative perspectives (Springer, 2010).

Similarly, in concurrent triangulation design, quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed at that same time. Priority is given to both forms and data is usually analysed separately, while integration occurs at the interpretation stage. These data are used for confirming, cross-validate and corroborate study findings (Mertens, 2005; Creswell 2008). In concurrent nested designs, quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed simultaneously. Priority is usually given to either quantitative or qualitative approaches (Creswell, 2008). These designs may be used for gaining a broader perspective of the topic at hand. In contrast with the other two concurrent designs in concurrent transformative designs, quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed together. Priority may be unequal and data analysis usually separate although integration will be at the interpretation stage; they are useful for explaining diverse perspectives (Mertens, 2005).

Generally, the purpose of the design is to collect both quantitative and qualitative, merge the data and use the results to understand a research problem. For example, quantitative scores provide strengths to off-set the weaknesses of qualitative documents, while alternatively in-depth qualitative observations offer strength to qualitative data that does not adequately provide detailed information about the context in which individuals provide information (Creswell, 2008). Both qualitative and quantitative studies are designed to understand and explain behaviour and events, their components, antecedents, corollaries and consequences (Creswell, 1994). Therefore, blending elements of one with the other is possible, especially if the approaches have similar axiology (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Qualitative input may help to explain the success of interventions when the numbers fail to answer the question. In other words, methodological triangulation has the potential of exposing unique differences or meaningful information that may have remained undiscovered with the use of only one approach of data collection technique in the study (Ryan, 2006).

With the same understanding, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) posit that when quantitative and qualitative methods are used together in a single study, they

complement each other and allow for more holistic and complete analysis of the research situation. Mixed methods allow the researcher to be able to blend the strengths of one type of method and the weaknesses of the other. For example, qualitative observations can help clarify quantitative statistical relationships and numeric findings (Creswell, 2008). This means that data collection in the mixed methods approach involves gathering both numeric and text information which results in a database which will be representative of both quantitative and qualitative information (Creswell, 2003). Nonetheless, researchers interested in using mixed methods approach should note well that the approach calls for extensive data collection; it is time intensive in terms of analysing both text and numerical data; and the researcher needs to be familiar with both quantitative and qualitative forms of research (Creswell, 2003).

There is a distinct tradition in the literature on social science research methods that advocates the use of multiple methods (Creswell, 2008). This form of research strategy is usually described as one of convergent methodology, multi-method, convergent validation or triangulation (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). These various notions share the conception that qualitative and quantitative methods should be viewed as complementary rather than as rival camps (Denzin, 1978 cited by Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). Within the same paradigm mixing data collection methods is sensible (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Methodological triangulation can also occur by combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study (Cobb, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), although some researchers argue that qualitative and quantitative differ epistemologically and ontologically. The counter argument is that the two approaches are similar in their objectives, scope and nature of inquiry across methods and paradigms (Dzurec & Abraham, 1993).

According to the critics of positivism, objectivity needs to be replaced by subjectivity in the process of scientific inquiry (Dash, 1993); mixed methods research does not replace either of these approaches. It draws from the strengths and minimises the weakness of both in single research studies. Mixed methods also help bridge the schism between quantitative and qualitative research (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). It uses a method and philosophy that attempts to fit together the insights provided by qualitative and quantitative research into a workable solution (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004).

Hence, this study employed a Mixed Method design to collect data. Concurrent design was used to collect both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection in order to best understand the phenomenon of interest (Creswell et al., 2003 cited in Maree, 2007). The mixed method approach, therefore, is relevant to this study because the main objective of the research is to obtain a deeper understanding of how CPTD programmes are implemented in Lady Frere, and also an overall picture of CPTD in the district which according to the previously discussed worldview points, not one method can provide deeper insights (Trochim, 2007).

## **4.4 POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING**

### **4.4.1 Population**

A research population refers to all those cases upon which the study intends to make a scientific conclusion with respect to a certain attribute or social phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2000). Similarly, Creswell (2008: 152) posits that the target population is often the entire the list of elements from which the sample is actually selected, which is termed the sampling frame. A research population is a phrase that sets boundaries on the study units and it refers to a group of elements or cases, whether individuals who possess specific characteristics under study.

This group is also referred to as the target population or universe (Cohen et al., 2000). Population is further defined as a total quantity of things or cases which is the subject of the study or the entire group of individuals to whom the findings of the study apply (Walliman, 2006; Ary et al., 2006). The population in this study consisted of the Head of the Curriculum section in the district, subject advisors (facilitators of CPTD programmes), principals of schools, Heads of Departments (HoDs), cluster leaders and Grade Eleven teachers from fifteen rural secondary schools in the district. Within this targeted population the researcher then selected a sample for the study.

### **4.4.2 Sample**

A sample is a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons that comprise the subject of the study. It can be viewed as a subset of measurements

drawn from a population in which the study is located (Denscombe, 2007; Cohen, et al., 2000; Springer, 2010). The process of selecting a particular sample for particular entities in a study is called sampling (Ormrod & Leedy, 2005). Macmillan and Schumacher (1993: 598) define the word “sample” as comprising a number of individuals selected from a population for study. Sampling is about deciding the place or site and the respondent or person from who the data will be collected (Punch, 2006).

It is important that a sample has to accurately reflect the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn. Another important factor was brought in by Flick (2002) who noted that the issue of sampling is about making a decision on which persons to focus on when a researcher makes an inquiry. The researcher then studies a sample in order to understand the population from which it is drawn. The major reason for sampling is feasibility as it may not be possible to collect data from the population. Ideally, one should select a sample which is free from bias. This is necessary as the type of sample selected greatly affects the reliability of the subsequent generalisations.

#### ***4.4.2.1 Sampling techniques***

A sampling technique is a strategy or a plan that the researcher intends to use to represent the population. There are many types of sampling techniques which include convenience, accidental, snowball, quota sampling, purposive sampling, probability sampling, simple random sampling and cluster sampling. The researcher then chooses the sampling technique that is suitable for the research design.

Since this study is a mixed methods design, the researcher sampled for qualitative and quantitative approaches. Probability sampling procedures are used in quantitative oriented studies where the random probability of every member to be included in the sample is determinable (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). This sampling procedure has four techniques, namely: simple random sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and systemic sampling (Cohen et al., 2000). For the quantitative approach, the study adopted the probability sampling strategy. Simple random sampling is a technique in which each independent member of the population has an equal chance of being selected for participation in the study. This is a technique in which every member has the chance to be selected from the list of the population

(Cohen et al., 2000 & Springer, 2010). For the quantitative approach, the researcher carried out a survey which involved the fifteen rural secondary schools of the Lady Frere District. Fifteen grade eleven teachers, six cluster leaders, three HoDs, three principals and five CPTD facilitators were randomly selected.

In the qualitative phase of this study, the researcher adopted the purposive sampling. In the qualitative case, purposive sampling is a technique in which the researcher samples whatever s/he believes to be representative of a given population. It is based on the researcher's informal ideas about representativeness (Springer, 2010). Purposive sampling techniques are primarily used in qualitative studies (Maxwell, 1997 in Teddies and Yu, 2007) as he further defines purposive sampling as sampling in which particular settings, persons or events are deliberately selected. Cohen et al., (2000: 103) explain that in purposive sampling, researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality. In this way they build up a sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs. As the name suggests, the sample has been chosen for a specific purpose. A purposive sampling technique involves selecting subjects because of the characteristics they possess (Patton, 1990) and for the purpose the researcher wants the informants to serve (Bernard & Ryan, 2010).

In this case, the researcher searches for information-rich key informants, groups, places or events to study. In other words, these samples are chosen because they are likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena under study (McMillan and Schumacher, 2001: 140). For the qualitative data, the researcher purposively sampled six teachers, three cluster leaders, three HoDs, three principals, three facilitators and the Head of the Curriculum Section.

The selection was justified by the fact that according to the district subject advisors all rural secondary school teachers were involved in CPTD through district facilitation (W. Nojekwa, personal communication, July 24, 2008). The division of secondary schools into clusters meant that all the rural secondary schools, through sampling, were going to be involved in the research as cluster leaders knew all the teachers of their various clusters. Some of the rural schools were very inaccessible. Purposive sampling helped the researcher to target schools that could be easily reached.

## **4.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES**

The researcher was introduced to the various HODs in the area from which the study was going to be conducted. A letter of introduction provided by the University of Fort Hare was taken to the Head of the Curriculum Section in the District Office for the researcher to be granted permission to conduct the study in the Lady Frere secondary schools. The same introductory letter was taken to the principals of the fifteen rural secondary schools of Lady Frere as the questionnaires were to be administered to Grade Eleven teachers of each school.

All questionnaires had a covering letter which introduced the researcher and the purpose of the study. Issues of confidentiality and anonymity were also dealt with as the letter informed the participants that they had the right to refuse to answer and to discontinue participation at any time during the process. As the questionnaires were self delivered to the principals, permission was verbally granted. Appointments to conduct interviews and class observations were made with the principals.

## **4.6 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS**

Kumar (1999) posits that there are two major approaches to gathering information about a situation, person, problem or phenomenon. Sometimes, information required is already available and accessible; this is known as secondary data. However, there are cases where information needs to be gathered and is known as primary data. The study adopted the mixed methods approach which allowed the researcher to use interviews, questionnaire, observations and document analysis as data collection instruments which are discussed below.

### **4.6.1 Interviews**

Interviews are most widely used methods of obtaining qualitative data on subjects' opinions, beliefs and feelings about the situation in their own words (Cohen et al., 2000) They provide information that cannot be obtained through observation but they can be used to verify the observation. The qualitative interview is typically more probing and open-ended and less structured than the interviews used in quantitative research but varies considerably in the way it is conducted (Cohen et al., 2000). An interview is not planned ahead of time; the researcher asks questions as the

opportunity arises and then listens closely and uses the subjects' responses to decide on the next question (Cohen et al., 2000: 268).

Interviews have several advantages over printed questionnaires. Face-to-face interviews enable researchers to be able to gather diverse information from respondents. Interviews also give the researcher leeway to rephrase questions that participants do not understand and also allow participants to elaborate their ideas to length (Trochim, 2006).

Maree (2007) posits that all qualitative interview formats share one characteristic that the questions are open-ended and designed to reveal what is important to understand about the phenomenon under study. It is further explained that these interview formats are categorised into three groups, which are, open-ended interview, semi structured interview and structured interview. In open-ended interviews, the focus is on the participant's perceptions of an event or phenomenon being studied. To avoid bias in the data being collected, it is advisable to conduct the interviews with more participants than just one informant (Ary et al., 2006).

Telephone interviewing is another important method of data collection and is common practice in survey research. Creswell, (2008) suggests several advantages of telephone interviewing. Firstly, it is sometimes cheaper than face-to-face interviewing and safer to conduct than having to visit dangerous neighbourhoods. It becomes an added advantage to the researchers if they had to select participants from a much more dispersed population than if they had to travel to meet the interviewees; whereas, in the case of telephone interview they can talk to them from where they are. The response rate is higher with rapid responses than in the case of ordinary questionnaires. Telephone interviews are safer to conduct; hence, they are used to collect sensitive data because possible feelings associated with face-to-face questions about awkward, embarrassing or difficult matters is absent.

It is further indicated that in telephone interviewing, participants may not disclose information because of uncertainty about actual confidentiality and may withhold or distort important information. However, issues that apply with 'standard' forms of interviewing apply equally well to telephone interviewing (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). The most efficient way of collecting interview data is to use an audio-tape

recorder because it is much less than taking notes and it also provides a verbatim record of the responses (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). Qualitative interviews might involve one time interviews with a subject or subjects, group interviews or focus groups, which typically consist of six to twelve participants. The group should be small enough that everyone can take part in the discussion, but large enough to provide diversity in perspective (Cohen et al., 2000).

Ordinary interviews tend to be advantageous as they supply large volumes of in-depth data quickly. They assist the researcher in a way as they provide insight on participants' perspectives, the meaning of events for the people involved, information about the site and information about unanticipated issues. Therefore, it becomes easy for the researcher to immediately follow-up and clarifies participants' responses (Ary et al., 2006). However, interviews have some disadvantages as it may be possible that interviewees are not willing to share information or may even offer false information. Interviews require a great deal of time to conduct and to later transcribe the audio-tapes or other notes which may lead to the study taking longer than it could have been if another method of collecting data was used. Interviewers need skill and practice to carry out successful interviews; they must be tactful, well prepared and listen well, which may be difficult for novice researchers.

In semi-structured interviews, the participant is required to answer a set of predetermined questions that define the line of inquiry. It allows room for probing and clarification of answers (Creswell, 2008). In this type of interview, the researcher needs to be very attentive to the responses given by the interviewee so as to identify new emerging lines of inquiry that are directly related to the phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2003). In structured interviews, the questions are detailed and developed in advance just like in survey research (Maree, 2007). There is not much probing in structured interviews since the questions are overly structured. To ensure consistency, this kind of interviews are used frequently in case studies or when dealing with large sample groups (Creswell, 2008).

In this study, used semi-structured interviews were used to collect data that gave useful insights into the implementation of CPTD programmes in Lady Frere rural secondary schools. Semi-structured interviews were used to solicit information from facilitators in terms of time allocated to CPTD programmes, the appropriateness of

programmes and the support system available. They were also used to elicit from principals information on the monitoring and supervision of on-site and off-site courses. Semi-structured interviews were preferred to other forms of interviews in this study because they offer a platform for conversation with the intention that the researcher explores with the participant their own views, ideas, beliefs and attitudes concerning implementation of CPTD programmes; in so doing, the researcher viewed the world (implementation process of CPTD programmes) through the eyes of the participants (Maree, 2007). In trying to solve the limitations of not getting comprehensive answers to the questions, the researcher probed more into the responses and in the process, making sure that the questioning techniques guided the interviewee to provide comprehensive answers.

#### **4.6.2 Questionnaires**

Questionnaires are a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information providing structured, often numerical data. Questionnaires can be used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data from large samples of people in survey designs (Creswell, 2008). A questionnaire is administered without the presence of the researcher and it is comparatively easier to analyse (Wilson & McLean, 1994); as a result, it can be administered in a number of different ways as discussed below.

The first way is group administration, where the researcher waits while a whole group of participants completes questionnaires (Cohen, et al., 2000). The advantage of group administration is that many participants will complete the questionnaire within a short space of time as well as that ability to reach participants across long distances; also, the researcher can clarify issues which are ambiguous to the participants. However, the disadvantage of this method is that participants may provide different responses if the questionnaires are managed by different administrators (Cohen et al., 2000). Furthermore, the primary researcher has limited control over what happens in the field. The second way is the postal survey in which questionnaires are mailed to respondents who have to read instructions and answer the questions and this has an advantage of being relatively cheap and easy to conduct (Creswell, 2003) The participants fill in the questionnaire in a more relaxed atmosphere as there is no interviewer to influence their responses and they can respond accurately to the questions and also clarify their answers (Maree, 2007).

The third method is telephone surveys which are a systematic collection of data from a sample using standard questionnaires (Creswell, 2008). Telephone surveys enable data to be collected in a complete and accurate format at the time of the interview. The respondents are called by interviewers who ask the questions and record the answers. With phone calls, the survey can be relatively quick and the response rate usually high; however, the cost is relatively high and the questionnaire has to be short (Creswell, 2008). Interviewer bias is very high in telephone surveys and that may influence responses during the telephone conversation (Maree, 2007).

The fourth technique is face-to-face survey, where the well trained interviewers visit the participants, ask questions and record the answers. This method has a highest response rate and like the group administration, the interviewer can clarify issues that participants may find to be vague. Nevertheless, face-to-face interviews are also limited because they are costly; the interviewers have to be well trained; and, the interview bias is a great risk (Maree, 2007).

Quantitative data in this study was collected through a questionnaire with both open-ended and closed questions so that contextual detail about the study was captured. The closed-ended questions were relatively easier and faster to design and complete while the open-ended ones were longer as they sought the participant's perceptions. Participants usually prefer to choose from predetermined responses than to write their own answers. Similar questions were at times asked twice to promote triangulation.

The questionnaire was designed to include the researcher's details such as name, address and intent. It also gave simple instruction on how to complete the questions. The researcher adopted the stance from Leedy and Ormrod (2005) which advises that the researcher should never forget that s/he is asking the participants for their time and their responses. According to Cohen et al. (2000), researchers need to be conscious of the fact that questionnaire participants are not passive data providers for researchers; and, they are subjects but not objects of research. Therefore they should not be coerced into completing a questionnaire but be strongly encouraged. The decision whether to become involved and when to withdraw from the research is

entirely theirs. The involvement of the participants in the research should be guided by the accepted ethical issues.

For this study, the self administered questionnaires were used. The questionnaires had a wide and inclusive comprehensive coverage of the experiences and perceptions of facilitators, principals, HoDs, cluster leaders and teachers in the implementation of CPTD in the secondary schools. The researcher was in possession of a letter authorising her to carry out research and to negotiate with the gatekeepers to enter schools. The letter explained the purpose of the study, expressed its importance and assured the respondents of confidentiality, anonymity and thanked the respondents in advance. This is in line with the advice from Cohen, et al. (2000) who posits that it is good to express gratitude to the respondents in advance for their cooperation thus encouraging and motivating their participation.

The use of questionnaires benefited this study in that the researcher was able to collect a large quantity of data over a relatively short period of time from a large geographically dispersed population as compared to other methods (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1989). Sharing the same view on the benefits of this method is Patton, 1990) who state that the questionnaire provides little personal involvement; therefore less danger of researcher influence. The use of open- ended questionnaires enabled the researcher to gain access to data which was sometimes buried deep in the minds and attitudes, feelings and reactions of respondents. In order to ensure that all the questionnaires were returned, the researcher personally delivered them and entrusted the principals to collect them so that the researcher could collect them from the school office.

The disadvantage of questionnaires is that they do not provide an opportunity for probing beyond the given answer to clarify ambiguity and to assess the non-verbal behaviour of respondents (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1989). Due to their standardised nature, survey questionnaires do not have the opportunity to explore the topic in depth and may miss the contextual detail. However, the researcher was able to overcome the shortcomings of the questionnaires by utilising face-to-face interviews.

### 4.6.3 Observations

Observational data is perceived as being lucrative because it enables the researcher the opportunity to gather 'live' data from 'live' situations. In this case, the researcher is given the opportunity to look at what is taking place *in situ* rather than at second hand (Patton, 1990: 203-5). Observation is a systemic method of data collection that relies on a researcher's ability to gather data through watching the behaviour of a person or a group of people or an event in a certain place for a specified length of time (Creswell, 2008).

The researcher develops an observation guide that can direct him/her during this stage of data collection. Patton (1990: 202) suggests that observational data should enable the researcher to enter and understand the situation that is being described. Unlike other forms like tests and questionnaires, observation enables the researcher to gather data on physical setting, human setting, and interactional setting and programme setting (Mertens, 2005). Observation moves beyond perception-based data and access personal knowledge because observed incidents are less predictable and there is certain freshness to this form of data collection that is often denied in other forms (Cohen et al., 2000).

In addition to the observation and writing down details in field notes, a powerful tape recording device was used for capturing responses from participants (Erickson, 1992). Morrison (1993 in Cohen et al., 2000), attests to the competency of tape recording that it can overcome the partiality of the observer's view of a single event and can overcome the tendency towards recording only the frequently occurring events. Collecting data through tape recording has the capacity for completeness of analysis and comprehensiveness of material, reducing both the dependence on prior interpretations by the researcher and the possibility of only recording the events which occur frequently. Observation, however, needs to be stopped whenever theoretical saturation has been reached. Furthermore, the greater the number of observations, the greater the reliability of the data might be, enabling emerging categories to be verified (Cohen et al., 2000). There are three different kinds of observation such as complete observer, structured observation, critical observation, naturalistic observation and participant observation.

#### **4.6.3.1 Structured observation**

Structured observation is very systematic and it assists the researcher to get numerical data from the observation (Cohen et al., 2000). Comparisons between settings and situation, frequencies, pattern and trends are facilitated in structured observation. In this type of observation, the researcher adopts an inactive role where s/he does not interfere but keeps a record of the factors being studied. Furthermore, structured observation ignores significance of contexts, thereby overlooking the fact that behaviours may be context specific. The researcher needs to prepare a structured observation schedule where they tick the appropriate responses. Cohen et al. (2000) emphasise the need to pilot the structured observation schedule because categories must be mutually exclusive and comprehensive. The weakness of structured observation is that schedules take time to prepare and their advantage is that analysis is speedy.

#### **4.6.3.2 Critical incidents**

Critical incidents are observed when participants may demonstrate particular behaviour once, but it is important that it cannot be ruled out because it occurred once (Cohen et al., 2000). Such observable events are very critical in that they may be non-routine but very revealing. They offer the researcher an insight that would not be available by routine observation. Similarly Wragg (1994: 64 in Cohen et al., (2000: 310) explains that these are events that appear to the observer to have more interest than other ones, therefore, warrant greater detail and recording than other events; they have an important insight to offer. Although critical events are non-routine and rarely occur, they are important to the researcher.

#### **4.6.3.3 Naturalistic observation**

It is a more global type of observation where the observer uses senses to gather bits of data than the systematic, structured observation used in quantitative research (Maree, 2007). According to Maree (2007), observation is a systematic process of recording the behavioural patterns of participation, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them. Gorman and Clayton (2005) allude to the same when they define observation studies as those that involve the systematic recording of observable phenomena or behaviour in a natural setting. The value of observation is that it permits researchers to study people in their native environment in order to understand 'things' from their perspective (Baker, 2006). Observation is a complex research method because it often requires the researcher

to play a number of roles and to use a number of techniques including their senses to collect data. Moreover in observation, the researcher must always remember his/her role as the researcher and remain detached enough to collect and analyse data relevant to the problem under investigation (Baker, 2006).

#### **4.6.3.4 Participant observer**

Observation in qualitative studies typically involves the observer's active involvement in the setting studied; it is usually called "participant observation" to distinguish it from passive or non-interactive observation. Participant observation allows the observer to ask questions for clarification of what is taking place and to engage in informal discussion with system users, as well as to record ongoing activities and descriptions of the setting. It produces detailed descriptive accounts of what transpired (including verbal interaction), as well as eliciting the system users' own explanations, evaluations, and perspectives in the immediate context of use, rather than retrospectively.

#### **4.6.3.5 Complete observer**

In a complete observer approach, the researcher is a non-participant looking at the situation from a distance. The researcher is present on the scene but does not participate or interact with insiders to any great extent (Gorman & Clayton, 2005). The researcher's role is to listen and observe (Maree, 2007), especially that, the complete observer is typically hidden from the group (Ary et al., 2006: 475). The researcher is present on the scene but does not participate or interact with insiders to any great extent (Cohen et al., 2000)). One advantage of being a complete observer is that the researcher can remain completely detached from the group. Detachment, however, is also a major disadvantage because it could prevent the researcher from hearing the entire conversation or grasping the full significance of an information exchange. They cannot ask insiders any questions to qualify what they have said, or to answer other questions their observations of them have brought to mind (Baker, 2006).

This study adopted the complete observer approach to data collection. With this approach, the researcher was enabled to gain a deeper insight and understanding of the phenomenon being observed in this case the implementation of CPTD programmes for rural secondary school teachers in the Lady Frere District. This enabled the researcher to have information and first-hand experience on how CPTD

programmes were conducted in terms of the methods that are used to impart the knowledge and skills to the teachers, the training materials that are given to teacher, the expertise of the CPTD facilitators, the logistical arrangements of the workshops; and any other issues that were of interest to the researcher.

In all the workshops, the researcher observed both the facilitators and the participants (teachers). The researcher observed facilitators to assess whether they were easily understood and could connect with the participants or whether the facilitators were able to facilitate group discussions. It was also necessary for the researcher to observe how the facilitators were able to keep the groups interested and involved in tasks. The facilitators' capacity to modify activities in the training programmes so that they meet the needs of the participants was also of interest to the researcher. The researcher was also determined to discover if the participants were able to use the supplementary material, use practical examples and sharing personal experiences to illustrate their points. In the case of the participants (teachers), the researcher's intention was to find out whether they were active participants in the activities of the course and if they demonstrated any enthusiasm in the deliberations of the workshop. Above all that, the researcher investigated the adequacy of time spent on the sessions.

#### **4.6.4 Document analysis**

Document analysis is a data collection method applied to written or visual materials for the purpose of identifying specified characteristics of the material life (Ary et al., 2006). In document analysis, the researcher focuses on all types of written communications that may shed light on the phenomenon being investigated. This includes published and unpublished documents, educational policies and reports, letters, reports, news papers, minutes of meetings, or any other document that is connected to the investigation (Mertens, 2005). As part of document analysis, content can also be analysed in the form of text books, speeches, television and programmes.

In this study the researcher analysed five documents such as the Government Gazette No 29832, Vol. 502; CASME Annual Report 2007; UNESCO 2003 Final Report on Building Capacity of Teachers/Facilitators in Technology - Pedagogy Integration for improved teaching and learning; DoE and SACE document on the

design of CPTD and The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa.

The advantages of document analysis are that it is unobtrusive and the researcher does not have to enlist the cooperation of subjects or get permission to do the study; also, document analyses are easily replicated (Mertens, 2005). The researcher paid special attention to such issues as the history of the document, its completeness and the original purpose of the document. This was because even public records would have had built-in biases that needed examination and personal documents would have been subject to deception or distortion.

However, the researcher has to be cautious of the authenticity and accuracy of the records before using them (Ary et al., 2005). Nevertheless, documents reveal what people do or did and what they value. Another limitation was that documents were generally not produced for research purposes and would, therefore, be incomplete or unrepresentative. Despite limitations, documents are a substantial source of data. They can provide good descriptive information, are stable sources of data and can help ground the study in its context (Ary et al., 2006).

The researcher analysed CPTD implementation reports from the head of the curriculum section, training material and reports the progress of CPTD programme facilitated in the Lady Frere District. From the Policy documents and other documents, the researcher intended to investigate which policies and provisions were in place pertaining to the continuous professional teacher development. These documents assisted the researcher to find out what was intended and what was happening so as to come up with strategies to fill the identified gaps in the implementation of CPTD programmes.

## **4.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

### **4.7.1 Validity**

The traditional criteria for validity in quantitative studies is associated with the positivist tradition; and, to an extent, positivism has been defined by a systematic theory of validity. Validity is an important key to effective research; hence, it is a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell, 2008).

According to Springer (2010) and Creswell, (2008), validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to assess. For example, in a qualitative study, validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved and the participants approached (Ary et al., 2006; Mertens, 2005). The extent to which the researcher remained objective as well the adequate selection of participants contribute to the validity of the qualitative study (Cohen et al., 2000). In qualitative research, one way of validating interview measures is to compare the interview measure with another measure that has already been shown to be valid (convergent validity) (Ary et al., 2006).

To ensure validity, the researcher sampled the participants who responded to the questionnaire and ensured that the sample was appropriate for statistical treatment of data. The researcher ensured that as a research instrument, the questionnaire comprehensively addressed all the research questions and objectives as the domains or items it sought to cover. In qualitative research validity includes the degree to which the interpretations and concepts used have mutual meaning for both the participant and the researcher. Guba & Lincoln (1985 in Maree, 2007) argue that there is no validity without reliability, hence a demonstration that validity is sufficient to establish reliability.

#### ***4.7.1.1 Member checking***

According to Maxwell (1996), member checking is the most effective way of eliminating the possibility of misrepresentation and misinterpretation of the “voice.” Similarly, Lincoln and Guba (1985: 314) pronounced member checking as “the most critical technique for establishing credibility”. It is important that the researcher ensures credibility and reliability of the data collected and this can be done through member checking or feedback from participants. Feedback, or member checking, involves systematically gathering feedback about one’s conclusions from participants in the setting studied and can be done continuously both formally and informally (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). In member checking, the participants are afforded the opportunity to play a major role assessing the credibility of the account (Stake, 1995). The use of a tape recorder enhanced credibility and reliability of the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Through member checking, the researcher was able to identify any researcher biases (Maxwell, 1996). The researcher played back

the recorded responses to ensure accuracy. It also gave the researcher the opportunity to collect more information to enrich the study.

## **4.7.2 Reliability**

Reliability relates to the data collection techniques and the concern that they should be consistent and not alter the findings. Ary et al., (2006) define reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. Essentially, reliability entails that if the research is conducted in similar conditions there can be a duplication of results. Other scholars such as Creswell (2007) and Denscombe (2002) also view reliability as the extent to which a research instrument is repeatable and consistent and ensures a replica of results that are not affected by defective instruments.

In accordance with Creswell, (2007), consistency with which questionnaire items are answered or individual's scores remain relatively the same, can be determined through the test-retest method at two different times. The researcher can ensure retest reliability of the analysis by maintaining meticulous records of interviews and observations and, documenting the process in detail and maintain stability. If careful consideration is put on a stable measure, then the results should be similar. A high degree of stability specifies a high degree of reliability, which in turn leads to the results that are repeatable.

### **4.7.2.1 Triangulation**

Triangulation is the cross-checking of inferences by using multiple methods, sources, or forms of data for drawing conclusions (Maxwell, 1996) In qualitative research, data is collected from a range of individuals and settings. The several sources and methods amplify the robustness of results. By using more than one source of data and more than one method of data collection the researcher ensures that the findings are strengthened by cross-validating them. This process generally is known as "triangulation". When data of different kinds and sources converge and are found congruent, the results have greater credibility than when they are based on only one method or source (Yin, 2009). Through triangulating data from different sources, the researcher was able to verify different perspectives and corroborate the findings.

This process enabled the researcher to ensure validity of the data and give confidence that the meaning of the data has consistency across methods.

## **4.8 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS**

Data analysis in qualitative research is often conducted concurrently or simultaneously with data collection through an interactive, recursive and dynamic process (Ary, et al. 2006: 490). In educational research, data is a formidable task that is analysed according to the different research approaches and researchers must find their own idiosyncratic path to the meaning of the data (Maree, 2007).

In agreement are McMillan and Schumacher (2001) who indicate that data analysis in qualitative research is primarily an inductive process of organising data into categories or trends and identifying patterns (relationships) among the categories. Most categories and trends emerge from data depending on the analytic styles among researchers that vary from structured to more emergent and intuitive ones. All qualitative research involves attempts to comprehend the phenomenon under study, synthesise information and explain relationships, theorise about how and why the relationships appear as they do and reconnect the new knowledge with what is already known. Qualitative data analysis is partly mechanical but mostly interpretive. In this study, quantitative data which was collected through questionnaires was presented in tables that revealed patterns and meaning.

Data collected was analysed through frequencies and percentages and summarised by means of tables of frequency distributions where percentages were allocated to frequencies response types under different categories (Creswell, 2007; Maree, 2007). The patterns, relationships and trends of continuing professional development programmes emerged from the frequency distribution tables enabled the researcher to compare groups and variables.

Familiarisation and organisation of information in qualitative data analysis could take several forms such as getting sense of the whole by reading all of the transcriptions carefully and jotting down in the margins some ideas as they come to mind (Creswell, 2008). After gathering the ideas, coding the document may begin. Coding and recording is to make sense out of the text segments and label the

segments with codes, collapse the codes into broad themes that are later narrowed into few themes. In the process, data that does not specifically provide evidence for the themes gets disregarded. Interpretation in qualitative research means that the researcher forms larger meaning about the phenomenon based on personal views. In summary, researchers provide readers with an overview of the findings.

The qualitative data from the interviews and observation were collected in the form of hand written notes and tape recording where possible. For hand-written notes, field editing involved completing and rewriting hand-written notes immediately after returning from the field so that the notes make sense. Tape recorded data was also field edited by listening to the tapes on the same day ensuring that the voices were clear and audible and immediately contacted the participant for clarification if the response was not audible and clear. During the central editing phase, the tape-recorded data were first transcribed and then stored to a hard copy and then to an electronic copy.

The researcher organised the qualitative data on the basis of themes categories, general ideas, concepts or similar features that related to the main research question. In analysing qualitative data, the researcher sought to summarise what had been seen and heard in terms of common word, phrases, themes or patterns that would aid the understanding and interpretation of emerging information (Maree, 2007). Eventually, the researcher linked concepts to each other in terms of sequence or as sets of similar categories that would interweave into theoretical statement.

#### **4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

There are several ethical issues that must be considered when designing research that will utilise human subjects, like respecting their rights, dignity, privacy and sensitivities (Cohen et al., 2000). Silverman (2000: 201) reminds researchers that they should always bear in mind that while they are conducting research, they are in actual fact entering the private spaces of their participants. Since most educational research deal with human beings, it is necessary for researchers to understand the ethical and legal responsibilities of conducting research. Ethics of research are generally considered to deal with beliefs about what is wrong or right, proper or improper, good or bad (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). Practical ethics of research

is a complex matter that involves much more than merely following a set of static guidelines. Creswell (2003) stresses that; the researcher has an obligation to respect the rights, needs, values and desires of informants.

In the study, the researcher observed the ethical considerations as guided by Rule 5 as stated in the University Of Fort Hare Faculty Of Education Handbook (2008) and information from various authors such as Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell, 2003; Ary et al., 2006 and Creswell, 2008. Before participating in research, the researcher informed the individuals about the purpose and the aims of the study. Being aware of the fact that when doing research at school, instructional time is disrupted and also knowing that they had to respect the research site (Creswell, 2008), the researcher asked for permission from the relevant authority.

For privacy and participation, confidentiality and anonymity, the researcher needed to inform participants that they had the right to withdraw from the research at any time. Confidentiality in actual sense is protecting the privacy of participants by keeping the data sources as confidential as possible while anonymity deals with disguising the anonymity of the participants. It was the researcher's obligation to ensure that participants were protected from any physical and mental discomfort, harm and danger. In observation of this rule the researcher did not reveal the identities of the participants and used code names instead of real names. This is because Creswell (2008) confirms the fact that it is possible for the researcher to harm the participants not only by disclosing information about individuals, but also by talking about them as a group or in a publication could be potentially disadvantageous to them.

The researcher also complied with some principles that aim at protecting the dignity and privacy of every individual who, in the course of the research, would be requested to provide personal valuable information about themselves. This was made easy by the fact that no individuals became subjects of the research unless they had given consent that they agreed to participate, without being subjected to any kind of pressure applied to encourage individuals to become subjects of the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). Before being subjected to interviews, the participants were individually reassured that they could refuse to participate and could withdraw any time. The researcher felt that it was as well necessary for them

to know that when they provide information, their anonymity was protected and guaranteed as the researcher did not use their actual names but identified them by using symbols (Creswell, 2008).

Moreover, all the questionnaires had an introductory letter written to individual participants assuring them about ethical considerations that have been explained above. In the case of interviews and observation, before any interview, the researcher read the introductory letter from the University of Fort Hare. The researcher held a brief consultation with each participant to be interviewed, explaining to them the purpose of the study, reasons and benefits of their participation and right to participate or not. Then the participants were given an opportunity to indicate their willingness to participate in the study as they have a right to participate voluntarily and the right to withdraw at any time (Creswell, 2003).

The researcher experienced a great deal of cooperation with participants as all of them agreed to be tape-recorded in the oral interviews. In line with the right to privacy and participation, the researcher negotiated with the Head of Curriculum in the Lady Frere District who gave her a letter of introduction explaining the research project and that the principals should allow the researcher to carry on with the project in the sample schools. This is emphasised by Creswell (2003) that researchers should respect research sites so that the sites are left undisturbed after the research study.

Participants may expect and have a right to anonymity, but it can be problematic in qualitative research (Creswell, 2008). As a result, although the researcher knew the names of most of the participants, she had to promise anonymity and confidentiality and had to adhere to the promise by all means possible. The researcher also took into consideration the issue of reciprocity (Ary et al., 2006). The researcher is indebted to the willing research participants. In some cases, qualitative researchers assume that they need to give participants something in return for their time, effort and cooperation. It is advisable that researchers should fit reciprocity within the constraints of research and personal ethics and within the constraints of maintaining one's role as a researcher (Ary et al., 2006). Fortunately, the fact that the researcher knew most of the participants put her at ease. Moreover the assurance of how the

researcher would adhere to confidentiality and anonymity issues and the role of the researcher were easily understood and accepted.

#### **4.10 SUMMARY**

This chapter outlined and addressed the rationale for mixed method research methodology by discussing research paradigms, research approach, research design, population, sample and sampling. The mixed method design adopted in the study was used to collect a variety of responses from the participants. Questionnaires, interviews, observation and document analysis used in the mixed method assisted the researcher in getting ideas and information on the implementation of CPTD programmes in the Lady Frere District, Eastern Cape. Also, data collection procedures and data collection instruments were discussed including validity and reliability of the approaches. Processing of data and data analysis was explained at length and research ethics of collecting data were discussed.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, data is presented, analysed and interpreted. Data collection was done through four sources of data collection methods, such as questionnaires, face to face interviews, observations and document analysis. Quantitative data collected through self-administered questionnaires are presented through frequency tables. Qualitative data collected through interviews, observations and documents are presented according to different themes.

Quantitative and qualitative data was collected from Principals, HoDs, Teachers, Cluster Teachers and Facilitators.

The respondents are identified as follows:

CES	Head of Curriculum Section
FSAC1	Subject Advisor Cluster 1
FSAC2	Subject Advisor Cluster 2
FSAC3	Subject Advisor Cluster 3
PS1	Principal of School 1
PS2	Principal of School 2
PS3	Principal of School 3
HoD1	Head of Department 1
HoD2	Head of Department 2
HoD3	Head of Department 3
CL1	Cluster Leader 1
CL2	Cluster Leader 2
CL3	Cluster Leader 3
ST1 to ST6	School Teachers 1 to 6

Analysis of data in concurrent mixed methods design is done simultaneously from data collection, presentation and analysis in an effort to understand phenomenon

under study. It also involves reducing and organising the data, synthesising, searching for significant patterns and discovering what is important. This chapter presents biographical information of the respondents followed by information gathered on the implementation of CPTD programmes, namely:

- (i) Time allocated to CPTD programmes;
- (ii) Professional teacher development models used to deliver CPTD programmes;
- (iii) Capacity of Facilitators of CPTD programmes;
- (iv) Classroom practice following implementation of CPTD programmes; and Support provided after attending CPTD programme sessions.

## **5.2 BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS**

The following section presents the biographical information of all the respondents showing their distribution by gender, age, qualifications, experience and post of responsibility. The biographical data of the respondents portrays a comprehensive picture of the calibre and the ability of respondents to contribute vital information on this study. It also helped to facilitate in the provision of vital information on the quality of personnel in the schools. It also helps one to understand some relatable issues that may have a bearing on the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in the secondary school.

**Table 4.1: Biographic data of the respondents**

Variables	Description of variables	Principals n=3	HoDs n=3	Teachers n=15	Cluster Teachers n=5
		%	%	%	%
Gender	Male	100	0	86.6	20
	Female	0	100	13.4	80
Age	21-30yrs	0	0	6.7	20
	31-40 yrs	0	33.3	13.3	40
	41-50 yrs	0	0	33.3	20
	51-60 yrs	100	66.7	40	20
	61 + yrs	0	0	6.7	0
Academic qualifications	Metric only	0	33.3	6.7	20
	Academic Diploma	0	33.3	46.7	40
	BA	0	33.3	13.3	20
	Honours	33.3	0	33.3	20
	MA	66.7	0	0	0
Professional qualifications	Primary Teacher's Diploma	33.3	33.3	6.7	20
	FET- College Diploma	0	33.3	33.3	40
	Bachelor of Education	66.7	33.3	26.7	40
	No Prof qualification	0	0	33.3	0
Experience	1-5 yrs	0	0	14.3	0
	6-15 yrs	33.3	33.3	21.4	40
	16-25 yrs	33.3	33.3	50	40
	26-35 yrs	33.3	33.3	14.3	20

Table 4.1 shows that all respondent principals were males and all respondent HoDs were females. It also indicates that 13 (86.6%) of respondent teachers were male and 2 (13.4%) were females. It also reveals that 1 (20%) of the cluster teachers was male while the majority 4 (80%) were females. The choice of respondents in this study was not influenced by gender but by their richness in data that would provide answers to the research questions.

In terms of age, data indicates that all the respondent principals were in the age range of 51-60 years while the majority 2 (66.7%) of HoDs is in the same age range as the principals; and 1 (33.3%) of them was in the age range 31-40 years. Regarding teacher respondents, it emerged that 1 (6.7%) was in the age range 21-

30 years, 2 (13.3%) were in the age range 31-40 years and 5 (33.3%) were in the age range 41-50 years. Data further shows that the majority which is 6 (40%) of them were in the age range of 51-60 years while 1 (6.7%) was in the age range of 61+ years. Information gathered also shows that the majority of cluster teachers which was 2 (40%) were in the age range of 31-40, 1 (20%) was in the age range of 21-30 years, 1 (20%) was in the age range of 41-50 years, and another 1 (20%) was in the age range of 51-60 years. Information deduced from the data is that schools are managed by fairly mature people. Although maturity does not necessarily mean efficiency, it is generally believed that people respect maturity in leadership. Similarly, some of the sampled schools in the study had mature HoDs and teachers.

Recent studies acknowledge that teaching is an intellectually rigorous activity. This understanding is underpinned by a philosophy which emphasises the need for sound subject knowledge, constant reflection and pedagogy (Blake & Landsdell, 2010). Hence, the researcher considered it necessary to investigate the academic qualifications of the participants. Table 4.1 illustrates that the majority of principals, 2 (66.7%) have Masters degree academic qualifications while 1 (33.3%) of them hold Honours degrees. Data indicates that the principals are fairly educated for the positions they hold.

However, the HoDs who are also in the leadership of the schools portray a different picture. It emerged that 1 (33.3%) of HoDs have Matric qualifications, 1 (33.3%) holds academic diplomas while 1 (33.3%) holds BA qualifications. It would appear that the HoDs in the sampled schools were in the lower level of the educational apex. Data shows that 1 (6.7%) teachers only have Matric qualifications while the majority 7 (46.7%) have academic diplomas. It is also indicated in the data that 2 (13.3%) teachers hold a BA certificate while 5 (33.3%) of them hold Honours qualifications. Data shows a similar trend for the cluster teachers where 1 (20%) hold Matric certificates while the majority 2 (40%) have academic diplomas; 1 (20%) have BA certificates and another 1 (20%) have Honours degrees. Information emerging from this data shows that teachers are not adequately educated; thus they would benefit from the CPTD programmes.

The respondents' professional qualifications were considered crucial since the study endeavoured to assess the implementation of continuing professional development

programmes. Data in Table 4.1 indicates that 1 (33.3%) of respondent principals hold a Primary Teacher's Certificate while the majority 2 (66.7%) holds a Bachelor of Education degree. The table also illustrates that 1 (33.3%) of respondent HoDs hold a Primary Teacher's Certificate, 1 (33.3%) hold an FET College Diploma, and 1 (33.3%) hold a Bachelor of Education degree. Table 4.1 also shows that 1 (6.7%) of teacher respondents hold a Primary Teacher's Diploma, 5 (33.3%) hold and FET College Diploma while 4 (26.7%) hold a Bachelor of Education degree and 5 (33.3%) have no professional qualification. Data also shows that 1 (20%) cluster teacher holds a Primary Teacher's Certificate whereas 2 (40%) hold an FET College Certificate and the other 2 (40%) hold a Bachelor of Education degree.

The above information on professional qualifications shows that most respondent secondary school teachers were insufficiently trained. The lack of professional teacher qualifications leads to inadequacy in subject content. This was also confirmed by the district official CES who commented:

*Poorly qualified as they are professionally and academically, teachers would register in programmes that are not in line with their teaching subjects and have nothing to do with classroom practice. For instance they would go for management studies and yet they are not in management. This is a general problem in all the schools in the district.*

A similar comment was made by FSAC1 who is a subject advisor for Life Orientation. She stated:

*It is funny that teachers would not make any effort to know more about their subject content. For instance, Life Orientation is one of the new curriculum subjects that most of the teachers never studied at school. They are supposed to be making efforts to learn more about it but they never do that. If you don't bring them materials they never make a follow-up. They will not even register for ACE in Life Orientation because they claim that it has no future.*

It emerged that the Primary Teacher's Diploma was basic for teachers to enter the field; however those who have attained the BEd degrees have done so at their own initiative.

The study sought the experience of respondents in the positions they held. Table 4.1 indicates that 1 (33.3%) of principal respondents has between 6-15 years of experience, 1 (33.3%) has between 16-25 years of experience, and the other 33.3% has between 26-35 years of experience. Data indicates a similar trend for the HoDs' experience where 1 (33.3%) has 6-15 years experience, 1 (33.3%) has between 16-25 years of experience and 1 (33.3%) has between 26-35 years of experience. Consequently, 2 (14.3%) of teacher respondents have between 1-5 years experience while 3 (21.4%) have 6-15 years of experience, 8 (50%) have between 16-25 years of experience and 2 (14.3%) have 26-35 years experience. Forty percent of the cluster teacher respondents which 2 of them have 6-15 years of experience, while the other 2 (40%) have 16-25 years of experience and 1 (20%) have 26-35 years of experience.

As presented in the above section, most of the respondent principals, HoDs and teachers were in the age range 51-60 with 16 to 35 years of experience. It is believed that as people age, they become resistant to change which may militate against the implementation of their continuing professional development. This is also observed by Day and Sachs, (2004) who postulate that this is a stage in which a teaching career is identified by serenity that is categorised by more mechanical, but also more relaxed, self accepting activity and can be termed as a stage of conservatism characterized by resistance to innovation. For this group, change might be a challenge because people in the teaching fraternity might at this stage, in possession of fixed teaching and learning skills. However, the age and years of experience of respondent cluster teachers show that a majority of them are still young and possibly vibrant to carry out the duties in the continuing professional development programmes.

The second largest group had 6-15 years of experience which is identified as an experimentation stage of taking stock and self-doubt, when some of the mid-career crises might become evident. It has been observed that this is usually between the 12<sup>th</sup> and the 20<sup>th</sup> year of teaching and may be connected with sense of monotony or lack of challenge (Day & Sachs, 2004). Alternatively, self-doubt may be engendered from a sense of failure attempts to influence or reform practice at school. These groups could tend to be both difficult to develop because of their career stages and other adulthood factors as supported by Goodson (1992), who states that change,

growth and development are related more to life events than career stages. Table 4.2 presents biographical information of facilitators of CPTD programmes.

**Table 4.2: Biographic data of facilitators**

Variables	Description of variables	Facilitators n=5
		%
Gender	Male	20
	Female	80
Age	21-30yrs	0
	31-40 yrs	20
	41-50 yrs	60
	51-60 yrs	20
	61 + yrs	0
Academic qualifications	Metric only	
	Academic Diploma	20
	BA	20
	Honours	40
	MA	20
Professional qualifications	Primary Teacher's Diploma	20
	FET- College Diploma	
	Bachelor of Education	80
	No Prof qualification	
Experience	1-5 yrs	0
	6-15 yrs	20
	16-25 yrs	20
	26-35 yrs	60

It was necessary to examine variables such as gender, age, academic qualifications, professional qualifications and experience of respondent facilitators as it gave a clear picture of the level of personnel entrusted with delivering the CPTD programmes. Table 4.2 indicates that 1 (20%) of respondent facilitators were male while the majority of 4 (80%) was female. Data shows that 1 (20%) of the facilitators were in the age range between 31-40 years, 3 (60%) were in the age range 41-50 years and 1 (20%) was in the age range 51-60 years. Teaching and learning behaviour that influence teachers could be the same with those of facilitators as they were former teachers. Furthermore, with workers especially teachers, age and teaching

experience have a lot to do with taking things for granted; as they have been doing the same kind of work since they started working (Day & Sachs, 2004).

The academic and professional qualifications of the facilitators were examined because they have a bearing on the quality of their facilitation of continuing professional development programmes. It emerged from the data in Table 4.2 that 1 (20%) of the facilitators hold an Academic Diploma, while 1 (20%) of them hold a BA degree. It shows that the majority 2 (40%) hold an Honours degree while 1 (20%) has attained Masters Degree. Professionally, data indicates that 1 (20%) of facilitators hold a Primary Teacher's Diploma while the majority of 4 (80%) has attained a Bachelor of Education degree.

Table 4.2 further indicates that 1 (20%) of facilitators had between 6-15 years experience while the other 1 (20%) had between 16-25 years experience. It also indicates that the majority of 3 (60%) has between 26-35 years experience. The majority of facilitator respondent in this district were in a career stage where there might be a trend towards increasing withdrawal and gradual disengagement from work towards more interest in outside pursuits (Day & Sachs, 2004). It is a stage when teachers do not find fulfilment in teaching; hence, they pursue other careers or even become entrepreneurs. They are in the final career stage as Huberman in Days and Sachs (2004) indicated to teachers' careers as characterised by a number of definable phases or stages. These stages can be differentiated partly by the achievement of pedagogical competences but they also parallel life cycle changes. They range between the phase of career entry (survival and discovery) to the final stage of disengagement (Huberman, 1993, cited in Day and Sachs, 2004).

### **5.3 TYPES OF PROGRAMMES OFFERED**

The foundation of good schools is formed by good teachers; hence, improving teachers' skills and knowledge is one of the most important investments and there is a wide variety of professional development options available (Geret, 2001). Therefore, it is important to note that delivery style and opportunity type attend to these aspects in different ways and varying extents. This is further explored by Kennedy's (2005) framework for the analysis of CPTD models (Fraser et al., 2007).

Kennedy's (2005) framework, as mentioned in chapter one, suggests that professional learning opportunities can be located along a continuum. Models of CPTD can be categorised according to their purpose of being transmissive, transitional or transformative. Where the purpose is transmissive, models are mostly centralised and rely on teacher development by external experts. The transmissive models focus on technical aspects of the job rather issues related to change of values, beliefs and attitudes (Sprinthall et al., 1996).

The transitional development models have the capacity to support either the transmissive or transformative agendas. Models that fit under this category are coaching/mentoring, monitoring and communities of practice, which are mostly conducted as on-site or school-based programmes. The transformative models link theory to practice through internalisation of concepts, reflection, construction of new knowledge and application in different situations. Transformative models support professional autonomy at individual and profession-wide levels (Sprinthall et al., 1996).

The types of CPTD offered therefore range from being on-site and off-site programmes. The on-site development programmes are the school-based training activities that are conducted at school, by either facilitators or by the teachers at school. On the other hand, the off-site programmes are mostly centralised and conducted outside the school premises. The study looked at the different models of the on-site and off-site teacher development programmes.

#### **5.4 MODELS USED TO DELIVER CPTD PROGRAMMES**

As new knowledge-based economies have placed increasing emphasis on the development of professional skills there are contemporary stage models that are typically applied across professions. These are the rapid technological advances, the growth of knowledge and service-based industries, the increased professionalisation and the demand of on-going skills development of the workforce (Dall'Albha & Sandberg, 2006). This leads to a growing literature that articulates the need to address the fundamental mismatch between new demands on teachers and the existing opportunities for their growth (Darling-Hammond & Mc Laughlin, 1995; Lieberman, 1995; Little, 1993; Wilson & Berne, 1999). This results in the new models

for effective professional teacher development. Most of these models share common characteristics and can be identified as school-centred professional development, whereas CPTD programmes can be both off-site and on-site. Following is a discussion on the teacher development models mostly used.

#### 5.4.1 The centralised CPTD model (off-site)

A centralised model is training where teachers from different schools gather at a central venue for workshops of a day or longer. Training for this programme is conducted by experts from outside that may be specialists in that particular field. For teacher development, centralised training is mostly conducted by higher education institutions. The study sought to find out from facilitators which model is commonly used to carry out CPTD programmes. The table below shows the CPTD models that are used by the facilitators to develop teachers in the clusters.

**Table 4.3: implementation models used in clusters**

	Frequency	%
The centralised model	5	100
The school based model	0	0
The school focused model	0	0
Partnership with Higher Education Institutions	0	0
Action research	0	0
Other	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.3 shows that the school-based model, the school-focused model, partnership with institutions of higher learning, action research, and others were never used in their clusters. Data shows that all facilitator participants used centralised models. It emerged that while there are a variety of models that could be used; schools never utilise them to their benefit. It shows that schools have limited themselves to one model. On the same question interviewed CLs confirmed that facilitators used the centralised model to facilitate in CPTD programmes. PS2 confirmed: “teachers are usually called to one venue big enough to accommodate many teachers, say from twenty schools.”

When asked whether teaching and learning activities arranged by the school where school-based or school-focused, all interviewed teachers refuted that there were

such activities in their schools, as ST3 responded “...no, we don’t do it, even as the cluster it is not done. I never heard about it”. Collaborating were all PSs who confirm that the schools have never organised any school-based courses for teachers. PS2 advanced that “once in a while we attend courses organised by subject advisors at district level not at school”

To confirm the idea of centralised programmes the researcher investigated the frequency of professional teacher development from the teachers so as to determine the kind of model/s used as shown in table 4.4 below:

**Table 4.4: Frequency of professional teacher development programmes**

Frequency of attendance	Frequency	%
Once a year	7	46.7
Once in six months	5	33.3
Once every school term	3	20
Once a month	0	0
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.4 shows that the majority 46.7% (7) of the teacher respondents, indicated that professional teacher development programmes were conducted once a year while 33.3% (5) of them revealed that programmes were facilitated once in six months. It also emerged that 20% (3) of the teacher respondents stated that the development programmes were conducted every school term. It can be deduced from the data that facilitators used centralised models for teacher development because once-off development programmes had always been typical of centralised models.

This once-off training approach used by facilitators was confirmed by CLs as CL3 reasoned that “probably there is no money to do the training more often”. In the understanding teachers confirmed that there is usually one course per year as ST1 stated:

*...we usually have one course in a central venue; I think the reason for that is because of time. They just give us information that we should change the way we are teaching. They just inform us about changes without giving us a chance to implement in front of them.*

This was also confirmed by FSAC2 who claimed that:

*...We usually call them once for instance if I am going to have a History workshop where I am planning to give them new aspects, skills and whatever I call all of them once, as teachers of the district of that particular subject, then I conduct the workshop only on that day. Then I will know that for that year I have informed the teachers about all the changes that they have to know in that particular year.*

As a follow-up, the researcher had to investigate whether there had been any follow-up to development programmes after the centralised teacher training had been one. Interviewed HoDs alleged that there were no follow-ups to the once-off developmental programmes. HoD2 was quick to say there were no funds allocated to CPTD programmes; hence, they never have follow-up cases. From the data, one can deduce that there are possibly many people who miss out on the courses because for one reason or another they may not attend that once-off programme. The lack of follow-ups on the programmes defeats the idea of helping teachers grow professionally.

In order to authenticate the responses from the facilitators and HoDs, the researcher had to ask the teachers about the frequency of training programmes held in their schools and the table below shows the responses.

**Table 4.5: Frequency of teacher training programmes**

The training programmes were done frequently	Frequency	%
Disagree	11	73.3
Agree	4	26.7

Table 4.5 indicates that 11 (73.3%) of the teachers respondents disagree that the training programmes were carried out frequently while only 4 (26.6%) of them attest that the training was frequently done. Information coming out is that training programmes are not frequently carried, out defeating the whole idea of CPTD.

According to the CPTD Task Team (DoE, 2008) and Day and Sachs (2004), decisions taken must be in agreement with what teachers want. They need to be built around priorities identified by individual teachers, by SMTs and staff members

collectively (DoE, 2008). For the facilitators to be aware of that information, therefore, is part of being capable to facilitate CPTD programmes.

The facilitators had an understanding that lecturing to teachers, exposing them to new information will lead to teacher change as it was only centralised model that were used for teacher development (see table 4.3) However, Hargreaves, (1995) and MacNeil (2004) posit that short-term workshops and development are known for not being effective. In the South African context, teacher development has been sporadic and poorly coordinated as confirmed by Taylor and Vinjevold (1999 cited by Maistry, 2008). It became necessary for the researcher to investigate other development models like on-site and off-site development programmes.

#### 5.4.2 The school-based development programmes (on-site)

The on-site (school-based) teacher development programme was developed to overcome the problems of the centralised CPTD model (Craft, 1996; Gettly, 2002). According to Craft (1996), school-CPTD model is an effort to achieve a better match to the need and culture of a particular group of professional depending on their school cultures. The task to organise school-based development programmes is the responsibility of the HoDs, hence, the study sought to investigate from the HoDs whether in their schools they held or organised any of the school-based development programmes. In Table 4.6 below, the researcher sought to find out the different school cultures regarding the on-site development.

**Table 4.6: School culture with regard to school based programmes**

Administration at your school recommends:	Frequency	%
Centralised training	3	100
Community of practice	0	0
Action research	0	0
Collaborative groups	0	0
Peer coaching	0	0
Peer observation	0	0
<b>Total</b>	3	100

Table 4.6 shows that all HoD respondents indicated that in their schools, teacher development programmes used the centralised method of training teachers. This was an indication that at their schools, there were no school-based teacher

development programmes. However because the new curriculum had integration of subjects, teachers on their own without being organised into formal learning groups consult each other on matters involving cross pollination of subjects without realisation that they have involved themselves in school-based activities. Asked if they had any school-based activities at school ST6 responded that:

*At my school we have all the general learning areas and school-based collaboration is done during integration where a History teacher would help an LO one with information on Human Rights. That is the only time where we collaborate on curriculum issues. So I can say that in our school we do have a school-based CPTD programme of some kind.*

Teachers are not aware that these collegial consultations of the new curriculum has the integration of subjects, are actually school-based development activities where each one learns from the other. However, cases such as that of integration of subjects are not school planned activities, as a result, ST5 responded that:

*...It is not properly planned; it happens when a particular teacher has a problem you just go to the teacher concerned, it is not scheduled. It is a good action both teachers learn from that activity, one gets observed and the other one becomes an observer but you can't just go to another person's class, it's difficult to do that, so we chose each other on friendly basis. If this was scheduled and planned by the school it would be better.*

The above responses confirm what Table 4.5 indicated that teachers were mostly exposed to centralized CPTD programmes, as ST2 reiterated:

*We don't have those that are arranged by the school and cluster leaders, normally it's those that are arranged by the district office. That is all that we normally get as teachers, whereas for me there are specific chapters that I thought I would never be able to teach in my classes until a colleague came and assisted me on a Saturday having arranged with my learners. Since then I never had a problem with that section, I mean after observing my colleague teaching my learners and their quick understanding of the lesson.*

The response by ST2 indicated that if collaborative opportunities could be created as part of teacher development programmes teachers would easily change their practice and that would lead to better learner performance. Nonetheless when the facilitators were asked if the schools in their area were having any school-based development programmes, their response was that they had school-based team-teaching for the MIP schools so as to ensure the improvement of examination results. Facilitators in the rural schools did not exactly know what was meant by school-based development model. They seemed to think that it was only about them visiting teachers to check whatever the curriculum was being implemented correctly in the school curriculum. They were not aware of the fact that a school-based development programme could also be organised by the school and its personnel.

When the HoDs were asked if the facilitators had introduced any interactive programmes in their schools that would expose them to school-based activities; the responses are as shown in table 4.7 below:

**Table 4.7: Interactive programmes**

Interactive programmes introduced by district officials (facilitators)	Frequency	%
Two or more teachers sharing practices through collaboration	0	0
Peer coach discussing a specific lesson with a teacher to be observed and both reflect on the lesson after it has been delivered	0	0
Teachers observing and helping each other recognise newly learned strategies after development programmes	0	0
Teachers working together to solve a specific instructional challenge	3	100
Highly skilled teachers in specific areas work and develop others	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.7 reveals that none of the respondents indicated that two or more teachers share practices through collaboration. It also emerged that none of the respondents was engaged in the peer coaching discussion on a specific lesson. This indicates that most teachers work independently from each other which destroys the team spirit. Data indicated that teachers do not help each other in issues of newly acquired skills. However 3 (100%) of the respondents indicated that teachers work together to solve a specific instructional challenge. This is one interactive programme utilised at school which cannot be classified as a CPTD programme as it occurs spontaneously.

These interactions are not planned and there are no kept records of their occurrences. It also emerged from the data that schools did not make use of highly skilled teachers in specific areas to assist colleagues. The information given in the table clearly showed that the SMTs had taken school-based activities to be less important as compared to the centralised development activities or they did not have enough information about them.

On-site or school-based programmes are more beneficial as they address problems when they surface. The study sought to find out from the facilitators if they had any activities that demonstrate the same characteristics with the school-based development models. Table 4.8 below shows the views of the facilitators on what their school-based models offered to teachers.

**Table 4.8: Characteristics of the on-site or school-based programmes**

School-based or on-site development programmes offer the following:	Frequency	%
Demonstrate the most effective efforts for change to take place close to the action	1	20
Are aimed at the needs and expectations of teachers	1	20
Are practical	1	20
Occur continuously	1	20
Give teachers the opportunity for professional development and growth	1	20
<b>Total</b>	5	100

It emerged in Table 4.8 that all the 5 respondents had different views of how the school-based or on-site teacher development programmes benefited teachers. Data shows that each facilitator chose one aspect that s/he viewed as beneficial to the teachers and yet school-based teacher development programmes offer all the listed criteria to the teachers. These responses revealed that facilitators have limited understanding of school-based development programmes because all the details given show the effectiveness of school-based or on-site development programmes. It is also clear indication that they work independently and rarely hold any workshops to compare notes.

This is contrary to the impression given in table 4.3 where facilitators were asked to indicate the model that they preferred between the centralised one and the on-site development programmes. FSAC3 responded that:

*...on-site programmes are the good, they are best. I am not saying that workshops are not supposed to be conducted but the most preferred one is the on-site development programme. It could be better if the district office could give us enough time to conduct on-site programmes. It is with on-site programmes that you are able to know whether the teacher has understood what you were trying to do with them, but we don't have enough time for the on-site programmes.*

Asked if the schools in their area were having any school-based development programmes FSAC1 responded that:

*... in fact in most of these schools we usually have these team-teaching programmes for those poorly performing schools that we refer to as Matric Intervention Programme schools (MIP schools). So the principals of these schools do know that each and every time their schools will be thoroughly interrogated so if you say I want my teacher be there they are willing... they do like that one because it is also a way of taking them out of MIP.*

FSAC1's response indicates that there is limited systematic planning of the teacher development programmes. Furthermore, it gave an impression that their attempt was examination based which, as the researcher views, it had nothing to do with continuous professional teacher development.

On the same question CL2 indicated that:

*we don't have school-based development programmes in their schools as cluster leaders especially at schools, maybe it's because we don't have enough teachers at our schools, maybe you find that you is only one teacher at your school teaching a subject from grade ten to grade twelve so I can't leave my classes to go elsewhere.*

School teachers echoed the same sentiments that school-based development programmes were hardly held in their schools. For instance one of the teacher participants, ST1 stated that: “maybe it’s one of those that are happening when the subject advisors visit us.” These responses (CL2 & ST1) indicated that school teachers knew little about school-based development programmes. It was only one of the three cluster leaders (CL3) who seemed to have a slight idea of a school-based programme as she noted that:

*In my school we start by having subject committees. We sit down as teachers of that particular subject and discuss areas of concern. When we are having problems we help each other. As I am teaching grade twelve and eleven at times I even go to grade ten and teach for those teachers but the teacher is supposed to be there when I am teaching.*

The activity was that of a school-based programme although the researcher was not quite clear as to whether the cluster leader knew that their activity was a teacher development programme that had to be done continuously at school and at cluster level or it was an activity that they would do whenever they wanted. Hence the researcher felt it necessary to find out from HoDs if teachers at their schools were developed as shown in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9: Models of teacher development at school**

Involvement of teachers in school-based development programmes through:	Frequency	%
Organizing experts from outside the school	0	0
Subject advisors conducting a day’s workshops	3	100
Through teacher networking	0	0
Peer observation	0	0
Total	3	100

Table 4.9 shows that all HoDs responded to only one item in the section. Information emerging is that rural secondary school teachers in the sampled area are not exposed to most professional development activities including teachers. The researcher further sought to find out from the facilitators if they realised any advantage of teacher networking in their areas. One of the facilitators (FSAC2) in response to the question on the helpfulness of teacher network programmes in their area indicated that:

*In our district we have twinned our schools with high performing schools in Queenstown and most of the tasks, questions and tests given to their learners we also give them to our schools and teachers administer this type of test to their learners but before they do that they meet as a subject cluster for that particular subject where they go through those papers, find out what work have they covered sufficiently for their learners to be able to do this you see.*

On the same question, FSAC2's response was more indicative of an examination-based activity than continuous professional teacher development. The principle of teacher networking is better understood by the FSAC1 than FSAC2, although the organisation of the activity still remained the same as the other one. In response to the same question FSAC1 further explained that:

*We sometimes you will go to a certain workshop and as Subject Advisor you say OK I am going to do this workshop. I am not going to workshop teachers from Lady Frere only, let's come together as subject advisors of Lady Frere and Queenstown. So we group our teachers together so that we share the information. I often suggest that when we formulate these winter schools we need to take teachers from other districts and when they come together they are able to say that one for instance is good in Geography and that one from Ezibeleni is tackling this part better than I do. I will talk to him later.*

With the previous response, the facilitator was not aware that the activity in which they were engaged with the joint workshop had a network principle in it because responding to the probing question the indication was: "... Teacher networks I think they don't have that which is like a guide which other provinces have. There is no structured procedure that they are supplied with like in other provinces where teacher networks are encouraged". This response indicates that the facilitator is not well informed about teacher networks. FSAC1's response also exposes an element of dependency that teachers could not exercise their autonomy.

Table 4.10 shows teacher participant responses with regards to coaching and mentoring at school as some of the school-based approaches to teacher development.

**Table 4.10: Coaching and mentoring at school**

There is coaching and mentoring at my school	Frequency	%
Disagree	14	93.3
Agree	1	6.7
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.10 reveals that the majority 14 (93.3%) of teacher respondents disagreed that there was any coaching and mentoring at their schools. Only 1 (6.7%) of the teacher respondents agreed that they had coaching and mentoring at their school. In an interview with facilitators, a question was asked whether in their schedule they had any on-going teacher development like coaching, mentoring and monitoring after centralised training programmes. Responding to this question FSAC3 commented:

*... I think we don't actually even give it a name, on-going development we call it on-site support because almost every day when I am out of my house and I leave I go to schools. On my programme there is a school which is my target. When I get there I expect to see that teacher in class and if he is teaching up to my expectation for the learners' benefit I don't have any problem.*

The response from FSAC3 confirms that facilitators were less informed about school-based development activities. From the understanding of this response it was also assumed that facilitators had no special programme to follow-up on their transmissive development programmes.

### **5.4.3 The school-focused development programmes**

The school-focused programme is usually held in a venue that is organised by the school depending on the need or a common venue as it should be based on teachers' needs. In most cases school-focused development programmes are held outside the school and can be presented by agencies like higher education institutions, educationist or even the school itself. This model can be an advantage to the school as it contributes directly to the improvement of the school.

The study sought to find out on the frequency of school-focused development conducted by the HoDs. The responses to this section are presented in table 4.10 below.

**Table 4.11: Frequency of school focused programmes**

Frequency of school-focused programmes	Frequency	%
Weekly	0	0
Fortnightly	0	0
Monthly	2	66.7
Termly	1	33.3
Yearly	0	0

Table 4.11 reveals that 2 (66.7%) of the HoDs conducted school-focused CPTD programmes monthly and 33.3% (1) of them conducted them termly. From these responses, one can assume that the HoDs did not quite understand what the school-focused CPTD was all about. This confirms the fact that the SMTs regarded the school-focused programmes as their hourly meetings at school where they would discuss issues of the school and the curriculum. This also means that the HoDs were not aware that school-focused development programmes were mostly to serve teachers' needs as they arose. The idea that HoDs did not have enough information about school-focused development models was evidenced by the responses from most teachers and cluster leaders. When asked how often they conducted school-focused CPTD in their school or cluster CL2 responded that they did not have them in their schools or clusters. Concurring was ST3 who said:

*I think here at school the most effective one can be the one initiated by the school because teachers will have chosen it on the basis of what they need to be developed on. Even if the expert is called for us we can work very hard because the training is on what we want. But this is not done at my school.*

Information coming out of the data above shows that teachers are aware that they need development but are let down by lack of organisation of these development programmes by authorities in charge. The study sought to find out if principals understood the importance of school-focused teacher development. The table below

presents responses from the principals about the importance of school-focused development programmes.

**Table 4.12: The importance of school-focused development programmes**

School-focused programmes coordinated for the school do the following:	Frequency	%
Contribute directly to the improvement of the quality of education of the teacher and the school	0	0
Bring about collaboration between colleagues, principals and school management on classroom practice and learner performance	3	100
Bring about support for the training that contribute to the professional growth of the teacher	0	0
Promote transformation	0	0
Afford teachers opportunities to be trained according to their needs	0	0
<b>Total</b>	3	100

Data in Table 4.12 shows that all the principals in the sample indicated the importance of school-focused training is to bring about collaboration between colleagues, principals and school management on classroom practice and learner performance. However in the researcher's view school-focused training actually enhances all the aspects mentioned in the table. The researcher then posed the same question to teachers who also confirmed the principals' response. At the same time, ST4 advanced that school-focused training would bring about transformation and afford teachers opportunities to be trained according to their needs. One can deduce that the school-focused development programmes are not really implemented.

#### **5.4.4 Communities of practice**

Capable facilitators of CPTD programmes created strategies that encourage communities of practice. Communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly (Wenger, 1998). Some communities of practice are quite formal while others are very fluid and informal. However, members are brought together by joining in common activities. For a community of practice to function it needs to generate and appropriate a shared repertoire of ideas. It involves practice - ways of doing things that are shared to some significant extent among members. The study

sought to find out if facilitators initiated strategies that would introduce communities of practice to teachers in the table that follows.

**Table 4.13: Strategies encouraged for communities of practices**

Strategies encouraged for communities of practice	Frequency	%
Peer observation	2	40
Participating in projects in groups with fellow professionals	1	20
Forming local groups to discuss issues of classroom practice	1	20
Taking turns to lead sessions	1	20
<b>Total</b>	5	100

It surfaced in table 4.13 that 2 (40%) of the facilitator respondents indicated that peer observation encouraged for teacher to network through communities of practice while 1 (20%) stated that teachers networked through participating in projects in groups with fellow professionals. Another facilitator, 1 (20%) assumed that networking was done through forming local groups to discuss issues of classroom practice while the other thought that by taking turns to lead sessions teachers were actually networking. These responses revealed that facilitators were not much into communities of practice and were not encouraged by the district office. Seemingly, it was an activity that some of the teachers did not even know about as FSAC3 stated that:

*The problem is that I don't think I know what you are talking about. In fact we did have what we called subject committees where teachers were to come together, for instance at a certain period you call your subject teachers and they form a committee where they would share their problems. We used to have those subject committees and subject associations but of late they do not function at all and that is where they were supposed to empower each other.*

The facilitators seemed to be confusing communities of practice with subject associations that were departmental based. Some of the teachers, as commented above, never heard anything about communities of practice or learning communities, hence ST4 responded that:

*In developing teachers you mentioned an interesting thing to me that we teachers of this district could meet and discuss things that are pertinent to our situation. I think if that could happen it would help us a lot because as teachers we have different abilities whereas if we could share our ideas*

*with one another maybe we can develop one another. It could help when we meet as subject teachers and discuss our issues pertaining to classroom practice things can be better.*

On the other hand, there were some teachers who had informally organised a community of practice, not because they knew it to be one of the development programmes but as their own way of helping each other. To explain their idea ST2 said:

*As friends we usually meet with educators from Queenstown and some from Cala on Sundays at Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC). We meet there and discuss the topics and questions, for instance the planning that we are doing we know it will cover a certain area for the specific time we have decided upon. Then thereafter we discuss problems that we experience in the classroom.*

A probing question with regard to the activity being advised by the district officials they explained ST2 further stated:

*No, it happens amongst friends. It was never arranged by the department, for instance I told my Subject Advisor about the meetings that we usually hold and he was pleased and interested, as a result he came with some educators from Cala one day.*

Two out of three cluster leaders interviewed seemed to be have communities of practice in their clusters although they had not been structured the same way as CL2 explained:

*We do these gatherings fortnightly and we use Fridays from twelve to two o'clock every fortnight. In these meetings we come with our challenges and we discuss new problems that we come across within in our classes.*

On the other hand CL3 asserted that they were doing well with communities of practice as the response was:

*...Yes I encourage that, it's done. It's working and it is helping teachers because when they meet as teachers alone they discuss their challenges*

*and at times I even allow it in my cluster that even if for instance I don't understand a topic Teacher A is free to go to my school and do that topic for me, we do such things.*

Subsequently, CL3 was asked as to which of the development programmes they had in the district that they would prefer. The response was that: "... Given a chance I would prefer the one where teachers of the same subject come together to discuss issues of their subject as a way of developing themselves." At the same time, CL1 gave a different dimension of collaborative activity as indicated:

*... I want to be honest, we don't have such meetings, when we meet it's only when we have moderations. We don't have those gatherings, we don't share the skills, and you just do what you want to do your own way.*

It was then necessary for the researcher to also find out whether teachers, apart from communities of practice, were involved in teacher networks as well as they were not as fixed as the communities of practice.

### 5.4.5 Teacher networks

Teacher networks are introduced to teachers as a way of moving teachers away from the process of professional development to collaborative activities so as to increase teachers' individual capacity to learn (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991). The principles of teacher networks are reflection, self-mastery, excellent practice and job satisfaction. Following is the table that shows data gathered from HoDs with regard to models of teacher development undertaken at school, to make sure if teacher networks are not part of the models of teacher development conducted at school. Table 4.14 below shows responses to questions asked on how teachers are developed at school.

**Table 4.14: Models of teacher development at school**

Teachers at your school developed by:	Frequency	%
Organising experts from outside the school	0	0
Subject advisors conducting a day's workshops	3	100
Through teacher networking	0	0
Peer observation	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.14 shows that all HoDs indicated that teachers were developed by subject advisor conducting a day's workshop. From this information it emerged that rural secondary school teachers from the sampled schools were not exposed to most professional development activities, including teacher networks. As that seemed to be the situation with teacher development, stakeholders at school the researcher further probed from the facilitators if they realised any advantage of teacher networking in their areas. One of the facilitators (FSAC2) responded that:

*In our district we have twinned our schools with high performing schools in Queenstown and most of the tasks, questions and tests given to their learners we also give them to our schools and teachers administer this type of test to their learners but before they do that they meet as a subject cluster for that particular subject where they go through those papers, find out what work have they covered sufficiently for their learners to be able to do this you see.*

To the researcher, FSAC2's response was more indicative of an examination-based activity than continuous professional teacher development. The principle of teacher networking was not understood by the FSAC1 and FSAC3. Further probing on the question indicated that teacher networking was not effectively done as facilitators thought there was a guide provided for networking as FSAC3 stated: "Teacher networks, I don't think there is anything like a guide which other provinces have. There is no structured procedure that is supplied where teacher networks are encouraged".

Teacher networking is one of the aspects in CPTD programmes that enhance teacher development. However teachers need to understand how to network. Hence the researcher sought to find out from the facilitators the teachers' impressions on networking whose responses are shown in Table 4.15 below

**Table 4.15: facilitators' impressions on networking**

Teacher's impressions on networking	Frequency	%
Teaching and learning opportunities that took place outside school	2	40
Teachers found these opportunities stimulating and refreshing	1	20
These opportunities had also assisted their overall professional development	1	20
Teachers needed to be given time to think collectively about what they are doing	1	20
<b>Total</b>	5	100

Data in Table 4.15 indicated that 2 (40%) of the facilitators suggested that teachers think networking is being engaged in teaching and learning that takes place outside the school. It emerged that 1 (20%) thought networking was stimulating and refreshing while the other one (20%) feel networking assisted their overall professional development. It also surfaced that one (20%) thought that networking would give teachers the chance to think collectively. This implies that facilitators are not completely sure of their responses; they had little or no information about teacher networks. This prompted the researcher to find out from teachers if they were involved in any kind of teacher networking and if networks would be one of the common activities done by teachers. Table 4.16 below is responding to questions on common activities in networking.

**Table 4.16: Most common activities in teacher networks**

Most common activities in teacher networks	Frequency	%
Peer observation	0	0
Participation in projects in groups with fellow professional	0	0
Forming local groups to discuss teaching and learning issues	9	60
Taking turns to lead collaborative sessions	6	40
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.16 indicates that nine (60%) of the teachers knew teacher networks to be about forming local groups to discuss teaching and learning issues. The rest of them (40%) knew them as strategies that would allow group members to take turns in leading collaborative sessions. These responses implied that teachers knew what teacher networks were all about. In reality teacher networks are supposed to be initiated by teachers in areas of their need. Most of the teachers in response to the question on whether they had any teacher networks locally and otherwise, they responded almost the same way as ST2 that "...In this case ' networking' I have no

idea of how it would happen but if our district office can make it compulsory that teachers should network maybe it can be done. It must be part of the planning and be made formal like in the case of moderation”. ST2 indicated that although teachers were not introduced to the programme of teacher networking they showed great interest in it.

## 5.5 CAPACITY OF FACILITATORS AND INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS OF THE CPTD PROGRAMMES

According to the South African CPTD Task Team the quality of teacher professional practices is at the root of the quality of schooling. The development of these practices is a continuing process that for the duration of the career of a committed professional teacher. CPTD is therefore an essential component of a comprehensive education system of high quality as envisaged in the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) (2007). While SACE manages the CPTD system, supported by DoE, the work of professional development engages individual teachers, school management teams, district offices and higher education institutions. Hence, the following section is looking at the capacity of facilitators (subject advisors-district officials) as providers of CPTD. In trying to assess the standard of their facilitation, it was necessary to first clarify whether their facilitation was SAQA accredited as specified in table 4.17.

The CPTD programmes are provided by the facilitators. It is important that their certificates should be SAQA accredited. The researcher sought to find out if the facilitators in the sampled area had SAQA accredited qualifications whose responses are addressed in the table below.

**Table 4.17: SAQA accredited**

SAQA accreditation	Frequency	%
Yes	0	0
No	5	100
<b>Total</b>	5	100

Table 4.17 shows that all five (100%) facilitators’ facilitation was not SAQA accredited. A follow-up on interviews revealed that they did facilitation without any facilitation qualification. Furthermore, FSAC3 responded that:

*As I have just said before we became subject advisors after we were ex-college lectures, so between the closure of teacher training colleges and the time we were employed as subject advisors we had to go around doing facilitation. For instance, we were under the project called Imbewu. Before facilitation we were trained in OBE by certain providers from KZN and given certificates of attendance. So at least we were able to empower ourselves during that time and added something to what we have as lectures. So training teachers was not a new thing.*

After that response, it became clear that to the facilitators teacher development was mostly about workshops; hence they could not understand what it meant when asked about other planned teacher development programmes. Apart from SAQA accreditation CPTD programmes need to be conducted considering a number of aspects. One of the aspects to be considered is the capacity of facilitators to conduct CPTD. Table 4.18 below investigated the frequency of development of the SMTs for them to be able to conduct development programmes at school.

**Table 4.18: Development of HoDs and principals to improve their capacity at work**

Frequency of attendance to professional development programmes	Frequency	Principals n=3 %	HoDs n=3 %
Once a year	3	100	100
Once in six months	0	0	0
Every school term	0	0	0
Once a month	0	0	0

Table 4.18 shows that all the respondent HoDs and principals were trained once a year. Despite all the changes that occur in the school curriculum, HoDs who are the main source of development at school attend their professional development programmes once a year, as indicated by table 4.18. However, HoDs were aware of the fact that for them to be more efficient at school they needed thorough training as HoD3 responded:

*... if these workshops could be organized for longer periods of time, not these workshops for one day, proper extensive training for a week or so things would be far better than they are at present. What worries me most is the fact that teachers at school are frustrated because everything came as a shock to them and we are unable to help them.*

It was inferred that it was general opinion that CPTD programmes are not allocated enough time as most of the participants indicated their concern about the time given to the programmes of their development. The fact that SMTs who are responsible for teacher development at school were not being capacitated enough indicated incapacity to the facilitators. This facilitator incapacity is further indicated by SP2's response that:

*In our so called development workshop what were actually tackled were basically the duties of SMTs, especially the HoDs that were listed in a government document on leadership that was supplied there. We were never given any skills on coaching, mentoring and monitoring in these workshops that were meant for SMTs. As a result of that our schools do not have systems that are put in place for coaching, mentoring and monitoring teachers at school. What that entire document has on monitoring is the procedure of monitoring assessment, nothing on teaching and learning.*

According to the CPTD Task Team (DoE, 2008) and Day and Sachs (2004), decisions taken must be in agreement with what teachers want. They need to be built around priorities identified by individual teachers, by SMTs and staff members collectively (DoE, 2008). For the facilitators to be aware of that information, therefore, is part of being capable to facilitate CPTD programmes. Hence, the researcher had to find out how teachers are involved in the design and decision making on the facilitation of CPTD programmes.

**Table 4.19: Teachers decide on the content of their development activities**

Detail	Agree	Disagree
	%	%
Teachers decide on the content for their development programmes	26.7	73.3
The time spent on the training programmes was adequate	20	80
Teachers decide on the time to be allocated for their development	20	80
Training programmes were done at convenient times	40	60

From table 4.19, it emerged that 73.3% of the sampled teachers disagreed to the fact that they decided on the content to be delivered in their professional development programmes, while 26.7% of them agreed. This was confirmed by ST4 that teachers were not included in the designing of the content of their training programmes although they were the people who knew best what they needed, as he said:

*... No, we are not involved at all. We are only informed any time by the subject advisor that there will be a workshop held at a particular venue without knowing what the programme is all about. We are just told to attend.*

The researcher further inquired if teachers thought the time allocated to CPTD programmes was adequate. It emerged from Table 4.19 that 20% thought time spent on CPTD programmes was adequate while the majority (80%) thought it was inadequate. PS1 expressed the same sentiments on the inadequate period of training when he responded that:

*...time allocated to in-service training is very limited; a day or two can never be enough for closing content gap because most teachers need to be assisted in closing this gap in new methods of teaching; most of them have been teachers over twenty five years, they really need to be in-serviced or developed.*

The study further sought to find out if teachers decided on the time allocated to teacher development programmes. It emerged from Table 4.19 that 20% teacher respondents agreed that they were included in the decision making about the time allocated to teacher development programmes. Also, the majority (80%) of teacher

respondents refuted that they ever made decisions about time allocated to their development programmes. This was confirmed by the interview responses to the question asking whether teachers were part of deciding on the time offered to CPTD programmes, as ST2 responded "...no, we are not part of it and there is no specific time that is allocated. We are just called and you leave the class and you attend such things". After being probed about time allocated to the programmes she said: "Yes but there is no specific time". A follow-up on the interviews with cluster leaders revealed that subject advisors usually decide on time allocation for development programmes and these are at most impromptu.

Data in Table 4.19 showed that 40% of teacher respondents indicated that training programmes were held at convenient times while the majority (60%) negate that it was held at convenient times. The cluster leaders already stated that training programmes were held at the discretion of the subject advisors. The results shown by the data indicate that teacher decision making in terms of their training is limited as the subject advisors seem to control all the training.

Teachers at all levels of their career need development sessions on topics such as subject content, teaching and learning methods, development of learning programmes, development of work schedules and development of work plans. The researcher sought to find out if facilitators had development sessions with teachers on these topics whose responses are in Table 4.20 below.

**Table 4.20: Kinds of topics covered during teacher development sessions**

Topics covered	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Subject content	√	√	√		√
Teaching and learning methods		√	√	√	
Developing of learning programmes	√	√	√		
Developing work schedules			√	√	√
Developing lesson plans			√		√

Table 4.20 showed that only F3 had covered all the topics during teacher development sessions. It emerged that F2 and F5 had covered three out of five topics while F1 and F4 covered only two topics. This could imply that most of the teachers were disadvantaged in terms of not being developed in all the crucial topics. It can be deduced from data that the facilitators themselves need development to capacitate them. It could be lack of planning of the facilitators as

they have not covered all the vital topics for teachers to develop. This is a clear indication that the facilitators themselves need development.

According to Day and Sachs (2004), facilitators of teacher professional development should design and plan with teachers as people who know best what they need. Designing and planning with teachers is part of their being clear of what is expected of them as facilitators. Table 4.21 below, therefore illustrates whether the facilitators planned the development programmes with teachers as they were supposed to do.

**Table 4.21: Designing and planning of CPTD programmes**

Are teachers in your cluster/district part of designing and planning CPTD programmes	Frequency	%
Yes	0	0
No	5	100
<b>Total</b>	5	100

Table 4.21 shows that all five (100%) of the sampled facilitators indicated that teachers of the district were not part of designing and planning of CPTD programmes. With school-focused and school-based development programmes schools would be able to decide and plan their time according to what they wanted to cover. Capable facilitators are aware of the fact that, in their planning with teachers or SMTs, they are supposed to include allocation of time to the various CPTD models. Asked about the allocation of time for school-focused and school-based development programmes, teachers that were sampled responded that facilitators time for teacher development was never planned with them; they would just be given the dates for the workshops.

According to data the facilitators do not seem to be having enough time for teacher development programmes, hence, it would be better if there were other providers to assist in the development of teachers. The researcher also investigated from teachers if there were other CPTD facilitators within the education sector apart from the subject advisors. The response to this question is presented in table 4.22 here below.

**Table 4.22: Some of the CPTD providers within the education sector**

Professional teacher development programmes are only conducted by:	Frequency	%
Experts from Higher Education Institution(HEI)	0	0
Subject Advisors from Department of Education	15	100
Lead teachers(LTs)	0	0
Senior teachers(STs)	0	0

Data in Table 4.22 shows that 100% teacher respondents revealed that professional development programmes were conducted by subject advisors. This shows lack of initiative on the part of facilitators who have the authority to engage external expertise to take part in the development of teachers.

The capacity of facilitators to conduct CPTD programmes was also measured against their awareness of planning and designing CPTD programmes according to their purpose. Table 4.23 illustrates if facilitators planned their development programmes according to their purpose.

**Table 4.23: Criteria/purpose on which facilitators plan and design CPTD programmes**

Do you plan CPTD programmes according to the following categories:	Frequency	%
Purpose	0	0
What is recommended by the SMT	0	0
Teachers' needs	1	20
Focus of the district office	4	80
<b>Total</b>	5	100

Table 4.23 indicates that from five facilitators 20% (1) participant planned according to the needs of the teachers whereas four (80%) of them considered the focus of the district office. In other words most of the facilitators planned their development programmes according to the interests of the district office, hence when FSAC2 was responding to the same issue said that:

*We identify content areas which we see for example that they are not delivered properly but we don't just force everybody into it we pass a questionnaire to find out this section how many of you would need to be developed and to be assisted on this.*

In trying to extract information from the respondents on whether the programme was looking at furthering any specific purpose, the response was that: “In actual fact the district comes up with programmes to be introduced then we plan for workshops if we have money.” The response indicated that the facilitators are not aware that development trainings should in fact focus on teachers’ needs. Teachers know their weaknesses better than the district office; hence, they should design their own training.

FSAC1 confirmed the fact that facilitators did not plan according to the purpose of the development programme and that they trained teachers according to what was needed by the district office by saying:

*... even from our side maybe we create confusion because now and again we are calling these teachers only because we are pressurised by the province as I will call Ms So and So this week and the same teacher is not only teaching my subjects she will be called next week by another subject advisor.*

### **5.5.1 Observation on training programme**

The researcher had the chance to observe a training session conducted in the first term for grade 11 and 12 teachers of Accounting, Agricultural Science and Mathematics were all content-based. The centre was large, conducive to and enough for any method of development that could be used. However, the method used for the development of the three groups of subject teachers was a training model (transmissive approach).

According to the responses from most of the teachers, it became clear that what the facilitators (subject advisors) regarded as the on-site programmes was the facilitators’ ad hoc visits to schools. Their ignorance of what on-site programmes are and what purpose do they serve impacts on their capacity as they are the main people to give guidance on the school-based development programmes. The school-based teacher development programmes are to be the best programmes for bringing about teacher change. It becomes a challenge when they are not used appropriately if facilitators do not plan their development programmes according to their categories. As ST5 said:

*...at times we go to a common centre and discuss such things, at times they visits schools once they discover that you have a problem here and there. They come and discuss that problem with you. Even that one is not something that is planned. They just come; you never know when they will come.*

**Table 4.24: On-going school support programmes by district officials in schools**

School support programmes by departmental officials are conducted in my school	Frequency	%
Disagree	14	93.3
Agree	1	6.7
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.24 shows that 14 (93.3%) participants disagreed to the fact that school support programmes by the facilitators were conducted at school and one (6.7%) of them agreed. The information solicited in this table was confirmed by FSAC3 whose response indicates that facilitators are not following up after a development programme for FSAC3: “...At the same time the province will be bombarding us with so much work, I wouldn’t lie Most of the time we don’t have time to make follow-up to the schools. We don’t have that time I don’t want to lie”.

Most teachers gain their inspiration for their most effective lessons from discussion with colleagues. Almost 97% of teachers engage in professional knowledge-sharing conversation with their colleagues; thus, learning conversations are considered as planned and systematic approach to professional development (Bubb, 2005). This is one of the easiest means of teacher development, though informal; but, it can be misleading in cases where teachers are not adequately developed in some aspects of the profession. That is why when facilitators get new information; they need to coach mentor and support teachers so that they do not mislead each other in cases where they did not completely master the training.

Table 4.25 shows teachers responses to a question asking whether there was any coaching, mentoring and support at school after a teacher development session.

**Table 4.25: Coaching, mentoring and support after training programmes**

There is coaching, mentoring and support after the training programmes	Frequency	%
Disagree	15	100
Agree	0	0
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.25 illustrates that all the participants did not agree that there were any coaching and mentoring at school after teacher training programmes. This indicated that there was little or no coaching, mentoring and support at school after the teacher training programmes. This idea was confirmed by PS2 who responded that:

*... During our time as teachers we used to go to Soshanguve Training Centre in Pretoria where we would be trained for the whole week. At times on content maybe I think it was what we now call content gap training these days. After that training Mrs Strydom who was responsible for our subject would immediately visit our schools trying to follow-up on us to see if we were implementing what we were taught at the training centre. If she noticed that we were not exactly in line with what we were taught in the training she would do it again, gives you a week, comes back to monitor your progress". No child would fail in her subject that is how effective in-service training would be during those days. These days you would never find that kind of trainers.*

**Table 4.26: Topics usually covered teacher development sessions**

Topics that are usually covered during the teacher development programmes	Frequency	%
Subject content	2	13.3
Teaching and learning methods	11	73.4
Developing learning programmes	2	13.3
Reflective practice	0	0
Developing lesson plans	0	0
Other	0	0
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.26 shows that for subject content (content gap) only two (13.3%) indicated that it was part of teacher development while another two (13.3%) showed that developing learning programmes was also included in the development. Data

revealed that the majority of the responses were from 11 (73.4%) participants who indicated that topics that were usually covered in the development sessions were teaching and learning methods. According to data, most of the programmes had to do with the method of teaching as development of learning programmes is an aspect related to a teaching method. As it was stated by one of the participants that most teachers had content gap, without content, therefore, they were not going to be able to use the teaching and learning methods that they were usually trained on. This was confirmed by ST1 who said:

*...to my own experience they are not capable of covering all aspects of development and they don't take it into account that teachers have different learning styles and different knowledge gaps. No they don't take it into account. Why? Because they have that belief that we are professionals, we have the subject content; we are able to learn in whatever situation. Others have big content gaps because of the new subjects that nobody already in the teaching service was trained on.*

In the table below, the researcher endeavoured to find out from the teachers if the training programmes meet their needs and expectations in terms of being empowered with adequate knowledge and skills. For clear understanding the teachers were asked to rate the training programmes where three stands for beneficial programmes that meet the teacher's expectation; two may be considered when programmes do not reach the expected standard and one means that programmes have not been able to change teachers' attitude and knowledge.

**Table 4.27: Capacity of facilitators as far as CPTD is concerned**

Training programmes meet the needs and expectations of teachers	Frequency	%
1	12	80
2	2	13.4
3	1	6.6
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.27 shows the ratings from 1-3 where participants were required to rate their feeling about their facilitators with regard to meeting the needs and expectations of teachers. 12 (80%) rated them 1 which indicated that their needs and expectations were least met, whereas two (13.4%) of them rated them 2 while one (6.6%) rated

them 3. Out of these ratings, the overall impression was that the training programmes were not meeting the needs and expectations of teachers, which could only mean that the facilitators were not capable of conducting the programmes. Most of the interviewed teachers also gave an indication that they were not satisfied with how the development programmes were conducted and that they thought that the facilitators were not capable of conducting the teacher development programmes, as ST4 responded that:

*[whow!] They are not capacitated enough because they do not give us clear answers to the questions put forward to them. So in the end we come back from these workshops empty without knowing how to implement what they have told us in the workshop so that is why I say so.*

ST5 and 6 also echoed the same sentiments that the facilitators behaved as if it is not their role to know the information, but were merely delivering the message about the intended change.

However, an analysis of their academic and professional qualifications shows that some facilitators have a Primary Teacher's Diploma; hence, facilitating CPTD programmes to secondary school teachers can actually be a challenge. The researcher explored what strategies they used in carrying out the training programmes.

## 5.6 STRATEGIES USED TO IMPLEMENT CPTD

**Table 4.28: Professional development features**

	Frequency	%
1 Give Content knowledge/pedagogical knowledge	0	0
2 Opportunities for hands on	3	60
3 Active learning	1	20
4 Greater coherence	1	20

The study sought to investigate the strategies that the facilitators used to conduct CPTD programmes. Data indicates that 60% of the facilitators claimed to use the opportunities for hands-on programmes. The table also indicated that 1 (20%) of the facilitators they took care of greater coherence. The same thing applied with active

learning as 1 (20%) facilitator revealed that they considered active learning in the teacher development activities. The table shows that none of the facilitators dealt with content and pedagogical knowledge.

## 5.7 TIME ALLOCATION FOR TRAINING

For quality teacher education and development, time must be made available for teacher development activities. Different strategies are employed to avail time for different models of teacher development. The time allocated for teachers to participate in one model can be different from time to participate in another. For example, the time for teachers to participate in communities of practice and engage in quality school-based activities could well be scheduled into the year. Hence, time and frequency for CPTD programmes should be planned. The table below seeks to find the frequency of planned CPTD programmes.

**Table 4.29: Frequency of planned CPTD programmes**

Frequency of planned CPTD programmes	frequency	%
Once a year	4	26.6
Once in six months	6	40
Every school term	5	33.4
Once a month	0	0
Every week	0	0
Everyday	0	0

Table 4.29 illustrates that teacher development programmes were planned once in six months at the most as indicated by six (40%) of the teacher participants. Five other participants (33.4%) revealed that development programmes were planned once every school term and the rest (26.6%) responded that development programmes were planned once a year. Teacher development programmes were not given enough time as it was confirmed by teacher participant ST1 that: *“...usually they take one day in six months and sometimes two days a year. I can say its one to two days a year but I feel like they are short, the workshop time is very short, not enough.”*

When a facilitator was asked if they had any follow-up activities that were meant to assist teachers after a day’s workshop, FSAC2 commented:

*I think our problem is that we have so many programmes and we don't have time to follow immediately, we don't have enough time to run these workshops. In so much that our cluster moderation becomes a mini workshop, so it's then you realise that this poor teacher hasn't really grasped. So it's time we don't have time allocated for that.*

From these responses teachers and facilitators confirm the fact that teacher development programme is not given enough time. One of the participants stated that when the SMTs were called to the centre for their own development, the content of the session had little to do with the supervisory and support skills that the SMTs needed to have for continuous teacher development at school. They also found it inadequate that their training programmes occurred once a year.

The researcher further sought to explore the amount of time spent by SMTs and teachers discussing teaching and learning issues. Table 4.30 below provides the responses.

**Table 4.30: Time spent by SMTs and teachers discussing issues of teaching and learning**

How much time do SMTs and teachers spend discussing issues of teaching and learning	Frequency	%
One hour every week	0	0
One hour every month	3	100
Two hours very day	0	0
Two hours every week	0	0
Two hours every month	0	0

Table 4.30 shows three (100%) responses from the HoDs who indicated that they spent one hour every month discussing issues of classroom practice. Thus, teachers were allocated 12 hours of school-based development per year. HoDs were also interviewed about the time allocated for CPTD programmes. HoD3 responded that: *“... there can never be time for teacher development at school because our schedules are very tight; there is a lot of recording at school these days, more recording than teaching.”* Apart from the limited time allocated for CPTD, the HoDs' responses also gave an impression that the SMTs were not adequately trained so as to be able to manage time and CPTD at school. The responses further revealed that

the SMTs were also ignorant of the fact that part of their work was to develop teachers at work.

From the responses shown in Table 4.30 and from ST2's response, it was revealed that teachers disagreed that they were part of the decision making on the allocation of time to their development programmes. At any rate, their responses to whether the training programmes were being done at convenient times indicated that 40% of the participants agreed that their training programmes were done at convenient times even if they were not part of the team deciding on the time of the training programmes. However the majority (60%) of them responded that the training was not conducted at convenient times. This limited time given to the teacher development programmes might have been in the case of off-site programmes. It was then necessary to find out about time allocated to the school-based and school-focused programmes. In an interview about the allocation of time for school-focused and school-based development programmes, ST4 responded that:

*In as far as the school development is concerned we don't have time we just talk about it but when it comes to implementation we don't have that time. At the FET band we don't have that time because we always focus on the learners.*

When the facilitators were asked whether they had scheduled activities that were planned with schools, showing allocation of time for development programmes, FSAC1 said:

*We sometimes allocate time when we have planning session but it becomes a challenge when I have to visit other schools then I have to adjust my timetable and that happens more often.*

Data collected from the facilitators of CPTD revealed that facilitators do not have planned schedule showing dates on which training would be conducted, claiming that they do not have enough time for teacher development. Hence, they manoeuvre their time-tables every time they need to visit a certain school. However, if teachers were given a chance of deciding on the content of their development programmes,

they would be able to set-up convenient times adequate to the content of the training.

## **5.8 IMPROVEMENT OF CLASSROOM PRACTICE AFTER TEACHER DEVELOPMENT**

After the development programmes, teachers were expected to show improved classroom practice that has led to improved learner performance. Reflective practice is one of the three aspects of effective teacher development programmes. Moreover, data revealed that teacher participants had little or no information about reflective teaching; hence, none of the participants responded to the question about whether they were informed or not about reflective teaching as indicated by ST6:

*...reflective teaching has never been part of our workshops. I hear that term for the first time. Maybe our subject advisors do not introduce some of these things because of time.*

The most critical challenge for teacher education in South Africa is limited conceptual knowledge of many teachers. Table 4.2 gives an indication of what is meant by limited conceptual knowledge of many teachers as it indicates the academic and professional qualifications of facilitators.

This idea has been acknowledged by FSAC2 that:

*... This is clearly indicated by the difference between teacher from former Model C schools whose schooling and initial teacher training was good and the rural teachers whose schooling and basic training was not so good. Model C teachers would easily understand tasks given to them to give to their learners. It is further explained that ... the former Model C teachers after being exposed to the same method of development you see that those ones grab it faster than our black brothers and sisters in the rural schools. They implement it immediately in their classes but with rural schools it becomes a problem.*

Most teachers in rural secondary schools of Lady Frere did not have professional qualifications. The information revealed in Table 4.31 was confirmed by one of the

teacher participants who said that they had Diplomas in Auditing and they taught Accounting for 12 years at school without a professional qualification:

*...The time for professional development is too short, it is very short; I was not trained as a teacher but I have a Diploma in Auditing; as a result what I would so much like to know is about the method and such stuff, actually anything that has to do with a method of teaching of course with some content.*

That is almost the reason why FSAC2 when asked if they noticed any improvement in teacher classroom practices after a development programme, the response was:

*...when we visit schools we see a degree of improvement and most of the people who show that degree of improvement are the ones who have university training and content knowledge before they go for teaching. Their basic training and their university qualification make a difference.*

FSAC3 further explained the situation at school after teachers had attended a workshop that: "...if you teach or workshop people, you show a lot of different methods and the person who does not have the understanding content-wise no matter what, the moment they get to the classroom they get stuck and they forget it." As some of the teachers responded that after the development programme for them it became easy to conduct their lessons as indicated by ST1 that: "it's easy after the programme". This response corresponded with another one from ST2 who might have been one of those that had university education, that:

*... They are good facilitators, the way they present these topics almost we benefit a lot from them so we can even implement it to our learners. We are much empowered when we come from the workshop.*

However, some of the participants felt that even after the workshop they still would feel that they were not adequately assisted as far as content was concerned as ST6 responded that:

*... As far as the subject matter is concerned they must try whether it is to visit schools or call them centrally but subject matter-wise there is still a content gap which creates problems when we go back to classes. We actually need any form of development that is to address the content gap.*

All these different views could have been the result of different approaches that the facilitators used at the training centre.

### **5.8.1 Observation on training programme**

The researcher had the chance to observe a training session conducted in the first term for grade 11 and 12 teachers of Accounting, Agricultural Science and Mathematics were all content-based. The centre was large, conducive to and enough for any method of development that could be used. However, the method used for the development of the three groups of subject teachers was a training model (transmissive approach).

During the observation period of data collection, the researcher visited some of the teachers who were part of the workshops scheduled by the district office. Immediately after the first term workshop, the researcher visited three Grade 11 teachers from three different clusters, as indicated by the research design, to investigate whether what was delivered in the previous workshop was understood. Two of the teachers observed in their classes (Maths & Accounting teachers) indicated a slight understanding of the content. This was noticed by the fact that they responded swiftly to the learners' questions and they did not frequently refer to the material they were using; and also, the flow of information delivered indicated thus. One of them (Agricultural Science teacher) was uncomfortable with the topic as they constantly relied on the definitions and explanations read from the text book.

After the second term workshop, the same teachers who were visited after the first workshop were observed in their classrooms. This time, the observation was more exciting because in all of the three classes, the methods were not that of teacher-tell and learner-listen. The methods used were collaborative and cooperative. Learners were in groups and mostly all the group members were actively involved in the lessons. In the Maths class, individuals from different groups were taking turns in

demonstrating the calculations on the black board for other groups and a lot of feedback was coming from the rest of the class.

When the same teachers that were observed in the first term were visited in their classrooms by the researcher, immediately after the workshop, they showed reasonable confidence in what they were doing. Their methods of instruction were no longer teacher-tell and learner-listen approach like in the first observations. Teachers were utilising the materials that were supplied and applied in the workshop. The learners were first required to work in groups; thereafter, they had to work individually; solved problems as individuals with the teacher facilitating the activity. There was a noticeable change in the teachers' classroom practice and learner participation. The slight limitation that was observed this time was the fact that there was insufficient space to allow free movement of the teacher in the Accounting class because of the classroom size.

## **5.9 TEACHER SUPPORT PROGRAMMES**

Teachers have different abilities and as such, officials from the Department of Education need to make sure that they support them to achieve satisfactory classroom practice. When the head of the curriculum section (CES) was asked about the efficiency of classrooms as micro teaching centres, the response was:

*We have, for instance, what we call mentoring programme for Maths and Science which takes place on Saturdays. For this intervention, we ask those teachers we think are struggling and producing results that are lower than 40% to come and attend those classes and the teachers that always produce good results to be mentors in assisting other teachers by telling them how do they approach certain parts of the topics of the syllabus in a micro-teaching situation. This is some kind of a Matric intervention programme.*

The response from CES indicated that their concern was about the Matric results instead of continuous professional development. This response indicated that there are no planned CPTD coaching, mentoring and support systems put in place apart from the Matric intervention programmes as mentioned by CES. Both mentoring and

coaching are highly beneficial but they are not often used to develop experienced teachers.

Table 4.31 shows teachers' responses when asked if they had any peer coaching activities at school, especially after the training programmes.

**Table 4.31: Coaching and mentoring activities at school**

There is some coaching, mentoring and support at school after the training programmes	Frequency	%
Disagree	13	86.7
Agree	2	13.3
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Responses in Table 4.31 indicate that 13 (86.7%) of the participants disagreed that the teachers were exposed to some coaching at school while two (13%) of them agreed that there is coaching at school. These responses revealed that teachers did not agree that there was any coaching at school. However, ST5 in response to a question about facilitators advising them on peer coaching explained:

*...it never happened that subject advisors (facilitators) inform you that this is how you should help each other like forming group activities amongst ourselves, teachers of the same subject getting together, it never happened.*

When ST6 was asked if a senior teacher of a particular subject is allowed to go to novice teachers' classroom to mentor them, the response was:

*No you can't just go to another person's class; it's difficult to go, not unless you ask permission from him. If this was arranged, scheduled and planned it would be better.*

Lack of adequate information about mentoring from both facilitators and the SMTs resulted in the teacher's inability to mentor each other. Gathering from the responses given by the participants, teachers and facilitators, teacher support was only about material provided for teachers. It was not clear to them that the activities of a transitional model had to be continuous if teacher development was meant to be constant. As a result, FSAC3 when asked if their support programmes had any

support strategies they would use in the district to assist teacher classroom practice, FSAC2 responded that:

*At the beginning of the year and during June holidays, we meet as subject advisors, develop all those materials that which are needed for this and then once we do this and develop it, roll it out and every teacher has a copy so that they know what type of projects they should give to the learners, what should I give as controlled tests, you see, so that in most of our subject areas we have got formal tasks, in order that even if the person is new, whatever the person is doing [pause] may not be below our standard with the support of materials offered.*

According to FSAC2's response, their school support visits had little to do with teacher transformation but more to do with summative assessment (examination-based). Action research as one of the teacher development programmes seemed to be one of the models that were not encouraged for CPTD as shown by Table 4.31 Also contrary to the teachers' responses on whether the programmes were planned according to the teachers' needs, and teachers deciding on the content of their development activities, FSAC1 explained that:

*...we do that, you see, how we do this type of planning is- in our view we always do a review of what we found out by way of questionnaire to teachers, how have they benefitted from what we did earlier in the year. We identify content area which we see for example that these are not delivered properly but we don't just force everybody into the training. We pass a questionnaire to find out how many of them would need to be developed and to be assisted on this, how many feel that this is no longer needed because of the content workshop that was attended.*

This response indicated that facilitators did not have a system that is structured for CPTD activities. They attended to teachers' issues or challenges as they came, which could have been a good strategy, provided there was a fixed on-going programme for CPTD.

Another aspect of teacher support is that of identifying successes and challenges in the implementation of the curriculum, especially the new South African curriculum. In response to the question asked as to how they identified these successes and challenges of curriculum implementation in schools, FSAC3 explained that:

*How we are doing it ...we are doing weekly, daily on-site support to schools. When we go with their permission sometimes we sit in class with them to see to address the particular content-how are teachers rolling out this to the learners, the level of understanding as being shown by the teacher, the methodology of delivery, to see if it is actually up to expectations. We look at all this and if in that there is anything that needs to draw more light on we start doing it.*

According to the researcher, this identification of successes and challenges as explained by FSAC1 was part of coaching which was revealed earlier on as something that was less considered by facilitators. When the teachers were asked whether they had school support programmes offered by the facilitators in their schools, they responded as indicated by Table 4.32.

**Table 4.32: Support programmes by facilitators**

School support programmes are not conducted in my school	Frequency	%
Disagree	2	13.3
Agree	13	86.7
<b>Total</b>	15	100

Table 4.32 shows that 13 (86.7%) of the participants agree that support programmes are not conducted in their schools and two (13.3%) of the responses disagree. The general indication from data is that school support programmes in schools are inadequate. In other words, in 86.7% of the rural secondary schools, support programmes by the departmental officials were not conducted at the time of data collection. This was confirmed by teacher participant ST5, although the response did not give a clearly defined answer to the question. The researcher deduced from the statement that the teacher was not quite clear of what school support programmes meant because ST5 responded that:

*E-e-e they give us support and they also monitor our work, what we have done and monitor our coverage each term. They give us materials to assist us in the presentation of topics.*

If after a workshop the only support that teachers received, was what had been indicated by ST5, it means that teacher support could be proved limited. Moreover, the capacity of the SMTs to support teachers at school was handicapped by the fact that SMTs had limited skills to monitor and support teachers, as it was indicated by PS2 that:

*... Well as a principal it cannot be easy to support teachers if you are not trained. I had thought that when the government introduced all these reforms, the SMTs would be given a special training that would make them able to monitor classroom practice and assist teachers in almost every aspect of teaching and learning. I think it can be easy if the principals have been given monitoring and support skills that are relevant for this democratic dispensation where somebody's classroom has become a 'black box' and where support does not necessarily mean class visit.*

To support the idea that SMTs were not properly prepared to be able to support teachers at school, PS1 remarked that:

*... Yes, the workshops that I attended touched on things like how to monitor assessment all that. We were doing activities. We had like instruction books which we used for these activities. There were a lot of things that we did not know how they wanted them done. With workshops like these we don't get capacitated at all. It becomes a mere waste of time.*

It was then necessary to find out if there was any ongoing professional teacher development at school as it is shown by Table 4.33

## **5.10 CONCLUSION**

The first part of the chapter presented the biographic data of the participants. Data on the biography of the principals, HoDs, cluster leaders and teachers were presented together because they were supposed to be developed. Biographic data of the facilitators as owners of the development programmes was presented and analysed separately. This information was necessary as it had variables that were important for the assessment of the implementation of continuous professional teacher development programmes.

Data was presented according to the major themes that emerged during data collection. For the allocation of time data was presented and analysed in consideration of various strategies that needed to be planned by both the district office and the schools jointly or individually. A number of challenges were presented especially with regard to time allocated for CPTD programmes and the training conducted according to the purpose of a particular development programme. On CPTD models data was presented with regard to the teacher development models that were mostly used.

It was important for the study to present data on the capacity of facilitators as they were the major participants in teacher development. The analysis of data presented on the capacity of facilitators was a great necessity since their capacity was going to determine the effectiveness of CPTD. To measure the effect of the development programmes data on the improvement of classroom practice after training was also presented and analysed. Data on support programmes was presented as well as they would indicate the capacity of the facilitators as well as the appropriateness of strategies used for CPTD programmes.

# CHAPTER 6

## DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Almost all the activities related to teacher education have focused on pre-service education with CPTD remaining in most countries at a much lower level of policy interest, with provision often uncoordinated and poorly provided with resources (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), 2007). Nevertheless, CPTD is widely acknowledged to be important in the pursuit of improvements in the teaching and learning (Hargreaves, 1994; Harland & Kinder, 1997; Craft, 2000).

It is further acknowledged that the relationship between teacher development and school development is well established and reinforced in research literature. Although there are many elements of CPTD, at its core is reflection and professional learning. It encompasses all natural learning experience and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school (Day, 1999). Successive research projects have reiterated that the quality of interaction, the focus on teacher development and the relentless pursuit of improved teaching and learning are key characteristics of school effectiveness and improvement (Maden & Hillman, 1996; Gray, 2000). In addition, the research evidence acknowledges the importance of teachers engaging in continuing career-long development that needs their personal and professional needs (Goodall, Day, Lindsay, Muijs & Harris, 2005).

### 6.2 MODELS USED IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Several CPTD models are used for teacher development (Gettly, 2002). Therefore, it is suggested that for the effectiveness of CPTD, both centralised and decentralised structures of development models should be used (Steyl, 1998). Methods that are commonly used, as according to Edwards et al. (1991), are transmissive, transitional

and transformative models of professional teacher development with each one of the models having different approaches.

### **6.2.1 Centralised models**

The results of this study show that the most commonly used approach for CPTD in the Lady Frere District is that of a centralised model. Prior studies have also noted this as a model that is mostly used for teacher development in South Africa (Chisholm, 2004). This model has limited effectiveness, especially in a country like South Africa where the legacy of apartheid has produced many teachers who have had inferior schooling and basic teacher training (Motala & Pampallis, 2002). Thus, almost all the teacher development programmes organised by the facilitators have limited effectiveness as data indicates that facilitators use only centralised models of teacher development.

Craft (1996) in Engelbrecht et al., (2007) refers to a centralised model as training where teachers from different schools gather at a central venue for courses or workshops of a day or longer. Although teachers find the workshops stimulating (meeting other teachers and exchange ideas and experiences), this model has some disadvantages, specifically loopholes between theory and practice. The gaps are further described as being inappropriate and do not apply with the actual needs of teachers (Fraser et al., 2007).

As explained in chapter 2, the traditional and most commonly used approaches to CPTD include workshops, seminars and conferences that adopt a technical and simplistic view of teaching in the belief that teachers' knowledge and skills be improved by using experts from outside school (Kennedy, 2005). These programmes have not proved to be very effective since they do not succeed in efficiently improving teachers' subject knowledge or pedagogical skills (Kennedy 2005). This explains why Mundry (2005) and Desimore et al. (2006) in *Acta Academia* (2009:41(4)) suggest that ineffective CPTD programmes and models that do not lead to the improvement of teaching and learning should be abandoned.

This idea is further supported by Kennedy (2005) that CPTD models where the purpose is transmissive focus on technical aspects of the work rather than issues relating to values, beliefs and attitudes. This type of CPTD does not support

professional autonomy rather it supports replication and arguable compliance. The weakness of this model is that it creates an artificial separation from the classroom context, as much of the training takes place off-site. This model exercises a high degree of central control with the programme agenda determined by stakeholders and facilitators. It also adopts a narrow perspective on teaching and learning. The teacher is marginalised and is relegated to the role of recipient of knowledge (Engelbrecht et al., 2007)

As a result, Christie et al. (2004) posit that in Southern Africa a teacher is viewed as a technician with CPTD based on the assumption of teacher deficit. The weakness in many CPTD programmes as explained by Sayed (2004) is that they position teachers as clients that need fixing, which means that they do not know anything. It is also argued that it is only if CPTD is conceived as serving the purpose of preparing to implement reforms that it is likely to align itself with the training and deficit models (Kennedy, 2005).

The deficiency of this approach becomes worse when it comes to the cascade model, which is another popular form of teacher training when the effort is to reach many participants within a short period of time (Craft, 1996; Gettly, 2002). This familiar approach, implemented in a variety of ways, begins at the top with the ideal of what is to be learnt. This ideal is introduced to trainers who are also expected to transmit the ideal whose shortcomings are identified by most participants, teachers and facilitators (Chisholm, 2004). For this study data reveals that the cascade model was never conducted in secondary schools because secondary schools do not have many teachers as compared to the General Education and Training Phase teachers and therefore a centralised model emerges.

### **6.2.2 School-based model**

Surprisingly, the study revealed that facilitators have limited understanding of school-based development programmes and its advantages. Facilitators of teacher development for the rural schools do not exactly know what is meant by school-based development model; they assume that is separate from the school curriculum. To SMTs, cluster leaders and school-based teacher development means that someone 'goes or comes' to somebody's class and assists with the deliverance of the lesson for that particular teacher. With their limited understanding of the

programme, they are not aware of the fact that a school-based development programme can be organised by the school and its personnel (Day & Sachs, 2004).

Prior studies that have noted the importance indicate that the on-site development programmes are mostly known to be the transitional models that are used as follow-up and support strategies in CPTD (Kennedy, 2005). Edwards (1991) further explains that a school-based model occurs within the school, planned, organised and managed by the school personnel with or without the departmental officials to fulfil the needs of the school. Previous studies have also noted the importance of school-based teacher development. Hence, Craft (1996) suggests that all CPTD programmes should be school-based as they are crafted for the needs and culture of a particular group of professionals.

According to Edward (1991), a school-based CPTD model was developed in an effort to overcome the problems of the centralised CPTD model (Craft, 1996; Gettly 2002). Its purpose is to achieve a better match of a CPTD course to the need and culture of that particular group of professionals. Edwards (1991) states that:

The most effective efforts for change to take place close to the action are concrete, teacher-specific, are focused on practical problems, involve teachers in project decisions, include classroom assistance, and have regular meetings that focus on particular problems (p.42).

The senior management teams at school are regarded as the officials that need to monitor the curriculum activities including professional teacher development (DoE, 2002).

Therefore, in-service training for rural teachers of Lady Frere is not as adequate and effective as it should be. Literature expresses the qualities of a school-based model as one of the best teacher development programmes that schools need to implement for effective teacher development (Craft, 1996; Gettly 2002; Edward, 1991). It is the duty of the HEIs to get SMTs informed and supportive of the model and also take care of aspects like lack of financial support and continuity that may, however, be problematic because of continuous change of personnel (Leckstein, 1994). Nevertheless, data reveals that HEIs were never part of CPTD, although, according

to CPTD Task Team document (DoE, 2008) teacher priority, school priority and profession priority activities are to be initiated by teachers; other CPTD activities are to be offered by HEIs and other providers.

In the adult classroom, for school-based professional teacher development, to situate learning means to create the conditions in which participants will experience the complexity and ambiguity of learning in the real world (Brown 1994; Lave & Wenger, 1991). For adult learners, like teachers, a school-based model creates an environment that fosters learning by creating natural learning processes because adults will commit to learning when the goals and objectives are considered realistic and important to them. In other words, application in the 'real world' is important and relevant to the adult learners' personal and professional needs (Speck, 1996). However, data shows that teachers are never exposed to school-based activities except for being visited by facilitators to check syllabus coverage.

Moreover, data indicates that neither teachers nor the SMTs are involved in the designing and planning of CPTD programmes at school. It is only the facilitators that are in charge of CPTD; whereas with adult learners, planning for learning must include the opportunity for concrete experience (Gold, 1998). To make use of concrete experience, CPTD programme designers need to plan learning activities which are linked with classroom experience of teachers; or they can use participants' work as basis for CPTD activities. Furthermore, in adult learning, active experimentation is recommended because it provides an opportunity for participants to plan changes to the concrete or real experience in future (Kolb, 2001:2). To ensure this, CPTD programme designers should make sure that they have a space in every programme in which participants can make realistic plans for new strategies when they return to their schools. Hence, the researcher realised that it was pertinent to find out from cluster leaders if the district officials (facilitators) had introduced any interactive programmes in their CPTD programmes. Nonetheless, data reveals that since teachers were not part of planning, and designing programmes were not planned according to the teachers' needs.

Concrete experience is possible in a school-based development activity as it was observed that if a training programme was participative teachers would do the same back at school. Nonetheless, the findings of the study indicate that teachers are not

given opportunities to practise what they have learnt in the development activities that are held centrally (see 5.8.1). In agreement with what has been indicated by Speck (1996) above as he posits that adults need direct and concrete experiences in which they apply the learning in real work, it is further acknowledged that adult learners grasp information best in situated learning (Wenger, 1998). The teacher's attitudes and beliefs towards a new strategy will only change once they are found to positively impact on student learning (Guskey, 1986). Significant change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes is likely to take place only after a teacher has experimented and evidenced changes in student learning outcomes. This implies that change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes are primarily a result, rather than a cause of change in the learning outcomes of students. In the same framework, it is said that staff development and the process of teacher change present a model of teacher change, particularly as this change occurs within the context of school-based staff development efforts (Guskey, 1986) in Fieman-Nemser (2001). Research refers to school-based models as efforts of replacing the gaps in centralised CPTD models (Fraser et al., 2007) as Fieman-Nemser, (2001) describe them as:

...inappropriate aims on macro level that do not comply with the true needs and expectations of the teachers; inapplicable activities where no regard for outcomes has been shown, are planned and teachers lack motivation because they are unwilling to attend training as they are not adequately reimbursed for further qualifications. Finally it is not very popular as teachers private lives are disrupted and single parents struggle to fit it in. Some of these gaps identified are not as much an indication of the model itself being flawed but rather of the delivery of CPTD programmes through this model typically being ill conceived (p.260)

It would have been thought of as being more appropriate to involve teachers into enough school-based development activities because adults are relevancy-oriented; as a result they must understand the objectives of learning (Speck, 1996). Their learning has to be applicable to their work or other responsibilities to be of value to them. Moreover, the findings reveal that facilitators do not identify objectives for adult

participants before the course begins, which in the case of a school-based programme could have been well known to the teachers (Edwards, 1991).

Continuous professional teacher development can be defined as on-going education and training for practising teachers, with a view to assisting them to keep up to date with the rapid and numerous changes taking place in the school milieu (Collins, 1991). Nonetheless, it is only one aspect of school-based development programme as it assists with re-establishment of contact with theory and methodology in order to maintain the 'extended professional' (Collins, 1991). Another essential feature is that principals have to provide on-going school-based instructional leadership by overseeing teaching activities (Krug, 1993).

According to du Plessis et al. (2007), the principal is responsible for the development of staff training programmes, school-based, school-focused and externally directed, and to assist teachers especially newly appointed and inexperienced teachers, in developing and achieving educational goals in accordance with the need of the school. Moreover, the purpose of school-based and school-focused teacher development activities, through SMTs, is to encourage innovative teaching, model an array of instructional strategies and help educators expand their ability to implement a variety of instructional methods. It is through the school-based and the school-focused models of development that SMTs can afford to provide opportunities for teachers to acquire the syntax and process components related to various teaching models (du Plessis et al., 2007:115). However, the findings of this study reveal that the SMTs who could be effective resources for their schools by modelling the selection and implementation of appropriate strategies do not introduce school-based models to their schools. They are not able to recommend the appropriate teaching models for various teaching contexts to the teachers because the findings indicate that they themselves have little or no information about it. Without the training on instructional leadership on curriculum issues which has been found to be lacking, it can therefore, be impossible for them to help teachers develop the ability to use alternative instructional strategies (du Plessis et al., 2007).

This resonated well with Wenger's (1998) framework for social theory of learning where learning is evidenced by increased participation and mutual and meaningful activities. Hence, Garvin (1993) supports and shares the importance of fostering an

environment that is conducive to learning and time for reflection and analysis for adult learners, and for them to have time to contemplate the ramifications of the learning experience to their experience and responsibility. Seemingly, if development is the outcome of transformational learning, then effective adult learning opportunities need to be created, taking personal development into consideration. Therefore, it is assumed that adult learners need to acknowledge the purpose of learning, that they are problem solvers, and that they learn through practice and also learn best when the subject is of immediate use (Merriam & Caffarella 1999:78). It has been found in this study that teachers are never informed of the content of the development programmes. The study has found that if teachers are trained, through active learning they enjoy and understand the activities. After the training, when they get to their schools, they do not lecture to the learners but facilitate their learning, thus leading to improved learner performance and classroom practice.

Moreover, according to Guskey's (1986) model, significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs, as the result of the experience of successful implementation, occurs primarily after they gain evidence of improvements in student learning. Therefore, facilitators of the CPTD programme should retain and repeat the practices that teachers find useful in helping learners attain desired learning outcomes (Guskey, 1986).

Subsequently, the study has found that interactive activities at school will be highly encouraged if teachers of the same subjects work together to solve a specific instructional challenge (Clawson, 2009). It becomes such a social oriented learning theme that may grow into a fully-fledged mentoring relationship, but more simple, it is peers working together to learn the ropes of new jobs or assignments. As far as social learners are concerned, acquiring new knowledge and skills means talking with and working with other people (Clawson, 2009). The trend discovered in this study is that the schools are exposed only to centralised development programmes. This could be the result of the incapacity of facilitators and the SMTs or insufficient human resources.

Facilitators as agents of change need to create time to observe school-based teacher development practices because the context at which teachers work also has a considerable impact on their professional growth. The school context influences

every stage of the professional development process (Clarke & Hollingworth, 2002); hence, this development approach needs frequent visits to schools as it cannot be once-off. Facilitators must look at the teachers' access to professional development opportunities and restriction or support for particular types of participation. It is the duty of the facilitators to assess whether teachers are encouraged or discouraged from experimenting with new teaching techniques and if there are any restrictions or support in the long-term application of the new ideas (Clarke & Peter, 1993; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002).

### **6.2.3 School-focused CPTD model**

With school-focused CPTD programmes, training occurs outside school and can be presented by agencies like educationists or even the school itself. The roles of these stakeholders in this model are compiling, planning and implementation, which are to comply with the needs of an individual school and its personnel (Krug, 1993). Hence, this model complies with the expectations of the individual teachers, group or school and which contribute through these, to the quality of education in the classroom (Day, 1994).

The current study has found that schools know little about this school-focused development programmes; the model is perceived as an opportunity for school staff to get together and discuss other issues, not teacher development. Meanwhile, a school-focused implementation model can be associated with Wenger's (1998) social theory of practice as it emphasises learning as situated in particular social contexts and distributed across that individual, other persons and tolls within communities of practice. It focuses on learning as participation with emphasis on collaborative professional development and learning. This initiative according to Wenger (1998) is suitable for teachers who want to improve their classroom practice. Colleagues in this model are involved in asset of relationships over time. In perspective, this emphasises the negotiation of meaning (largely through talk) by members of a community engaged in doing something together (Adger, Hoyle & Dickson, 2004). Therefore, school-focused programmes, partnerships and action research could be classified models that could work well with Lady Frere teachers, considering their background, same as partnerships and action research.

From the study, it also emerged that school-focused development programmes were never tried by the facilitators; although according to Conner (1991), a school-focused model is based on needs identified by teachers. It is referred to as all natural learning experience intended to be of direct benefit to the individual, group or school which contributes to the quality of education in the classroom. In this process, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching (Day, 1999).

This ignorance of school-focused CPTD model raised a concern with the researcher because school-focused teacher development models are known to be the natural learning experiences with planned activities (Conner, 1991). They are intended to be of direct benefit to the individual, group or school and which contributes, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is a process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching (Gettly, 2002). Moreover, a school-focused CPTD contributes directly to the improvement of the quality of teacher education, although there are few schools and teachers that would not consider this model of teacher development. However, facilitators, SMTs and the teachers are really less informed about school-focused teacher development, although according to this study, teachers would want more information.

#### **6.2.4 The cascade CPTD model**

This model is a combination of centralised and school-based CPTD models in which large numbers of teachers from different schools are involved and trained (Craft, 1996). Also, it differs from the centralised CPTD because in its case, the training is cascaded down to other teachers at school and facilitators are expected to impart the information to other teachers in the field (Fraser et al., 2007). This study has found that the cascade model is not used in developing teachers of the secondary schools of Lady Frère because they have less subject teachers than the General Education and Training Phase. The facilitators manage to call the secondary school teachers centrally and develop them according to their subject specialisation. With its approach of cascading the information from top to bottom, it is not popular as the cascading of information results in watering and misinterpretation of information (Khulisa, 2001). According to the findings of this study, the cascade model is not used to develop teachers at the senior secondary level. It is surprising to find out

that almost all the stakeholders are not in favour of the cascade model of teacher development but the centralised one.

According to Kennedy's (2005) framework for analysis of CPTD models in Fraser et al. (2007), the cascade model is one of the models that are categorised as being transmissive. Therefore, it is argued that transmissive models, like centralised models, need to be supported by transactional models that include coaching or mentoring and communities of practice. According to Fraser et al. (2007), after a centralised workshop (as the cascade model is categorised as a centralised model), a transitional model like coaching and mentoring should follow; more so, the study established that none of those are conducted in the rural secondary schools of Lady Frere. The adult learners should not only know the centralised models of development, but also that learning is not automatic and must be facilitated (Speck, 1996).

However, the findings of the study indicate that coaching and other kinds of follow-up support are not conducted in the district although they are needed to help adult learners transfer learning into daily practice so that it is sustained. On the other hand, adult learning has ego involved; as a result, professional development must be structured to provide support from peers so as to reduce the fear of judgement during learning (Speck, 1998). Peer coaching is advantageous to adult learning as there could be adult learners who prefer to learn in different ways. For example, pragmatists can better be developed by peer feedback and activities that apply skills. It is quite challenging for a pragmatist to be engaged in a development approach that demands one to sit in a lecture (Honey & Mumford, 2000). In other words, coaching and mentoring after a centralised teacher development approach can be of help to most teachers at school as the majority of teachers of the district range between forty five and sixty years of age. At this age, teachers are in a career stage of serenity and disengagement which need situated learning (Wenger, 1998).

### **6.2.5 Communities of practice**

Communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do, and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly. A community of practice has an identity defined by a shared domain of interest and the membership, therefore, implies a commitment to the domain. In trying to pursue their

interest in their domain, members engage in joint activities and discussion, help each other, and share information. They build relationships that enable them to learn from each other. It is further argued that a community of practice is not merely a community of interest but a community whose members are practitioners who develop a shared repertoire of resources, like experiences and ways of addressing recurring problems (Wenger, 2004). Another important finding is that facilitators are not much into teacher networks; it is quite clear that communities of practice and teacher networks are not encouraged by the district office. It was an activity that some of the teachers are not aware of. But surprisingly enough, the study indicates that there are some teachers who informally organise communities of practice, not because they know it to be one of the development programmes but as their own way of assisting each other as it is further explained below.

Nevertheless, as mentioned in the literature review, not all groups or communities can be communities of practice. As expressed by Wenger (1998), for a group to qualify to be a community of practice, it needs to have an identity defined by a shared domain of interest. Membership implies a commitment to the domain; therefore, a shared competence that distinguishes members from other people. In pursuing their interest in their domain, members engage in joint activities and discussions, help each other and share information. Members interact together though not on a daily basis and they are practitioners who develop a shared repertoire of resources. It is a combination of these three elements that constitute a community of practice. Ultimately, it is by developing these three elements in parallel that members cultivate such a community (Wenger, 1998).

According to Schwab (1983) as cited by Day and Sachs (2004), in Japan, although the Ministry of Education had continued to require teachers to attend training courses it had also recognised that:

Teachers will not and cannot be merely told what to do. Subject specialists have tried it.... Administrators have tried it.... Legislators have tried it. Teachers are not assembly line operators and will not so behave. Furthermore, they are seen not to have any need, except in rare instances, to fall back on defiance as a way of not heeding. There are a thousand ingenious ways in which commands on what and how to teach can, will, and

must be modified or circumvented in the actual moments of teaching (Schwab, 1983, in Day & Sachs, 2004, p.156).

### **6.2.6 Teacher networks**

According to this study facilitators have little or no information about teacher networks. However, teachers seemed to be having an idea of what teacher networking is all about as they on their own get involved in teacher networking. Teacher networks which Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) called '*interactive professionalism*' are introduced mainly to enable teachers to move away from traditional professional development to teacher networks. Day and Sachs (2004) argue that the professional development activities of teacher networks cultivate collaborative inquiry to increase teachers' individual capacity to learn, manage knowledge and value diversity, thereby increasing both individual and organisational capacity to manage continuous teacher improvement and development.

Collaboration amongst teachers embodies the principle of moral support. It strengthens resolve, permits vulnerabilities to be shared and aired and carries people through those failures and frustrations that accompany change (Day & Sachs, 2004:29). In communities of practice where collaborative activity occurs, it is likely to improve teacher effectiveness since it also encourages teachers to take risks and to engage with different methodologies. It is further identified that in this model, teachers are likely to feel a greater sense of efficacy since collaboration allows for positive encouragement and feedback to teachers.

According to Christie et al. (2004) cited by Maistry (2008: 133), such a collaborative forum also provides a setting for another significant challenge facing African countries (including South Africa) in their CPTD initiatives, namely managing the tension between traditional and modernity. In the district of Lady Frere, facilitators have a limited understanding of teacher network activities; hence, the teachers do not seem to have a clear understanding of what teacher networking is all about. As far as they are concerned, it is the district personnel that have to organise these networks.

There are several possible explanations for this result one of which could be the incapacity of CPTD facilitators. According to Bubb (2005), CPTD is comparably

easy, but for deep and lasting learning to take place, facilitators (SAs, Cluster leaders and SMTs) need to expose teachers to a number of collaborative activities like mentoring, coaching, communities of practice and teacher networks. Moreover, it becomes more effective when teachers participate with others from their school grade or department (Porter et.al, 2000). This means that short-term development programmes can be productive if teachers could be followed-up and get coached per school or if the programmes could be run in their various workplaces (Smith & Gillespie, 2007), by principals and HoDs. From the study, it was gathered that the SMTs are not aware that they should be part of the support system at school.

According to Acta Academia (2009), research on school effectiveness and improvement emphasises the necessity for the continuous growth of professionals' knowledge and skills. Therefore, it is believed that since teachers have the most direct, sustained contact with learners, as well as considerable control over what is taught and the climate of learning, it is reasonably assumed that improving teacher's knowledge, skills and dispositions, is one of the most critical steps to improving learner achievement (King & Newman, 2001).

Surprisingly, teachers are not well informed about reflective teaching; hence, teachers in Lady Frere are less prepared to be life-long learners, as it is one of the strategies that are transforming teachers to be lifelong learners. In education, reflective practice refers to the process of teachers studying their own teaching methods and determining what works best for the learners. It involves the consideration of the ethical consequences of classroom procedures on learners, especially after an in-service training, either on content or teaching method (DoE, 2008). The appeal of the use of the reflective practice for the teachers is that since teaching and learning is complex, and there are various approaches, reflecting on different versions of teaching and reshaping past and current experiences will lead to improvement in teaching practices (DoE, 2006). According to the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) (2006), this will assist teachers in making the professional knowledge that they will gain from their experience in the classroom, an explicit part of their decision-making. Reflective practice moves teachers from their knowledge base of distinct skills to a stage in their careers where they are able to modify their skills to suit specific contexts and

situations, and eventually to invent new strategies. Reflective practice is one of the three aspects of effective teacher development programmes (NPFTED, 2006).

### **6.3 CAPACITY OF FACILITATORS AND INSTRUCTION LEADERS OF THE CPTD PROGRAMMES**

According to the South African CPTD Task Team the quality of teacher professional practices is at the root of the quality of schooling. The development of these practices is a continuing process that lasts for the duration of the career of a committed professional teacher. CPTD is, therefore, an essential component of a comprehensive education system of high quality as envisaged in the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) (2007). While SACE manages the CPTD system supported by the DoE, the work of professional development engages individual teachers, school management teams, district offices, higher education institutions, etc. (DoE,2006).

According to data facilitators are not SAQA accredited facilitators. It therefore becomes clear why to them teacher development was mostly about workshops and also when asked as to whether they planned their professional development programmes according to their purpose they could not understand. Facilitators of teacher professional development should design and plan with teachers as people who know best of what they need. The fact that facilitators do not design and plan CPTD programmes with teachers is part of their not being clear of what is expected of them as facilitators (Day & Sachs, 2004).

Facilitators do not plan their development programmes with teachers and schools; but, they randomly call the teachers for meetings. This results from limited information about professional development roles. Notwithstanding the reason for teachers not being part of the designing and planning CPTD programmes, professional development has long been recognised as the integral part of the core duties and responsibilities of school-based educators employed by Provincial Education Departments (PED) (ELRC Resolutions Nos. 7 and 8 of 1998). Moreover, the programme is conceived as a matter of individual and collective responsibility. Principals are required to take responsibility for the development of staff training programmes, school-based and school-focused and externally directed; heads of

departments are required to guide their staff members on the latest ideas and approaches to teaching; and, teachers are required to apply new approaches to their own teaching and to contribute to the professional development of their colleagues (Resolution No.8) (ELRC, 1998). However, teachers clearly expressed that they were not part of the designing and planning of the CPTD programmes. According to Day and Sachs (2004), facilitators of teacher professional development should design and plan with teachers because they (the teacher) know their needs.

The new Occupation Specific Dispensation (OSD) re-affirms that school teachers in public education are expected to undertake several forms of training and development as part of their conditions of service (Collective Agreement 1 of 2008). The professional development responsibilities of school-based teachers employed by PED are thus fully consistent with the CPTD system envisaged in the Minister's policy framework. All employers of teachers are expected to encourage their employees to engage in continuous professional development and to assist them to do so, especially the subject advisors as they are the main resource persons in CPTD. As far as CPTD is concerned, the subject advisory section of the education department should be well informed (DoE, 2008).

One of the findings of the study is that CPTD programmes are not planned according to their categories. Facilitators are not well informed about the fact that CPTD programmes need to be planned according to their purpose. If the purpose of professional learning is attitudinal development, meaning changes in intellectual and motivational aspects as well as functional development, the facilitators need to consider how that could be conducted. Thus, the subject advisors (facilitators) should know the different purposes of training programmes to be undertaken as specified by Kennedy's (2005) framework for analysis of CPTD models. This framework categorises the CPTD models as 'transmissive, transitional or transformative. The capacity of facilitators can therefore, be determined by their ignorance of Kennedy's (2005) analysis of CPTD models.

Teacher development programmes are planned by the facilitators without the teachers' involvement. Hence, in the study, some facilitators complained of insufficient time to visit schools. However, school-based and school-focused development programmes do not often need the presence of the facilitators.

Teaching occurs in particulars: particular students interacting with particular teachers over particular ideas in particular circumstances. Thus, teachers need to learn in and from practice (Ball & Cohen, 1999). In other words, facilitators do not always have to be the ones who conduct professional teacher development programmes, especially the school-based ones. However, it still remains the capable facilitators' responsibility to make sure that teachers are involved in collaborative activities. Learning in and from other practice allows other important components of effective professional development to occur other than those organised by the facilitators of teacher development (Webster-Wright, 2009).

Another important finding of the study is that facilitators are not informed about what on-site development programmes are. To them their ad hoc visits to schools is what they see as on-site development of teachers. The on-site development programmes are the in-service training activities that are also conducted after a centralised workshop where facilitators need to make follow-ups so as to coach or mentor the teachers to make sure that what was delivered centrally was properly understood. Also it is the duty of the facilitators to make sure that transitional activities are conducted as transmissive models need to be supported by transitional models thereafter (Fraser et al., 2007).

Moreover, transitional models are monitoring, coaching and mentoring which are forms of school-based professional teacher development (Bubb, 2005). Mentoring is mainly about helping early professional learning and brokering access to a wide range of professional learning opportunities, including coaching. Coaching on the other hand, focuses on the development of specific skills and knowledge. Both coaching and mentoring are highly beneficial, but they are not often used to help develop experienced teachers (Bubb, 2005). It could only be during reforms and restructuring of the curriculum that experienced teachers could also be coached and mentored as well. If, as according to the findings, there is no coaching and mentoring at school, facilitators are not demonstrating any competency.

Facilitators that, before the implementation of any CPTD program, thoroughly view the professional development cycle and recognise how adults learn, are capable facilitators. Qualified and capable facilitators consider the six stages of a professional development cycle as specified by Earley and Bubb (2004) and Honey and Mumford

(2006). According to these stages, capable CPTD facilitators identify and analyse needs, design professional development, implement professional development, monitor and evaluate impact. According to them, any professional development programme that does not follow these stages is likely not to be effective (Earley and Bubb, 2004), a sign of incapacity.

Strategies used by facilitators of teacher development programmes to train teachers should be adequate and effective as there is a strong correlation existing between student achievement and the extent of development and level of knowledge of teachers. Garet et al. (2001) in Smith and Gillespie (2007) posit that teachers report that teacher development focusing on content knowledge contributes to changes in instructional practice. On the other hand, facilitators should know that professional development should include a strong emphasis on analysis and reflection, rather than just demonstrating techniques (Guskey, 1997).

Furthermore, capable trainers are facilitators that are aware of the fact that the advocated professional development is the one that focuses on learning rather than on teaching, on problem solving rather than on acquiring new techniques and on embedding change within the programme rather than on the individual (Guskey, 1999; Sparks, 1995). Through professional development, capable facilitators introduce teachers to the research on how students learn various subject concepts and how learners think about those subjects, but do not give teachers specific teaching techniques, teachers are able to implement their own strategies for teaching the subject (Ross, Bruce & Hogaboam-Gray, 2006)

For example, teacher priority activities do not have the same form as school priority activities (Elmore, 2002). However, the current study has found that the facilitators, for which the in-service training is designed, determine the teachers' needs, without account of the teachers' own view of what is relevant to them. Apart from that being a sign of incapacity on the side of facilitators, the chances are considerably high that teachers will ignore the in-service activity. They may get involved to a certain degree, but if the activities do not deal directly with the teachers' perceived reality, the activities will have little permanent effect on the teachers who can easily get bored (Elmore, 2002), thus indicating facilitators' incapacity. As mentioned by Hargreaves (1995), teachers can be quick learners and can master just about any

kind of teaching strategy or implement almost any technique as long as adequate training is provided. Therefore, this indicates that teachers will be successfully developed if the capacity of facilitators could be up to the expected standard.

As posited by Hargreaves (1995), the main purpose of teacher development is to take care of classroom practice. The most immediate and most significant outcome of any successful professional development programme is that of having a positive impact in changing teachers' knowledge and practice (Guskey & Sparks, 2002). Yet, while most teachers have a deep and strong desire to improve teaching and learning, many professional development programmes seem unsuccessful at changing teacher practice.

The results of this study indicate that facilitators need thorough training and development in order for them to be able to facilitate these CPTD. Regarding availability, quality and specialisation of service, facilitators might not have the capacity to train and support teachers, and teachers cannot not be required to undertake facilitator-driven activities if they are not provided or they have no convenient access to them. The unavailability of facilitators of teacher development programmes in terms of geographic spread, capacity and range of specialisation, as shown by this study, is a serious risk. Limited numbers of facilitators might be available generally, and even fewer in more rural provinces like Eastern Cape. The obvious sources of professional development facilitators in Eastern Cape are the subject advisors in the district offices and higher education institutions where possible. The most interesting finding of this study is that the capacity of department of education facilitators to support and monitor the envisaged CPTD programmes for their employees is inadequate, especially at district office level. Envisaged inadequacy districts that are mostly rural and depend solely on subject advisors (facilitators) might, therefore not be receiving sufficient training, support and monitoring.

Teacher development is comparably easy, but for deep and lasting learning to take place, it is normally more effective for facilitators to be fewer directives and listen and coach teachers. Teachers need to be asked questions that would help them reflect upon why things might have happened and how they can approach things most effectively to find their own solutions (Bubb, 2005). In other words, teachers need

assistance in taking ownership of their own development and challenges. These responsibilities are some of the yardsticks that measure qualifications and capabilities of teacher development facilitators.

The challenge, however, for CPTD facilitators remains on how to gear their programmes to such an extent that they take on board almost all the elements of facilitation discussed with regard to facilitator capacity. Moreover, Guskey (2002) elaborates on two factors on why the majority of CPTD programmes fail. He suggests that those programmes do not take into account what motivates teachers to engage in professional development and the process by which change in teachers typically occurs. According to Guskey (2002), what attracts teachers to professional development is their belief that it will expand their knowledge and skills, contribute to their growth, and enhance their effectiveness with learners. Also what they hope to gain through professional development are specific, concrete and practical ideas that directly relate to the day to day operation of their classrooms. Development programmes that fail to address these needs are unlikely to succeed (Fullan, & Miles, 1992). Thus, as far as Day and Sachs (2004) are concerned, teachers need to be part of designing and planning their CPTD programmes so that they are trained on what they need.

Guskey (2002) further urges the CPTD implementers that apart from looking into these motivational factors, they should consider the process of change for teachers. Professional teacher development activities are designed to initiate change in the classroom practices of teachers, change in their attitudes and beliefs, and change in the outcomes of learners Guskey, (2002). Of particular importance to efforts to facilitate change, however, is the sequence in which these outcomes most frequently occur. It has to be noted, however, that all aspects of professional teacher development sustaining change is perhaps the most neglected. It is clear that to be successful, professional development must be perceived as a process, not an event. Learning to be proficient at something new or finding meaning in a new process is difficult and sometimes painful (Loucks-Horsley, 2003). Therefore, it is imperative, that improvement should be viewed as a continuous and on-going endeavour with assistance from CPTD programme facilitators and school administration. This can happen, among other strategies, if facilitators and SMTs could introduce

collaborative activities at school like school-based and school-focused development programmes as well as networking and communities of practice.

Furthermore, according to Guskey (2002), there are principles that are believed to be essential in planning effective professional teacher development programmes that result in significant and sustained educational improvements. CPTD programme providers should know that change is gradual and is a complex process for teachers because it requires both time and effort (Loucks-Horsley 2003). The once-off development programmes without follow-up programmes and the sessions that were cut short as revealed in data collection can, therefore, yield limited results.

Facilitator capacity involves knowledge and dispositions that are required from facilitators to be able to train and develop teachers in service. It is the core knowledge, skills, and dispositions that facilitators should possess to facilitate teacher development programmes. Specifically, facilitators should possess considerable command of the subject content in question, the pedagogical content knowledge and the facilitation skills (Borko, 2004).

One major determining factor to high standard of CPTD programmes is the professional experiences/qualifications of the CPTD programme facilitators. Similar to the study conducted by Bothuis (2006) which confirms that quality of early education programmes is strongly associated with the qualifications of the teachers' programmes, the same applies to the quality of CPTD programmes for the secondary school teachers; thus, the development of secondary school teachers can be affected by the qualification of CPTD programme facilitators (Borko, 2004).

Experience coupled with good professional qualification of the CPTD programme facilitators play a role in good delivery of lessons during the training. A study conducted by Nueman and Cunningham (2009) on impact of professional development on teacher knowledge and quality early language and literacy practices in centre-and home-based setting, suggested that to meet the demands of high quality teaching trainers need to know not only what to teach but how to teach it effectively. They need to know what individual teachers bring to the training, their cultural histories, building upon their prior knowledge in a way that engages the teachers' understanding of the concept at hand (Day & Sachs, 2004)

## 6.4 TIME ALLOCATION FOR TRAINING

Once-off workshops that are conducted for teachers are supposed to be followed by school-based transitional programmes. Data indicated that activities were given limited time and, therefore, could be ineffective in developing subject matter knowledge or even pedagogical knowledge. This suggests that the few hours of off-site development need to be supplemented by school-based development programmes because in order for them to be effective they need to be sustained and supported mostly at school. This supports Maistry's (2008) idea of sustained development programmes over extended periods of time that are likely to have lasting impact on teachers. Moreover, the development of professional practice is a continuing practice that lasts for the duration of the career of a committed teacher (DoE, 2008).

Furthermore, as stated by Knapp (2003), the traditional model of training can be more successful at promoting change to teachers and affecting learner performance if it could be of longer duration with follow-up activities at school. Longer periods of professional development permits more time for teachers to learn about their practice especially if it includes follow-up (Joyce & Showers, 1995). These once-off development programmes, that seem to be the most popular when it comes to teacher development, offer only knowledge-for-practice (Day & Sachs, 2004). Therefore, one hour spent by HoDs and teachers on issues of teaching and learning is inadequate, if there is no follow-up. But if one hour twice or thrice a week was allocated for teacher development and support after a traditional training model, it was going to be accepted (Day & Sachs 2004).

Maistry (2008) also advocates that sustained programmes over extended periods of time are much more likely to have a lasting impact on teachers than once-off workshops. Longer periods of teacher development can mostly occur if schools are involved in school-based development activities. This could only happen if Principals and HoDs were aware of the fact that they should take care of CPTD in their schools in the form of support programmes like, monitoring, coaching and mentoring. According to data, facilitators hardly received training to enable them to monitor CPTD activities at school. However, principals and HoDs do not allocate time for teacher development in their schools because SMTs do not have time for it. This is

contrary to the fact that the development of professional practice is a continuing practice that lasts for the duration of the career of a committed teacher (DoE, 2008).

In spite of the fact that development practice needs to be continuous, all, issues of teaching and learning need to be monitored more often at school by the SMTs; hence, programmes of quality assurance are mostly school-based (du Plessis et al., 2007). For example, the Development Appraisal System (DAS) that came into being on 28 July 1998, the Performance Measurement System and Whole School Evaluation are school-based activities that are conducted at school with the supervision of the SMTs (du Plessis et al., 2007). Moreover, as stated by Knapp (2003), the traditional model of training can be more successful at promoting change to teachers and affecting learner performance if it could be of longer duration with follow-up activities at school. It is further stated that longer time allocated for professional development permits more time for teachers to learn about their practice especially if it includes follow-up (Joyce & Showers, 1995).

Although time is the necessary component for teaching and learning to occur, there is never enough time in the school day (or year) for teachers to do all of the things that need to be done (Supovitz & Turner, (2000). Teacher participants in the interview recognised that continued involvement with the programmes was a big commitment. Nonetheless, data revealed that participants wanted to keep on improving because they could, on their own, organise their collaborative activities. Therefore, it requires extended time to implement changes in classroom practice and classroom culture. However, by making professional development efforts align, and by including job-embedded time, improvement becomes possible (Supovitz & Turner, 2000).

The study has found that the teacher development programmes are not conducted at convenient times, the time spent on the training is inadequate and the content of their training is decided upon by their facilitators. This clearly supported the notion that teachers do not participate in the decision making of issues related to time allocated for their development programmes; partaking in the decision making would ensure that they choose convenient times for their development activities. The content of the training would be according to what teachers need. This idea was also outlined by the relationship between the choice of topics done during the

development programmes, duration of the programmes and the fact that it was the duty of teachers to identify the areas they needed to grow professionally. Data also reveals that it was mostly facilitators that chose the areas of teacher development (DoE, 2008).

Data indicates that the teachers and the SMTs at work meet for only an hour a month to discuss issues related to the curriculum. This result from the fact that time for consultation, observing colleagues or engage in other professional activities is not normally incorporated in the school schedule (Watts & Castle, 1993). Teachers feel uncomfortable when they have to leave their classrooms for professional development activities (Cambone, 1995) quoted in Ismat, 1996). In countries like China, Japan and Germany, time for interaction is integrated into the school day (Ismat, 1996). In each teacher's school day, therefore, there is a set-aside time which is used for collegial collaboration and other professional work.

These countries have various ways of creating time for teacher development at school. One of the ways is that of extending a school day or year by extracting time from the existing schedule, thus, altering staff utilisation patterns. Temporary teachers, college students and administrators are used to take care of the classes in the absence of the teachers. As a result, schools will have regular release days in the year plan. This turns out to be a positive system because it will demand joint planning between the district office and the schools. Another option is that of using regular staff or district meeting days for teacher development. There is also another alternative where school breaks, especially the mid-year school break, where teachers could be gathered and get developed for a week or two. These are the attempts of stopping the idea of considering a teacher's place during school hours as being in front of a class which isolates teachers and discourages collaboration.

Data has also indicated that the facilitators do not introduce teachers to any of the collaborative activities, but they informally meet and discuss issues of their classroom practice. At school, the SMTs do not influence teachers towards school-based collaborative development activities, whereas teachers participating in the on-site community of practice professional development work together over an extended period of time. This involves much more than the technical knowledge or skills associated with undertaking some task (Maistry, 2008). Members in a community of

practice are involved in a set of relationships over time and communities develop around some particular area of knowledge and activity. According to Wenger (1998), communities of practice give members a sense of joint enterprise and identity. This binds people together and helps to facilitate relation and trust that leads to situated learning.

That is why teachers need to learn in and from practice (Ball & Cohen, 1999). In the case of school-based development programmes the training occurs within the school schedule in order to fulfil the immediate needs of the school. At school, there are development activities that fail to wait for the facilitator to come to school although it is the facilitators that are responsible for organising CPTD. Thus, subject advisors (facilitator) do not always have to be the ones to conduct professional teacher development programmes, especially the school-based ones like coaching and mentoring. Learning in and from other practice allows other important components of effective professional development to occur either than those organised by the facilitators of teacher development (Ball & Cohen, 1999). Nevertheless, data shows that professional teacher development is offered only by subject advisors (facilitators).

It has been revealed in the data that teachers use few hours after school for collegial learning and planning. Teacher development activities that are in the form of workshops or brief meetings held before, during or after the school day are insufficient for the collegial learning and planning activities. International teachers in countries like China, Japan and Germany spend more hours in school but they spend less time actually instructing learners (Sparks, 1994). An important barrier to providing time to teacher development is the uncertainty about what to do with learners while teachers are away from their classrooms (Sparks, 1994).

According to Smith & Gillespie (2007), there is a direct and positive correlation between the number of hours teachers participate in a professional development activity and the amount and type of change related to the topic of the professional development they demonstrate in the following year. Furthermore, studies of professional teacher development indicate that creating change in teachers is a time consuming process that requires many meetings and workshops over an extended period of time (Day & Sachs, 2004).

Effective professional teacher development focuses on improving instructional practice by providing teachers with new knowledge and techniques for assessing learning with the ultimate goal of improving the learning of students (du Plessis et al., 2007). Over the years, research has shown the need for an integrated professional development approach that touches all aspects of instruction and includes the time necessary to have a lasting impact and result in changes (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1999). It has also been noticed that one-time professional teacher development workshops are often outside of the context of the school, not typically aligned with ongoing practice and do not reliably lead to changes in classroom teaching (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1999). Apart from academic and professional capabilities, facilitators through experience are supposed to be able to consider the frequency and duration of teacher development programmes as data indicated that their experience range between six and thirty five years. The fact that facilitators have some years of teaching experience suggests that their ignorance of the time required for workshops is caused by their incapacity as facilitators. This can also be attributed to the fact that they hold primary teachers' diploma. The B.Ed qualification is an up- grading programme that does not include teaching practice.

The topics that are offered in the teacher development sessions provide knowledge that is generated in teacher networks, school-based development models and partnerships (Day & Sachs, 2004) which would lead to reflective practice. As demonstrated in the study (see figure 4.3) facilitators, despite the limited time of development, offer almost what would be suitable for teachers to be comfortable in their classroom practice, especially if support sessions would follow the training. If the SMTs do not have time allocated for school-based development programmes teachers at school might not have enough knowledge of practice.

It would have been better if these programmes were school-focused because school-focused CPTD refers to training which occurs outside the normal working milieu and is presented by agencies like higher education institutions, educationists (McBride, 1989:41). The roles and functions of role players in compilation, planning and implementation need to comply with the needs of an individual school and personnel, receive attention here. Therefore, school-focused CPTD complies with the needs of the school as organisation, including the needs and expectations of

each teacher as individual (Gettly, 2002:36). As confirmed by Conner (1991), that school-focused CPTD should be based on needs identified by the teachers. Cluster teachers and senior teachers who would have been able to conduct teacher development on-site, according to this study, are not taking any part in the development of teachers.

This confirms that experienced teachers have traditionally been neglected, despite calls for professional teacher development for all stages of a career (Borko, 2004; Day & Sachs, 2004). The extent to which teaching careers offer continued advancement as well as opportunities to contribute to the quality of education is important for the recruitment and retention of highly qualified and motivated professionals (Motala & Pampallis 2002; Day & Sachs 2004). These experienced teachers could be well used for communities of practice and other school-based development programmes because they appreciate opportunities to share their expertise informally as teachers (Muijs et al., 2004).

According to Starbuck & Hedberg, (2003), these senior teachers have the capacity to engage in more formal teacher and school support activities beyond their own individual classrooms. In a research project by Western Cape Education Department (WCED) in South Africa with King's College in London the strategy of following teachers to their classrooms was not successful as teachers did not enjoy the experience because they felt that it placed them in a subordinate role. This suggests that teachers are more comfortable with being followed up by senior teachers of their own schools as the follow-up is going to be informal (Muijs et al., 2004).

However, teachers cite their time as a precious resource, because they claim that it is difficult to leave the classroom during working hours, and CPTD should be highly relevant in order for them to attend. Furthermore, in most of the workshops, they were not supplied with any resource materials. In a research conducted in Ireland, teachers claimed that shortage of time, more than anything else was a deciding factor in how successful their CPTD work could be (Ismat, 1996).

Another interesting finding is that time constraints do not, on the schools' side, inhibit CPTD because enthusiastic staff would always make time for such activities. It is the district officials that plan once-off workshops; therefore, they do not have time. The

fact that CPTD facilitators do not have enough time is confirmed by the fact that facilitators do not have time even for visit to schools.

## **6.5 IMPROVEMENT OF CLASSROOM PRACTICE AFTER TEACHER DEVELOPMENT**

Teachers learning through professional development may not result in changed practice and improved student performance although it is assumed that teachers who have developed strong content knowledge are more likely to become effective teachers as compared to those with weak content knowledge. CPTD will not, should not and cannot always produce 'pay off' in classroom learning, and student performance and achievement but can only have an indirect impact on student learning (Cordingley, Bell & Rundell, 2003). Generally, after attending the CPTD programmes, it is expected that teacher change and performance should be marked in terms of improved teachers' attitudes, beliefs and understanding, which will lead to improved classroom practice.

According to research, teachers make changes to the content of the lessons through specific teacher activities or in generic learning processes (Cordingley, Bell & Rundell, 2003). Then there is more effective teaching after teachers have increased their knowledge. Also, as teachers benefit themselves from more active learning opportunities; this becomes manifested in their practice with greater focus on active learning. It alludes to the fact that teachers involved in active learning through collaborative CPTD are trying to teach with less telling. They use student problems as a focus for learning or they provide more feedback to learners and teaching becomes learning than task oriented (Cordingley, Bell & Rundell, 2003). This study shows that most of the workshops conducted by the district officials are content-based because they are mostly about closing the content gaps

In most of the teacher development programmes that have to do with classroom practice, what determines the effectiveness of the development received is the quality of support received with it or delivered afterwards (Jansen & Sayed, 2001). It is further indicated that apart from the undertaking both nationally and locally to transform education and training of teachers, necessary as this professional challenge has been, it needs to be accompanied by support programmes. All

teachers, therefore, including the experienced ones, are required to renew their knowledge and skills throughout their teaching careers (Tang, 2001). To ensure the improvement of learner performance, teachers need to be appropriately trained by finding suitable professional teacher development models (Argote, et al., 2003).

Research has acknowledged that teacher professional development programmes have become more continuous and content focused (Mundry, 2005). It is further argued that teacher professional development focuses on learning content as well as teaching methods and also aiming at improving them to the required standard. However, mere attendance of development programmes does not necessarily guarantee teachers' professional development (Garet et al., 2001). Some researchers believe that many teacher professional development programmes are ineffective and do not meet the set goals (Boyle, Lamprianou & Boyle, (2005) blame this ineffectiveness of teacher professional development programmes on incorrect research assumptions and even the complete absence of research. This ineffectiveness of CPTD, therefore, can easily lead to unchanged classroom practice because teachers aspire to grow in their ability to reach all learners.

Unfortunately, other than the once a year, summative assessment of learner teachers does not mirror their teaching. The study shows that teachers are not introduced to reflective practice. Without their strengths and weaknesses, teachers cannot grow because it is through the capacity to reflect on action so as to engage in a process of continuous learning, which is one of the defining characteristics of professional practice. Reflection is an important human activity in which people recapture their experience, think about it, mull it over and evaluate it. It is this working with experience that is important in teaching and learning. Reflective practice can be an important tool in practice-based professional learning settings where individuals learning from their own professional experiences, rather than from formal teaching or knowledge transfer, may be the most important source of personal professional development and improvement. As such, the notion has achieved wide take-up, particularly in professional development for practitioners in the area of education and healthcare ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/reflective\\_practice](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/reflective_practice)).

Data revealed that facilitators do not have any system of follow-up strategies after teacher development programmes, although they need to view teachers' change

environment. After the training, facilitators need to observe teachers' knowledge, beliefs and attitudes, sources of support and information provided to teachers, professional experimentation; and observable outcomes of student learning. This is in line with Guskey's (1986) theory of teacher change where change in one domain leads to change in another.

### **6.5.1 Teacher support programmes - coaching/mentoring and monitoring**

According to Shulman, (1987) in Hargreaves (1994), to teach learners according to contemporary standards, teachers need to understand subject matter deeply and flexibly so they can help learners create useful cognitive maps, relate one idea to another and address misconceptions. Teachers need to understand how ideas connect across fields and to everyday life. It is further acknowledged that this kind of understanding provides a foundation for pedagogical content knowledge that enables teachers to make ideas accessible to learners (Hargreaves, 1994). In developing CPTD programmes, it is useful to consider the problematic issue of transfer as the immediate manifestation of teacher learning, but, although the development of strong subject content knowledge has potential for classroom practice immediate transfer is not likely to occur (Maistry, 2008). Hence, there should be school-based and school-focused transitional collaborative development programmes like coaching, mentoring communities of practice and networks as indicated by Kennedy (2005; Ross et al., 2006).

Another most important finding was that teachers are not getting the standard of support as it could be expected from the implementers of CPTD programmes. Support and pressure also provide encouragement, motivation and occasional nudging that many practitioners require persisting in the challenging tasks that are intrinsic to all change efforts (Guskey, 2002).

Organisational support has also to be considered in any CPTD programme implementation, in that without support, it is difficult to realise and sustain teacher change. CPTD programme facilitators and school administration including colleagues in the schools should provide the support the teacher needs so as to feel confident to implement whatever that was learnt at the CPTD programme (Chisholm, 2004; Maistry, 2008). Furthermore, the participant should have an intrinsic motivation

and determination to take risk by trying to bring about change in their own classroom practice by making use of the new knowledge and skills attained from training. Teachers are always excited after an effective teacher development activity because they like having something new to take back to their classrooms after the workshop (Chisholm, 2004). Therefore, peer coaching can bring about best practices, and better articulated curriculum. It has contributed to an overall improvement in teaching and learning in the schools (Bolhuis, 2006). This study also indicates that school support visits have little to do with teacher transformation but more to do with summative assessment (examination-based).

This is contrary to what PDoE's (2007) understanding of school support visits. Conducting school support visits, according to PDoE, (2007), is an on-going developmental process. It involves supporting teachers in a transparent manner at school and classroom level. During school support visits, the teaching and learning process is supported and mechanisms to improve teaching strategies are shared. It is also an essential component for ensuring effective curriculum implementation at classroom level.

Prior studies that have noted the importance of teacher support programmes have found that systemic, ongoing teacher professional development is more effective than traditional one-time workshops (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). Research has also shown that one-time professional development workshops are often outside the context of the school, not typically aligned with ongoing practice and do not reliably lead to classroom teaching (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1999). Therefore, support programmes that are conducted at school focus on improving instructional practice. In the case where these programmes are not conducted and the only programmes that are said to be effective are these school support programmes it, implies that teachers are not adequately developed.

For facilitators to ensure quality school-based continuous teacher development that will culminate in quality teaching and learning, according to international evidence, teachers should be integrally involved and reflecting on their own practice. This requires a strong school-based component, well coordinated activities and above all a provision of sustained leadership and support (PDoE, 2007). Professional teacher development can no longer be taken as an event that occurs on a particular day of

the school year; over a two-week school holiday or a half-day workshop (microwave development as teachers called it). Rather, it must become part of the daily life of teachers. Teachers, administrators and other school system employees need time to work in teams, conduct action research, participate in seminars, coach one another, plan lessons together and meet for other purposes (du Plessis et al., 2007).

## **6.6 CONCLUSION**

Unfortunately, implementing a CPTD plan is often hampered by other perceptions of teachers' work. According to Zambo & Zambo (2008), educational transformation has changed expectations of teachers, although the public is of the opinion that teachers' work has not changed. They continue to think that teachers are working only when they are with their learners. As a result, there is little support for providing the time and resources teachers require changing their practice. Castle and Watts (1992) explain that the traditional view of teachers' work is governed by the idea that time with learners is of singular value, that teachers are primarily deliverers of content, that curricular planning and decision making rest at higher levels of authority, and that professional development is unrelated to improving instruction.

This limited view of teaching does not allow opportunities for teachers to participate in professional development learn and share successful methods of reaching learners, discuss comprehensive and sufficient ways to implement standards and continue their own learning (McDiarmid, 1995). This attitude could only be cleared by the micro, meso and macro CPTD stakeholders, which means that it was the duty of the facilitators and the SMTs in the micro level of teacher development that could change the public opinion in favour of improved teaching and learning at school (du Plessis et al., 2007).

# CHAPTER SEVEN

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a summary of the findings by presenting key ideas, perceptions and questions from the study. The purpose of the study was to assess the implementation of continuing professional teacher development and support programmes for teachers in rural secondary schools of Lady Frere district in Eastern Cape. The change from apartheid to democratic government in South Africa is a fundamental process that entailed thorough-going transformation in the economic, political and social spheres. New policies were put in place to transform the education system and to provide high quality education for all South Africans (Gelb, 1998).

Among the changes that took place, was the introduction of a new curriculum which adopted an OBE approach to teaching and learning, (Chisholm, 2004). With the new curriculum, suitable CPTD (in-service) programmes needed to be established (Morgan, 2005). These programmes were to provide teachers with the necessary skills, resources knowledge and support required for teachers to be effective implementers of the new curriculum. Apart from the reforms, there has been an increase in the focus on CPTD in most countries throughout the world (Fraser et.al, 2007; Coolahan, 2002). National reviews, teacher development summits, Education Labour Relations Council reports and analyses of the various issues involved in education in South Africa prompted the researcher to reflect on the nature of CPTD and teacher change. Teachers were trained and are still being trained but there was no change in learner performance (Chisholm, 2004).

Subsequently, the professional development of teachers has become an important subject in teacher education in the world (Tang, 2001). Increasingly, teaching is specialised work and teachers as developing professionals should reach the maturity both in the context and level of their profession through lifelong learning and exploring (Ding, 2001). Added to this realisation is the changing role of the teacher in

the information and knowledge society (DoE, 2006). The emergence of the information and knowledge society created a change of mindset in learning as new approaches to learning necessitate new approaches to teaching which challenge teachers' traditional role as knowledge provider (Tang, 2001). Therefore, present teachers need to be committed to and continually engaged in pursuing upgrading, self-monitoring and reviewing their own professional learning. A variety of teacher development approaches were reviewed to determine the strengths and limitations of current approaches to professional development. None of them came up with a systematised programme of teacher development (Chisholm, 2004).

Unfortunately, the numerous workshops and conferences have not produced much significant change in teachers' classroom practice (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:60).

In chapter three the research framework was discussed. The researcher also drew on insights from Maistry's (2008) study in Teaching Economic Management Sciences (TEMS), Teacher Development Project and Graven's (2002) initial works and subsequent refinement. Both studies acknowledged the importance and peculiarity of different learning contexts and their implications for teacher development in South Africa. Since the 1980s, CPTD has become an important subject in teacher education worldwide, although not much empirical research has been done on the assessment of the continuing professional teacher development programmes (Maistry, 2008). The above assertions prompted the researcher to engage on this study whose intention was to assess the implementation of continuous professional teacher development programmes in the Lady Frere District of Eastern Cape, in South Africa.

The present study intended to assess:

- 3.1.1 the amount of time allocated for the implementation of different CPTD programmes on and off-school sites;
- 3.1.2 the capacity of facilitators and cluster leaders of the CPTD programmes;
- 3.1.3 appropriateness of the:
  - strategies used for training;
  - training and development materials used to implement CPTD programmes;

- 3.1.4 the process in which teachers implement what they have learnt from the programmes; and
- 3.1.5 the support and monitoring programmes put in place by the Department of Education to assist teachers implement what they have learnt in the programmes.

For this kind of study, the researcher adopted the tenets of mixed method methodology embedded in the post-positivist research paradigm. The mixed method approach is based on the methodological notion of method triangulation as a means of seeking convergence across qualitative and quantitative methods (Patton, 1990). This approach was expected to create reliable explanation through triangulation. The main tenets of post-positivism are that the knower and the known cannot be separated. In bringing together the benefits of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to research, the method often claims greater validity of results as a reason for their methodological choices (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2006). Post-positivism, therefore, does not claim that there is no objective reality, only that reality cannot be known or understood separate from culture/values. Thus, it is important to approach the phenomenon under inquiry from diverse angles and to integrate diverse explanation resulting from diverse methods (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2006).

The use of this method assisted the researcher because the combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods provided a better understanding of the research problem and questions (Creswell, 2008). As a result qualitative data, such as open-ended interviews that provide actual words of people in the study offered many different perspectives on the study topic and provided a complex picture of the situation. This methodology afforded the researcher the opportunity to seek a variety of answers and views on implementation of professional teacher development from departmental officials, facilitators of the development programmes, senior management teams and teachers from different clusters. As the participants were from different categories of the teaching and learning profession, the choice of this methodology was an advantage as it enabled the participants to respond comfortably to the questions asked. This provided the researcher with a wider range on the data collection instruments; hence, the researcher opted for questionnaires, face-to-face interviews, observations and document analysis.

Questionnaires were administered to the sampled participants as interviews were conducted to the relevant participants. This enabled the researcher to observe some salient features and probe for more information on some grey areas on the implementation of professional teacher development programmes. However, the researcher had to conduct overt observation because of ethical problems related to concealing the observation (Creswell, 2008). This was in line with Borg and Gall (2007) who noted that observation is one of the techniques that can also be used when data is collected through other means as was difficult to validate.

## **7.2 MAIN FINDINGS**

CPTD programmes in the rural secondary schools of Lady Frere in the Eastern Cape are outlined below. A summary of the findings on how much time is allocated to CPTD by the department of education and the schools is outlined in this section. This section will present the summary of professional teacher development models mostly used, capacity of facilitators, and improvement of classroom practice after development programmes and teacher support programmes.

### **7.2.1 Professional development models mostly used**

The findings of this study reveal that the model that is mostly used in the Lady Frere District is the centralised once-off development programme which has been proved to be ineffective. According to Kennedy (2005), this model focuses on technical aspects of the job rather than issues relating to values, beliefs and attitudes. The traditional and most commonly used centralised approaches to CPTD include workshops, seminars and conferences that adopt a technical and simplistic view of teaching in the belief that teachers' knowledge and skills be improved by using experts from outside school (Fraser et al., 2007).

These programmes have not proved to be very effective since they do not succeed in improving teachers' subject knowledge or pedagogical skills sufficiently (Kennedy, 2005). Its weakness is that it separates theory from classroom practice as it is taking place off-site. Teachers are marginalised because the programme is determined by stakeholders and facilitators and adopts a narrow perspective of teaching and learning (Fraser et al., 2007). Hence, it has been suggested that CPTD programmes

and models that do not lead to improved teaching and learning should not be used for teacher development and therefore should be abandoned (Kennedy, 2005). The ineffectiveness of the centralised programmes is said to be compounded by the fact that most rural teachers, although they have inferior education, are not predisposed to reading (Maistry, 2008).

In the case of school-based and school-focused development programmes facilitators do not seem to be aware of what is actually involved with these models of development. Although the facilitators are aware of the effectiveness of school-based development programmes, they do not seem to be well informed about them. According to the facilitators, it is only about visiting schools to check on curriculum issues. Even with teachers and cluster leaders, school-based development is about somebody going or coming to another teacher's classroom and assist in the delivery of a lesson for that particular teacher. They are not aware that a school-based programme is or can be a programme organised by the school personnel to develop teachers within the school (Day & Sachs, 2004). It is worse with the school-focused development programmes where participants are not aware of the programme.

Facilitators do not have any special programmes to follow-up on the transitional methods, like coaching and mentoring, to teacher development. Facilitators have not introduced schools to coaching and mentoring which are school-based transitional models. There is no coaching and mentoring in schools, even with monitoring, has nothing to do with classroom practice but CASS moderation. Facilitators on the other hand, are claiming that it is them that do coaching and monitoring of teachers at school. This contradiction gives an impression that facilitators do not have planned follow-up activities with schools which might create challenges for teachers because coaching and mentoring are some of the follow-up support programmes that needed to help adult learners transfer learning into daily practice so that it is sustained (Speck, 1998).

According to Speck (1998), for adult learners to understand what they have to know, learning is not automatic and must be facilitated. Coaching and other kinds of follow-up support are needed to help adult learners transfer learning into daily practice so that it is sustained. Moreover, adult learning has ego involved, as a result, professional development must be structured to provide support from peers so as to

reduce the fear of judgment during learning (Speck 1998). Peer coaching is advantageous to adult learning as there could be adult learners who prefer to learn in different ways. For example, pragmatists can better be developed by peer feedback and activities that apply the skills. It is quite challenging for a pragmatist to be engaged in a development approach that demands them to sit in a lecture (Honey & Mumford, 2000). Thus, coaching and mentoring after a centralised teacher development approach can be of help to most teachers at school.

As far as communities of practice and teacher networks are concerned facilitators are not sure of what communities of practice and teacher networks are exactly all about. It is believed that planning communities of practices with teachers is a challenge because teachers need to be supervised. Contrary to that, teachers indicate that they enjoy meeting their colleagues from other districts and discuss issues related to their teaching and learning practices to an extent of informally organising their communities of practice and network activities. Apart from facilitators' regard of communities of practice and teacher networks, cluster leaders and subject teachers claim that they would prefer collaborative activities to these centralized workshops, where teachers of the same subject would come together and discuss issues of their subject in a way of developing themselves.

Learning communities have an advantage that schools can exploit, that of it not requiring a designated expert as teachers basically learn from each other. Rogoff (1990) in support of this idea asserts that in a learning community learners scaffold one another's learning through a powerful exchange of ideas. Another advantage is that professional development that is based on work that is self-selected would create a sense of ownership and collegiality that may lead to the development of communities of mutual inquiry (Maistry, 2008; Rogoff, 1990). This however, may be a challenge in a context where teacher knowledge of subject content is seriously lacking. Hence, a serious question may arise as to whether such systematic, practitioner enquiry, scaffolding and self-selection can in fact occur in a teacher learning community where teachers do not have content knowledge (Rogoff, 1990). This can seriously be a question in the case of South African teachers where the apartheid legacy has left most teachers without enough content and pedagogical knowledge (Chisholm, 2004).

This kind of networking had little or nothing to do with continuous professional teacher development. Participants have little or no idea about teacher networks and how they could be formed. But, on the issue of what the participants would regard as the effective professional teacher development, they mentioned almost all the collaborative activities mentioned in data collection. Teacher networks which Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) called interactive professionalism, are introduced to enable teachers to move away from traditional professional development.

Moreover, collaborative inquiry increases teachers' individual capacity to learn. It manages knowledge and value diversity so as to increase individual capacity to manage continuous teacher improvement and development. This also improves teacher effectiveness since it also encourages teachers to take risks and to engage with different methodologies (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1991). Collaboration and peer coaching are also some of the modes of development undertaken at school (Day & Sachs, 2004).

The present study has revealed some insights from social practice theory which could lead to effective teacher development. Teachers could manage to form communities of practice as revealed in the study but the intervention of subject advisors in the implementation of the new curriculum (NCS) appears to have created a dependency syndrome on the part of the teachers since planning was done by the subject advisors for teachers. Even in that case, such plans did not consider the teachers' own school context and were sometimes difficult to implement (Ntapo, 2009).

### **7.2.2 Capacity of facilitators**

The study has found that facilitators seem to be the only body that is in charge of the CPTD programme in schools although they do not seem to be capacitated well enough to conduct the development programmes. Apart from being unable to systematise the development programmes (transmissive, transitional and transformative), they are not clear on what on-site and off-site programmes are all about. In the case of on-site development programmes they think that it is only about facilitators visiting schools. They are not capacitated enough to know that on-site (school-based) programmes should be mostly organised by the school for its personnel (Day & Sachs, 2004). Most teachers like the idea of school-based

development programmes but they do not understand its purpose as it was not introduced to them. The same also applies to the school-focused development programmes because the SMTs and teachers think that school-focused development models are opportunities that afford the staff and the SMT to discuss issues of the school, not teacher development.

Generally, facilitator capacity of a teacher training programme involves knowledge and dispositions that are required from facilitators to be able to train and develop teachers in the service (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1995). CPTD facilitators need to know more about social practice theory that provides a framework for useful and meaningful insights and as such offers much potential for CPTD (Wenger, 1998). The goal of any teacher development programme is to help teachers change so as to be able to assist learners in meeting their achievement goals (Lester, 2003).

According to Guskey (1986), facilitators need to know that significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs occur primarily after teachers have gained evidence of improvements in learner performance. These improvements typically result from changes teachers have made in their classroom practices, instructional approach, the use of new materials or a modification in teaching procedures. This can occur if facilitators would, in their development programmes adopt strategies that would assist teachers to change, like coaching, mentoring and networks, as these would result in change in classroom practice, and, therefore, change in learner performance. Lastly facilitator capacity would be judged by their awareness of adult learning theories.

One of the major determining factors to good quality CPTD is the professional experiences/qualifications of facilitators (Chisholm, 2004). Apart from being trained for a specific programme, like OBE, It is noticed that facilitators are not trained on facilitation according to SAQA accreditation. Qualified CPTD facilitators should design and plan CPTD programmes with teachers as people who know best what they need (Day & Sachs, 2004). However, teacher development programmes are planned according to the focus of the district office (facilitators). Furthermore, as it is the responsibility of facilitators to have follow-up strategies after the development programmes (Fraser et al., 2007), school support and follow-up programmes like coaching and mentoring, are not conducted in schools.

Competent facilitators coach teachers such that they become reflective practitioners that would be responsible for their own learning. Moreover, capable facilitators, before the implementation of any CPTD programme, should thoroughly view the professional development cycle and recognise how adults learn (Earley & Bubb, 2004). Facilitators do not meet the needs and expectations of teachers most of the teachers interviewed revealed that they are not satisfied with how the programmes are conducted and that they do not find the facilitators being capable of conducting teacher development programmes.

For professional teacher development to be effective depends on the facilitators of teacher development programmes. It should be facilitated by experts and specialists in both subject content and pedagogical knowledge (Steyl, 2009). Facilitators with theoretical knowledge, pedagogical skills and communication skills also need to have expertise based on practical experience for them to be capable of conducting CPTD programmes. Thus, facilitators who organise once-off workshops are not fully capacitated to facilitate CPTD. Hence, Palardy & Rumberger (2008) believe that devoting no time or little time for synthesis, integration beyond the programme is inadequate preparation for application.

Furthermore, professional development that focuses on content knowledge contributes to change in instructional practice (Porter et al., 2001). Therefore, facilitators need to be experts in subject content, focus on learning, on problem-solving and reflectiveness (Guskey, 1999; Sparks, 1995). Professional development that does not include a variety of activities like theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and classroom application (Joyce & Showers, 1995) indicates incapacity of facilitators. Furthermore, professional teacher development should encourage teachers to participate in professional development with others from their school, grade or department. Thus, Porter et al., (2001) emphasises that facilitators who do not assist teachers to organise job-embedded or on-site and school-focused professional development can be termed ineffective and incompetent.

Due to quality and specialisation of service, facilitators may not have the capacity to support teachers while on the other hand teachers cannot be required to undertake facilitator-driven activities if they have no convenient access to them (DoE, 2008).

The unavailability of competent facilitators of teacher development programmes in terms of geographical spread, capacity and range of specialisation is a serious risk (Chisholm, 2004; Maistry, 2008; DoE, 2008). The sources of professional development facilitation are the subject advisory services in Provincial Education Departments (PED), and higher education institutions (DoE, 2008). Thus, it is notable that the capacity of education departments to support and monitor the envisaged CPTD system for their employees is inadequate, especially at district level (DoE, 2008). This illustrates those inadequate teachers in districts that are mostly rural and depend solely on subject advisors may, therefore, not be getting sufficient professional development, support and monitoring. Most importantly, apart from the fact that facilitators are not SAQA accredited, their academic and professional qualifications show that they need to be developed in order to be more skilled to be able to facilitate. According to the indicated experience they should by now be able to facilitate but data indicates otherwise.

### **7.2.3 Time allocated to CPTD**

From the information on how frequent do the facilitators plan the teacher development programmes, it was revealed that there are few centralised off-site development programmes that are conducted by the facilitators. The programmes are few because the facilitators claim that they are handling many programmes; therefore, they do not have time for frequent teacher development programmes. The SMTs clearly expressed that in their schools, there can never be any time for teacher development because their schedules are tight; where they would make sure that teacher development is allocated enough time, staff is faced with a lot of recording that leaves them basically with no chance of other programmes except teaching. Furthermore, if their own workshops as SMTs could be organised for longer periods of time, not these one day workshops, conditions at school could be far better than they are at present because they would be capacitated well enough for them to handle issues of teacher development.

Literature reviewed on time allocation to CPTD programmes is against these short-term workshops. Hence, Knapp (2003) states that the traditional model of training can be more successful at promoting change to teachers and affecting learner performance if it could be of longer duration with follow-up activities at school. It is further stated that longer time professional development permits more time for

teachers to learn about their practice especially if it includes follow-up (Joyce & Showers, 1995). Therefore, one hour spent by HoDs and teachers discussing issues of the curriculum is inadequate. But if one hour twice or thrice a week was allocated for teacher development and support (coaching and mentoring) that can be acceptable (Day & Sachs, 2004). Hence, it is also stated that once-off workshops without follow-ups are ineffective in developing subject matter knowledge or even pedagogical knowledge (Adler & Reed, 2002).

Maistry (2008) further advocates that sustained development programmes over extended periods of time are much more likely to have lasting impact on teachers than once-off professional development. Moreover, the development of professional practice is a continuing practice that lasts for the duration of the career of a committed teacher (DoE, 2008). According to Supovitz and Turner (2000), there is never enough time in the school day (or year) for teachers to do all of the things that need to be done, although time is the necessary component for learning to occur. Therefore, it takes extended time to implement changes in classroom practice and classroom culture. However, by making professional development efforts align, and by including job-embedded time, improvement becomes possible.

The appropriateness of teacher development programmes depends on the number of hours participants spend on the activity and over what span of time the activity takes place. Longer duration activities provide for the desired content, specific focus, active learning and more connection to teachers' experiences (Dembelle & Schwille, 2007). This study also pointed out that the participants were in favour of longer development programmes. Although some of them indicated that they had gained a lot from the workshops, it is clear from the feedback of some of the participants that training which takes place for a day does not benefit them. All participants that gave comments on the amount of time they would have liked given to the development programmes indicated a minimum of five days.

Even internationally the issue of time for CPTD programmes still remains a challenge. In a significant proportion of international schools, teachers are hesitant about leaving their classes in order to undertake professional development activities (Cambone, 1995; Raywid, 1993). In secondary schools (FET schools), for example, teachers try wherever possible, to undertake activities on days when their teaching

loads are lighter or at times when their lessons could be covered by their departmental colleagues. Most teachers are very willing to plan professional development activities. In the main, however, such planning tends to be short term, focusing on the courses to be attended or other development opportunities to be undertaken (OECD, 2008). It is imperative for departmental officials to consider the issue of time when planning CPTD programmes.

According to Cambone (1995) and Raywid (1993), school schedules (time tables) do not normally include time to consult or observe colleagues or any other professional agreement. In the overseas countries like China, Japan and Germany, time for collegial interaction and collaboration is integrated into the school day (Ismat, 1996). Raywid, 1993) suggests that schools should create time set aside for professional development as it is done in Asian schools. Teachers in Asia spend 30-40% of their time out of the classroom allowing time for other professional engagements.

Furthermore, Watts and Castle (1993) suggest three effective broad approaches to make time for teachers to collaborate. Time can be added by extending the school period by extracting time from the existing schedule and altering staff utilisation patterns. Time can also be created by using teaching assistants (contract teachers in the case of South Africa, college students, parents and administrators) to take care of the classes in the absence of the class teacher. In that way, regular release days in the year are created. It is further suggested that school days can be restructured by lengthening school days on four days of the week. The time used for staff or district meetings can be better used for planning and professional growth rather than informational or administrative purposes (Ismat, 1996).

Tanner, Cannady and Rettig (1995) suggest that for teachers that have common assignments, block scheduling can be used. The school schedule (time table) can be structured such that a quarter of the teaching staff is freed in order that they may engage in other professional work during each period of the day. For example, in Teaching and Learning Collaborative in Massachusetts, on one day per week teachers have no teaching duties. They use this alternative professional time to pursue alternative roles. This can be enabled by the presence of full time teaching interns or contract workers (Hackman, 1995).

Contrary to the suggested options for creating time for CPTD, DoE and SACE argue that the time for professional development under the CPTD system may prove to be a contentious issue (DoE, 2008). According to DoE (2008:34), professional duties (including meetings, workshops, seminars and conferences) and professional teacher development are among the core duties and part of the workload of state employed school-based teachers and they are to be conducted centrally outside of the normal school day. Teachers are required to attend programmes of ongoing professional development, up to a maximum of 80 hours per annum. These programmes have to be attended outside the formal school day or during the vacations as stipulated in the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) (Resolution No. 7 of 1998).

According to Knapp (2003), these centralised once-off workshops can be more successful at promoting change or affecting learner performance if they could be of longer duration. Teacher development programmes are more effective in changing teachers' practice when they are of longer duration (Porter et al., 2000) as they permit more time for teachers to learn about their practice. Nonetheless, the programmes have to include follow-ups (Joyce & Showers, 1995). There is a direct and positive correlation between the number of hours teachers participate in a professional development activity and the extent and type of change after the training (Stein, Smith & Silver, 1999). It is further argued that creating change in teachers is a time consuming process that requires many meetings and workshops over an extended period of time (Smith & Gillespie, 2007). Once-off workshops that are conducted in a day are likely to result in limited teacher development and change.

The design and planning of the CPTD programmes does not consider the fact that teacher development is about adult learners who would need concrete and active experiences. Schools are different because they have diverse staff members with various career stages. Thus, the SMTs of the various schools should know the time required for the teacher development in their schools.

#### **7.2.4 Improvement of classroom practice after development programmes**

To ensure the improvement of learner performance, teachers need to be appropriately trained by finding suitable teacher development models (Chisholm, 2004; Maistry, 2008)). Some researchers believe that many teacher development programmes are ineffective and do not meet the set goals (Boyle, et al., (2005). Moreover, this ineffectiveness of CPTD can easily lead to unchanged classroom practice because teachers need to grow in their ability to reach learners. Without their strengths and weaknesses, teachers cannot grow because it is through the capacity to reflect on action so as to engage in a process of continuous learning. Reflective practice moves teachers from their knowledge base of distinct skills to a stage in their careers where they are able to modify their skills to suit specific contexts and situations and eventually to invent new strategies (Boyle et al., 2005).

The researcher observed that most of the workshops conducted by the district officials are content-based as they are mostly about closing the content gaps. The facilitators are clear about the information delivered but teachers cannot transfer the information to the learners after the workshop (as explained in the observation section of data analysis). But, when the training is more collaborative teachers conduct successful lessons that lead to satisfactory learner performance thereafter. Then, if teachers could reflect after satisfactory learner performance, as a result of a new strategy gained, there could be a significant change in classroom practice.

There is an assumption that teachers who have developed strong content knowledge through professional development are more likely to become effective as compared to those with weak content knowledge (Hargreaves, 1994; Bolam, 2000). Cordingley, Bell and Rundell (2003) argue that professional development on its own does not always result in changed practice and improved learner performance. CPTD cannot always produce 'pay off' in classroom learning and learner performance and achievement but can only have an indirect impact on student learning. Hence teachers have to be engaged in continuous professional development at school because there are too many other variables which prevent immediate transfer of learning (Day & Sachs, 2004:65).

In developing CPTD programmes, it is useful to consider the problematic issue of transfer as the immediate manifestation of teacher learning because although the development of strong subject content knowledge has potential for classroom practice, immediate transfer is not likely to occur (Maistry, 2008). With these short-term professional development programmes that are mostly conducted appropriate strategies with strong connection between what is learnt in the professional development programmes and the teachers' own context need to be adopted (Day & Sachs, 2004). Professional development also needs to help teachers plan for application and to identify barriers to application that they will face once back in their classrooms. Also devoting no time or little time for synthesis, integration, and planning beyond the professional development programme is inadequate preparation for application (Ono, 2008).

After attending the CPTD programmes, it is generally expected that teacher change and performance should be marked in terms of improved teachers' attitudes, beliefs and understanding, that will lead to improved classroom practice (Hargreaves, 1995). Teachers make changes to the content of lessons as a result of teacher development, through specific teacher activities or in generic learning processes (Cordingley, Bell & Rundell, 2003). This means that there will be more effective teaching and learning after teachers have increased their knowledge in various subjects. Furthermore, teachers benefit themselves from more active learning opportunities; this becomes manifested in their practice, with greater focus on active learning (Bell & Gibert, 1996; Clarke & Hollingston, 2002). When teachers are involved in active learning through collaborative CPTD, they are trying to teach through facilitation, instead of unpacking information to the students. They use student problems as a focus for learning or provide more feedback to students and teaching becomes learning rather than task oriented (Lessing & de Witt, 2007). In cases where the collaborative and sustained CPTD did not lead to the targeted improvements teachers commit themselves to an additional and more specifically focused year of action research. This can be typical of teachers that have been appropriately developed and have taken responsibility of their development (Cordingley, Bell & Rundell, 2003).

## 7.2.5 Teacher support programmes

According to Kennedy (2005), the CPTD transitional models have the capacity to support either a transmissive agenda or a transformative one. Peer coaching, mentoring monitoring and communities of practice are models that fit under this category and they are supposed to be mostly handled at school by the support systems established by the SMTs and the departmental officials (facilitators). Both the SMTs and the facilitators have limited information with regard to transitional models of teacher development. Hence, teachers were claiming that they were not exposed to those models of development.

According to Loucks-Horsey et al (1999), a consensus of researchers and practitioners has found that systemic on-going teacher professional development is more effective than traditional one-time workshops. It has also been shown that one time professional development workshops are often outside the context of the school, not typically aligned with on-going practice and do not reliably lead to classroom teaching. Therefore, support programmes that are conducted at school should focus on improving instructional practice. In the case where these support programmes are not conducted at school, it would imply that teachers are not adequately developed. Nevertheless, according to this study, the capacity of the SMTs to support teachers at school was proved to have been handicapped by the fact that SMTs had limited skills to monitor and support teachers. When documents were analysed the researcher depicted a number of policy frameworks that were not followed by the departmental officials, for example:

- i. The NPFTED (2006) talks of reflective practice when participants in data collection revealed that they were never introduced to any kind of reflective practice; and
- ii. According to the government gazette it is strongly emphasized that teachers are the essential drivers of good quality education and CPTD succeeds best if teachers themselves are integrally involved; reflecting on their own practice; when there is a strong school-based component; when activities are well coordinated; and when employers provide sustained leadership and support.

Moreover, as far as the task team is concerned, for CPTD system to be manageable it is essential that provincial, district and circuit managers are well informed so that

they can inform and advise teachers. The need for support should not be underestimated; as a result, SACE needs to establish a call centre and help desk from the beginning. The same support system should be made available at district level. It was further emphasised that CPTD needed to be a purposeful system with seniors playing a directive and supportive role. As a result of that principals were to be held accountable for their own professional development, and for planning and supervising the professional development activities of their teachers. Coaching and mentoring are vital activities that school management should take care of, especially for new teachers. Senior teachers (cluster leaders) should be offered courses on mentorship and the establishment of a collaborative system would be highly acceptable, where teachers could network and learn from each other (DoE, 2008), including the issue of time available for professional development under CPTD systems which still remains a contentious issue. Data collected to that effect revealed that little or nothing had been designed as far as the support systems envisaged by DoE were concerned. Training manuals that were prepared by the provincial department of education were examination-based, full of activities and explanation of concepts.

According to the Teacher Development Summit (2009), monitoring procedures in relation to CPTD are weak in the great majority of the schools. In more than half of the secondary schools, monitoring arrangements rarely extend to verifying that newly acquired skills and knowledge are being applied successfully in classroom settings. Evaluation strategies for assessing the effect of professional development activities are generally weak (Davies, 2009). The teachers commonly complete the evaluation forms directly after the CPTD activity has taken place, but responses are limited mainly to assessing the quality of inputs and perceived usefulness of the activities. Only very rarely are CPTD activities evaluated after teachers have had the time to judge the success of implementing changes to their teaching as a result of the training (SADTU, 2002).

On the issue of what the participants regarded as effective indicators of CPTD programmes, they mentioned the importance of support, and emphasised the need for more coordinated cluster groups as well as the provision of resources. One of the most critical findings of the study is the lack of common and standardised procedures on how planning, especially for support programmes, school-based and

school-focused development activities. The researcher found that practitioners could not relate to the concept of collaborative school-based and school-focused activities and communities of practice as well as all aspects related to them. However, the support provided by cluster moderation sessions is found to be of help especially where teachers of the same grade, after moderation of marks, meet to discuss and share ideas on curriculum issues.

The ultimate goal of a successful CPTD is that of having positive impact in changing teachers' knowledge and practice. This implies that CPTD programmes should result in teacher change which consequently leads to improvements in student learning and performance. This study has revealed that most of the development programmes were centralised. Although teachers found such courses stimulating, the model has some disadvantages such as gaps between theory and practice (Craft, 1996); as a result, it does not lead to effective classroom practice. In this study it has been found that in the centralised workshops in the first term, conducted by the facilitators, teachers were taught new concepts that they were supposed to teach when they went back to their schools. It became difficult for the teacher to transfer the information to the learners and, therefore, little or no change in classroom practice. This proved that teachers did not change.

According to Guskey's (1986) theory significant changes in beliefs and attitudes of teachers are likely to take place only after student learning outcomes are evident. Hence, in the second observation session lessons were collaborative and learner performance became evident. The change of values, attitudes and beliefs during the lessons assisted the researcher to understand why teachers' values, attitudes and beliefs change. Significant change in values, attitudes and beliefs occurs primarily after they gain evidence of improvement in student learning. These improvements typically result from changes teachers have made in their classroom practices, a new instructional approach, the use of new materials or curricula, or simply a modification in teaching procedures or classroom format. The crucial point is that it is not the professional development per se, but the experience of successful implementation that changes teachers' attitudes and beliefs. They believe it works because they have seen it work, and that experience shapes their attitudes and beliefs. Thus, according to the model, the key element in significant change in teachers' attitudes

and beliefs is clear evidence of improvement in the learning outcome of their learners (Guskey, 1986; 1989).

On the other hand this study reveals that CPTD implementation is in line with Wenger's (1998) theory of practice that focuses on collaborative professional development and learning involving communities of practice. Wenger defines communities of practice as groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly. According to Wenger (1998), for a group to qualify to be a community of practice, there are three characteristics that have to be evident, namely, the domain, the community and the practice.

In this study teachers that informally established communities of practice had a shared domain of interest as they evidenced commitment to the domain and a shared competence that distinguished them from other teachers. The research has revealed that in pursuing their interest in their domain, these teachers engaged in joint activities and discussions, helped each other and shared information. As members in a community of practice need to interact and learn together, though not on daily basis, this study confirmed their commitment, membership and shared domain of interest. According to the study, they demonstrated their being practitioners and they developed a shared repertoire of resources: their experience, stories, tools, ways of addressing recurring problems-in short a shared practice. This study reveals that the collaborative activity in the studied area is in line with Wenger's (1998) theory of practice as it qualified a community of practice that it must show evidence of a shared domain, engagement of joint activities and discussions and development of a shared repertoire of resources.

According to Wenger (1998), learning is maximised if one intensifies learners' access to participation in, and the resources of a community of practice in which the development of identities in relation to that community are supported. Wenger's (1998) theory revealed that if teachers were well guided and received the needed support and if the CPTD implementation programmes were well planned and well coordinated, teachers could get appropriate professional development. Wenger's (1998) theory of practice focuses on learning as participation with emphasis on

collaborative professional development and learning involving communities of practice.

Another aspect of CPTD implementation as far as this study is concerned, is the consideration of Speck's (1996) theory of adult learning, which argues that adult learners need to see that professional development learning and their day-to-day activities are related and relevant. Hence, Speck (1996) warns professional development providers to be mindful of adult learning when designing programmes for teachers and urges them to use the checklist as both a guide when formulating professional development activities and as evaluating tools prior to actually conducting training with adults.

Speck's (1996) checklist reveals that implementation of CPTD programmes that is the area of study, is not in line with the theory of adult learning. It was confirmed in the study that most of Speck's (1996) checklist points were not considered by the facilitators of CPTD. If the points of the checklist were taken into consideration when designing and implementing CPTD programmes for teachers, all this talk about CPTD programmes not resulting in teacher change would be minimal. Speck's (1996) adult learning theory is also complemented by Kolb's (1998) cycle of learning. Kolb (1998) advocates for the need to plan for different stages and styles of learning and to make sure that there are connections between them. This learning cycle emphasises concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, active experimentation and time to reflect and discuss the concrete experience. Speck's (1996) checklist assisted the researcher in the study of assessment of how CPTD programmes are implemented for Lady Frere rural secondary school teachers.

In most of the training programmes, what determines the effectiveness of the training received is the quality of materials used in the training. Teachers are severely constrained in what they can do by the resources they have at hand. For them, knowledge of fancy activities for pupils is of little value if there are no materials to support such activities (Maguvhe, 2003). Teachers expect a training programme to provide them something that they would use right away after the development programme, including material, tools and skills (Jansen & Sayed, 2001). If development programmes do not have support systems can result in teachers being

more disempowered and demotivated (Maguvhe, 2003). Apart from the variety of training there is yet another important aspect to consider as far as CPTD programmes are concerned, that of monitoring and support services (Jansen & Sayed, 2001). A great deal of activity has been undertaken both nationally and locally to transform education and training teachers, but Jansen and Sayed (2001) suggest that necessary as this professional challenge has been, it needs to be accompanied by a strategy for implementation that includes teacher training programmes and support. Long (2004) argues that it must be recognised that lack of high quality support, teacher learning and limited long-term CPTD programmes are critical barriers to effective teacher change and learner performance. It is clear that teacher empowerment loses its effectiveness if the teachers do not have instructional leaders to support, monitor and keep them on track (Carl, 2002).

As means of support professional development policies need to attend to school structures that stifle teachers' change for supporting high quality professional development. Furthermore, policies need to structure teachers' work week so that they do not spend virtually all their time teaching, but instead have adequate preparation, consultation and collaboration time (Ismat, 1996). Regular time for teacher collaboration can help ensure that lessons are more highly polished, learners' needs are better met, and curriculum is cohesive from year to year (Maistry, 2008). CPTD is best when teachers are integrally involved, reflecting on their own practice, when there is a strong school-based component, when activities are well coordinated and above all when employers provide sustained leadership and support (Ismat, 1996).

Internationally, the majority of the secondary schools are drawing on a range of appropriate development activities to meet the schools' priorities and the individual professional needs of teachers. The narrow perception that professional development always involves off-site activity such as attendance at a course hosted by the providers is gradually being replaced by a wider and more comprehensive view of CPTD. Whole-school training days, peer observation, mentoring and support, local and national conferences, working groups, networks, partnerships, etc. are some of the strategies used to provide CPTD. This range of professional development affords many teachers the chance to observe good teaching and its

results, extend their professional experience in a number of ways and to take time to evaluate their own practice (OECD, 2008).

However, although leadership teams, CPTD coordinators, line managers and teachers in the schools generally appreciate the wide array of CPTD activities, these are rarely selected and put together effectively to form an individual training plan, designed to bring about specific improvements in a teacher's professional knowledge and skills. More often, teachers take part in a range of loosely related sometimes unfocused activities that do not necessarily provide good value for money nor lead to the intended development (OECD, 2008). Almost all the activities related to teacher education have focused on pre-service education with CPTD remaining in most countries at a much lower level of policy interest, with provision often uncoordinated and poorly provided with resources (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), 2007). Nevertheless, CPTD is widely acknowledged to be important in the pursuit of improvements in the teaching and learning (Hargreaves, 1994; Harland & Kinder, 1997; Craft, 2000).

It is further acknowledged that the relationship between teacher development and school development is well established and reinforced. Although there are many programmes of CPTD, at its core is reflection and professional learning. It encompasses all natural learning experience and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school (Day, 1999). Successive research projects have re-iterated that the quality of interaction, the focus on teacher development and the relentless pursuit of improved teaching and learning are key characteristic of school effectiveness and improvement (Harris, 2003); Gray, 2000). In addition, the research evidence acknowledges the importance of teachers engaging in continuing career-long development that serves their personal and professional needs (Goodall, Day, Lindsay, Muijs & Harris, 2005).

According to Guskey (2002) despite the general acceptance of professional development as essential to improvement in education, reviews of professional development research consistently point out the ineffectiveness of most programmes. It has also been suggested that the majority of programmes fail because they do not take into account what motivates the teacher to engage in

professional development and the process by which change in teachers typically occurs (Guskey, 1986) in Guskey (2002).

Although teachers are generally required to take part in professional development, most report that they engage in these activities because they want to be better teachers. They see professional development programmes as among the most promising and most readily available routes to growth in the profession (Fullan, 1999). Huberman (1995) on the other hand, views it not only as a way to combat boredom and alienation, but also as a pathway to increased competence and greater professional satisfaction. What attracts teachers to the professional development is their belief that it will expand their knowledge and skills, contribute to their growth and enhance their effectiveness with learners.

However, CPTD is one of the basic activities that need to be taken care of if teacher education and learner performance are to improve. It has been clarified that both professional teacher development and learner performance depend on the commitment of teachers. The career long development of teachers is the outcome of any successful professional programme that is having a positive impact in changing teachers' knowledge and practice (Guskey & Sparks, 2002). According to Joyce and Showers (1988) cited in Chisholm (2004), teachers can turn out to be good learners that can master any kind of teaching strategy or implement any technique as long as they are provided with adequate training and development. Most teachers may have a deep and strong desire to improve teaching and learning but many professional development programmes seem to be unsuccessful at changing teacher practice (Hargreaves, 1994).

According to Geret et al. (2001), cited by Goodall (2005) a key factor in ensuring CPTD's effectiveness is the matching of appropriate professional development provision to particular professional needs. The developmental needs of the teacher and the selected activities are critically important in ensuring that there is a positive impact at the school and classroom level (Hopkins and Harris, 2001; Goodall, 2005). It is further argued that where teacher development opportunities are poorly conceptualised, insensitive to the particular concerns of individuals and make little effort to relate learning experiences to workplace conditions, the evidence shows that they make little impact upon teacher change (Day, 1999).

### 7.3 CONCLUSIONS

In South Africa, in spite of all the teacher development programmes, learners are still performing below average in core learning areas; the national systematic evaluation does not highlight a bright future (Shuttleworth Foundation, 2009; Adler & Reed, 2002). Similarly, the reports of 2003 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study mention that “South African teachers have extensive development opportunities, but the evidence of poor learner performance shows that these have had little impact” (Republic of South Africa, 2007:17).

On the basis of the findings, the study has exposed the inadequacy of professional teacher development in Lady Frere. According to Maistry (2008), the challenge for CPTD programmes is to create a context in which teachers and other stakeholders interact in ways that help them to overcome barriers to on-going professional development. The lesson that is learnt from the study is that CPTD programmes should be relevant to the teachers’ needs, controlled by the participants including SMTs and should have access to expertise of facilitation. The school-based programmes should be able to create collegiality and active learning and the need for long-term development programmes.

The second finding is that CPTD programmes are not planned according to the purpose of the development and they are not continuously conducted. CPTD programmes can only be continuous if they are school-based and school focused. For the few centralised programmes, follow-up activities are not well planned or carried out. Teachers learn best when they are actively involved like in the case of teacher networks and communities of practice but the study found that in most cases they are sidelined in decision making.

The study found that teachers enjoy working together as groups as it happens in the case of school-based and school focused teacher development models. However, chances for teachers to be engaged in such activities were minimal. The most effective efforts for change to take place, as noted by Edwards (1999), are close to the action, teacher specific, include classroom assistance and have regular meetings that focus on practical problems. This also applies to school-focused development programmes which, although occurring outside the normal working environment,

comply with the needs of the school as an organisation, including the needs and expectations of the teacher as individuals (Gettly, 2002).

## **7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Apart from organised professional teacher development, instructors should have a primary responsibility of curriculum development and they should accept this challenge. This dynamic teacher involvement can make a real contribution to professional development. Like most development programmes, this professional development (curriculum development) can, only take place if opportunities for it are created. However, teacher professional development is an essential element in empowering teachers to improve their skills (Guskey, 2002). The Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education (MCTE) in its report as cited by OECD (2008) stated that CPTD was left to the haphazard and un-coordinated interventions. That view was shared by DoE (2006) that provision of CPTD remained fragmented and un-coordinated and also made a limited impact. The MCTE concluded that CPTD should be given higher prominence in the conception of teacher education.

The CPTD programmes in South Africa have been more related to reform instead of general teacher development; hence, the effectiveness of teacher development depended mostly on teacher change. Supporting that idea, Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) even indicated that to effectively implement educational reform, teachers should be more knowledgeable about current policy and professional issues; they need to access a good knowledge base for improving teaching.

Apart from the fact that facilitators are not well informed about continuous professional development design, there is no structured framework on CPTD programmes; hence, theories that affect teacher development are not considered. Powerful, socially mediated learning occurs with people perceived to be knowledgeable, facilitators or more experienced colleagues (Falk & Dierking, 2000 in Fraser et al., 2007). However, the tensions between what it means to be a learner within a particular learning context and what it means to be a teacher within a particular school context need to be resolved in order for teachers' learning to be enacted as new developments. This needs support not only from colleagues but also from school management. In addition, to become communities of practice and

learning, schools are situated within a geographical and social context – what may be termed the wider community – where socio-cultural expectations will also influence the enactment of teachers' learning (Falk & Dierking, 2000; Evans, 2002).

Development of occupational aspects of teacher learning involves interplay between theory and practice. Crucial to this process is an acceptance of theory, which occurs most readily if the theory is based on credible, empirical evidence grounded in practice. The school and classroom provide rich environment for teachers to enact emerging learning within their own context (Reeves & Forde, 2004). This professional experimentation (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002) raises awareness of learning actions and consequences. Making sense of practical experiences, particularly those with positive outcomes, can lead to conceptual change and acceptance of theory (Bell & Gilbert, 1996; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002).

However, teacher professional learning which comprises personal, social and occupational aspect is also guided by the purpose of teacher professional learning. If professional learning is for attitudinal aspects as well as functional development, it is important to consider its facilitation method (Fraser et al., 2007). Kennedy's (2005) analytical framework suggests that professional learning opportunities can be located along a continuum where the underpinning purposes of particular models of CPTD can be categorised as transmissive, transitional or transformative.

In spite of all the variables that affect teacher receptivity to a system wide change, South Africa has a highly evolved economic infrastructure and huge social and economical inequalities inherited from decades of racial discrimination and injustice (Adler & Reed, 2002). The most profound and enduring effects of these inequalities are to be found in education including a legacy of dire infrastructure and facilities of poor people, which can also influence the receptivity of teachers to some systemic changes. Schools have to respond directly to such inequalities by helping to prepare each succeeding generation of children with appropriate knowledge, skills and values through the new system of education that has prescribed teacher roles that are suitable for the new curriculum (Chisholm, 2004). Teacher education and CPTD have the vital role of equipping teachers to undertake this task (DoE, 2007). However, the Report of the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education (2005) in DoE (2007) highlighted specific challenges in rural schools. It noted a shortage of

qualified and competent teachers in the rural schools and limited access to professional development programmes for teachers.

The Norms and Standards for Educators (teachers) Gazette as a national policy sets out in detail the notion of teacher competence and explains what competences teachers need to be able to demonstrate across a range of teacher roles (DoE, 2000). Seemingly, the norms and standards for educators focus quite strongly on the idea of applied competence as an overarching concept that embodies three interconnected forms of competence namely: practical competence, foundational competence, reflexive competence, constructivism and mediated learning for the classroom. These competences can only be possible if CPTD facilitators could structure their teacher development programmes according to Kennedy's framework for CPTD development models. Theories on adult learning and development also need to be considered if professional learning and professional development are to be effective.

Practical competence, which is the demonstrated ability to consider a range of possibilities for action, makes considered decisions about which possibility to follow and to perform the chosen action. Thus, teachers should show their capability (Nieman & Monyai, 2010), of course, if they were given direction beforehand. Mays (2000) amply explains that foundational competence is the teacher's ability to show that they know what they are doing; whereas reflexive competence is explained as their ability to adapt their knowledge and practice to new situations. These definitions embody the idea that a competent teacher will be able to integrate knowledge with skills and values in diverse situations and will be capable of reflecting on and learning from his/her own experiences. An applied competence also refers to the ability to integrate the discrete competences which constitute each of the seven teacher roles. This is important because it is competence in a role that matters, hence, the researcher recommends a framework for teacher development programmes. Therefore, the roles of a competent teacher as identified by the policy framework (DoE, 2006:5), in the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000), can be easily achievable.

In-service teacher training (CPTD) is multifaceted as it ranges from centralised, school-based and off-site teacher development programmes. Therefore, CPTD

programmes should follow an on-going teacher development framework that would assist teachers and SMTs to become empowered. Regarding content and new pedagogical aspects for both teachers and SMTs, training can be centralised on areas of community engagement facilitated by subject advisors and university lecturers. After the centralised programmes, SMTs should plan school-based development programmes to ensure monitoring, mentoring, peer coaching and support. The schools can then organise their own school-focused development programmes on classroom practice where they can arrange with subject specialists according to the curriculum needs of the school. Simultaneously, teachers should engage themselves in networking and communities of practice. These models of development enable individual subject teachers to be involved in collaborative activities that would address challenges of their classroom practice.

The framework should specify the time that would be allocated to each model but individual schools need to structure their timetable such that it accommodates the various teacher development models. Apart from time allocation, the framework should stipulate the strategies to be used for different models. Centralised programmes should be used for content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. All the development models after the centralised programmes should cater for opportunities for hands on, active learning and greater coherence, that is, they should be participative.

If the national and provincial departments of education could be obliged to provide an enabling environment for the preparation and development of teachers to take place as mandated by the Government Gazette (DoE, 2007) teachers would be properly developed. It is further explained in the gazette that the effectiveness of the CPTD system depends substantially on strong leadership and good management in schools and in the support systems in district, provincial and national offices. It is also the duty of the employers of teachers to ensure that their employees are properly encouraged and equipped to fulfil their expected roles in the highly varied and ever-changing conditions in which they work. Moreover, the priority areas of need must be constantly reviewed and updated (DoE, 2007). Unless SMTs get adequate development, CPTD systems will be ineffective if SMTs remain ignorant of the teachers' roles of school-based activities.

However, it is also the teachers' responsibility, guided by SACE, to take charge of their self development by identifying areas in which they need to grow professionally. They need to use all opportunities made available to them for this purpose, including those provided in IQMS (DoE, 2008). According to the data collected, the responses indicate that teachers are not given the opportunity to suggest areas on which they need to be developed.

Additionally, the literature of CPTD presents a consensus of the desirability of a pre-service/in-service continuum. However, there is no teacher education programme in the Sub-Saharan Association (SSA) that brings together these two aspects of teacher development. Where these aspects are recognised, they are treated separately and often the role of the teacher education institutions end with the pre-service preparation stage; in-service is perceived as the responsibility of the schools and government departments of education for whom unfortunately, CPTD is not a priority. As already noted, CPTD is ad hoc and loosely planned, with erratic and irregular funding, rather than being regular and institutionalised, and taken as a way of completing pre-service education. In many African countries, CPTD is a way of completing pre-service education, rather than being part of a continuum (Christie et al., 2004). In other words, CPTD should be structured such that it becomes a continuation of the initial professional teacher development with specified periods of development relevant to the purpose of development.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Interview Schedules

### 1. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

#### Preamble

This interview schedule was used to ensure that relevant data be collected during the interviews. The schedule did not dictate what was to be discussed in the interview. Participants were allowed to discuss aspects about continuous professional teacher development and how do they perceive the programmes as far as the teacher development is concerned.

#### Opening remarks

1. Welcomes participants
2. Confirmation of anonymity, confidentiality and indicate to participant/s that their names will not be revealed in any way.
3. Request permission from participants to record interview on tape.
4. Inform participants that they can refuse to answer any question or discontinue anytime during the interview.
5. Brief explanation of research objectives.
6. Brief explanation of teacher development can benefit from the study.

#### Interview guide for Head of the Curriculum Section in the Lady Frere district

##### Introduction

Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and which contribute through these, to the quality of education in the classroom (Joyce & Showers, 1998). According to Day (1998) it is a **process** by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives.

##### Questions

1. How are the following aspects of CPTD addressed in your district?
  1. Equalization of teachers through upgrading academic and professional qualifications;
  2. Improvement of classroom skills and teaching strategies through action research and teacher led initiatives;
  3. Efficiency of classrooms as micro teaching centres;

4. Classroom competence through effective input on subject knowledge and subject methodology;
5. Change brought on through curriculum development and new roles such as multicultural teaching in a democratic classroom.

2. What are the actions taken by your district to:

1. help professional learning;
2. promote independence and growth among your teachers;
3. help align CPTD with school goals and leadership vision and embed it in classroom practice;
4. support teachers through the process of making changes to classroom practice;
5. make explicit links between professional learning and learner learning.

3. Are CPTD programmes sustained in your district?

Probing question:

*1. Have you planned your CPTD programmes such that they are a continuous process because for to allow professional development to proceed successfully, it should be a continuous process, contributing to the general improvement of education.*

*2. Are the programmes planned systematically because isolated inputs which do not build on one another have little value for those attending the training.*

4. Does the district have specific plans to encourage and enable shared learning and support between two teacher colleagues or in a community of practice on a sustained basis?

Probing question:

*1. Clarity of aim is an essential motivator for any successful workshop, that is why before the commencement of training, planners of training programmes should reflect on what they wish to accomplish through training. Does your district therefore create such opportunities?*

5. Is individually oriented CPTD encouraged in the district so as to be able to use those individuals to motivate other teachers?

Probing question:

*1. Does your district use the prior knowledge, wealth of potential and experience of individual teachers, because professional development does not only require the formal training programmes but also the informal and spontaneous learning of teachers from one another.*

6. How do Subject Advisors (SAs) enhance the professional development of teachers to enhance learner learning?

Probing statement:

*1. The programmes of CPTD were designed to ensure that teachers learnt something new and that they could and did put what they had learnt into practice in the classroom to enhance learner learning.*

7. What is the impact of SAs' contribution to CPTD on teachers, teaching and learners?

Probing question:

If we say:

*1. the CPTD programmes had positive effects on teachers' confidence, openness to new teaching approaches and willingness to experiment and take risks. What strategies did the SAs use? Is it maybe teacher networks, workshops, partnerships with HEIs, etc?*

8. Are there any factors that can change the nature or impact of the contributions of SAs?

Probing statement:

*1. There can be shortage of resources. If that is the case can you give examples of those resources?*

9. Are there certain processes SAs use that help to make CPTD successful in terms of having positive outcomes for both teachers and students?

10. Have you ever tried partnerships with Higher Education Institutions that are established in your district, where their teacher trainees would plan, instruct and evaluate their progress with subject teachers?

11. What are the strategies used to ensure successful delivering of CPTD with regard to the following:

1. Careful selection of appropriate participants;
2. Efficient organization;
3. Effective delivery of a content of a CPTD programme; and
4. A review of successes and failures of a CPTD programme.

12. What would you, in your capacity as the Head of the Curriculum Section of the district, recommend to the planners of CPTD?

Probing statement:

*1. considering your experience as a teacher and a lifelong learner?*

## **INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES**

### **Preamble**

This interview schedule was used to ensure that relevant data be collected during the interviews. The schedule did not dictate what was to be discussed in the

interview. Participants were allowed to discuss aspects about continuous professional teacher development and how do they perceive the programmes as far as the teacher development is concerned.

### **Opening remarks**

7. Welcomes participants
8. Confirmation of anonymity, confidentiality and indicate to participant/s that their names will not be revealed in any way.
9. Request permission from participants to record interview on tape.
10. Inform participants that they can refuse to answer any question or discontinue anytime during the interview.
11. Brief explanation of research objectives
12. Brief explanation of teacher development can benefit from the study

### **Interview guide for facilitators of CPTD**

The quality of facilitators (certified facilitators) has a direct impact on the level of involvement and understanding of participants in any development or training. The term certified facilitators implies a certain level of expertise in conducting development activities.

### **Qualifications**

1. Requesting documents indicating qualifications from the facilitators on schedule for the development programme at hand
2. Finding out from the facilitators if they have any:
  - SAQA accredited facilitator's certificate
  - SAQA accredited Assessor's certificate
  - SAQA accredited Moderator's certificate
  - SAQA accredited Materials Development

### **Facilitation:**

#### **Introduction**

The aim of CPTD is the extension of content knowledge, instructional methodology and skills and most importantly, CPTD endeavours to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes (Steyl, 1998). It may serve mainly two purposes namely, empowerment of unqualified and, most importantly, CPTD endeavours to develop knowledge skills and attitudes.

CPTD activities consist of formal and less formal processes. Formal CPTD activities are believed to provide a concentrated focus on the specifics of change. Less formal CPTD processes are those activities that happen during the normal life of school. Mentoring, coaching, delegating and rotation of responsibilities are regarded as less

formal types of CPTD. The following aspects are usually addressed in CPTD programmes

6. Equalization of teachers through upgrading academic and professional qualifications;
7. Improvement of classroom skills and teaching strategies through action research and teacher led initiatives;
8. Efficiency of classrooms as micro teaching centres;
9. Classroom competence through effective input on subject knowledge and subject methodology;
10. Change brought on through curriculum development and new roles such as multicultural teaching in a democratic classroom.

1. How easy are the development programmes, both formal and informal, for teachers to access?

Probing question:

*1. is it easy, for instance, for teachers to come together and form communities of practice or is there any Institution of Higher Learning that can service your district?*

2. Are there any practical difficulties they might have to overcome?

Probing statement:

*1. It can happen that teachers do not have enough time for the development programmes, do not have funds, do not have materials, etc.)*

3. Do you locate your professional development programmes according to their purpose?

Probing statement:

- 1. Models of CPTD where the purpose is deemed to be transmissive rely on teacher development through expert tuition, focusing on technical aspects of the job, like when teachers are called centrally to be lectured on how to develop a learning programme.*
- 2. Within the transitional models CPTD has the capacity to support either a transmissive agenda or transformative agenda e.g. coaching/mentoring and communities of practice.*
- 3. Transformative professional learning suggests strong links between theory and practice and awareness of professional context.*

4. How does CPTD build on initial teacher training?

Probing statement:

*1. CPTD is concerned with both personal development and professional development. Personal development of teachers is, therefore, enhanced by the diversity of the teaching practitioners regarding initial training, background and needs.*

5. How does CPTD improve classroom practice?

Probing question:

*1. What are the teacher development programmes that are directly and effectively enhancing classroom practice?*

6. Is there any opportunity for teachers to give feedback after a development activity?

Probing question:

*1. Is there any way of knowing from the teachers whether the development activity was successful or not?*

7. Is there any follow-up and support after the course?

Probing question:

*1. Do you visit the schools immediately after a training session to support and mentor/coach the teachers in the classroom (transitional model) and to find out if they were successfully developed?*

8. Have there been any recent changes in the numbers and types of teachers attending your courses?

9. What sort of development model /models would you like see made available? Why do you think this might be important?

10. How useful do you think a local network of teachers in specific subject areas might be to the teachers you are in contact with? Specify in what ways.

11. Do you have any strategy for implementing teacher support programmes

12. Does your support programme have support materials that teachers would use immediately when they get back to their classes?

13. How do you motivate teachers who feel that working in a public school has become unbearable?

14. How often do you visit schools for teacher support?

15. Does your schedule include detailed plans for on-going-teacher development, monitoring and evaluation of the development programmes?

16. Do you have plans for on-going work based support?

17. Are the schools provided with resources for teacher support?

18. If facilitators of teacher development and Higher Education Institutions in your area were dependable and reliable partnerships would have been long established.

Probing question:

*1. Do you agree with that statement?*

*2. Do you think it can be a useful activity?*

19. Considering your experience as a facilitator of teacher development programmes, how do you think CPTD should be delivered?

A study on the implementation of Continuing Professional Development in Rural District of Lady Frere in the Eastern Cape

Interview schedule for Principals and HoDs

1. Please explain to me more about CPTD programmes you have attended in terms of:
  - i. How many CPTD programmes you have attended since your appointment as Principal/HoD
  - ii. What the CPTD programmes focused on (e.g. leadership and management skills, teaching and learning strategies, orientation to new curriculum etc.)
  - iii. Who organized the CPTD programmes
  - iv. The extent to which principals/HoD were consulted in the design of the CPTD programmes
2. How easy was the training to access? Were there any practical difficulties to overcome? (e.g. time, funding, commitments etc.).
3. What was your main reason or expectation for your participation in the in-service training programme? Was your expectation met? Please explain.
4. How much time was allocated to the CPTD programmes you have attended? Was it adequate? Any thoughts about it?
5. What methods were used by the CPTD programme facilitators to impart the knowledge to the principals/HoDs during the training? (maybe concerning content and materials)
6. Was the training useful in improving school management and administration? How?
7. Comment on how CPTD programmes were implemented in terms of:
  - i. Their weakness
  - ii. Inputs from principals on CPTD programme design
  - iii. Logistical arrangements
  - iv. Resources provided
  - v. Expertise of trainers
8. How do you as a principal nurture a school environment that fosters implementation of what teachers learn from CPTD programmes?
9. What challenges and successes do teachers face in the implementation of what they learnt from the CPTD programmes?
10. What monitoring and support mechanisms does the:
  - i. School provide to teachers who have attended CPTD programme training?
  - ii. CPTD facilitators provide to the teachers who attended CPTD programme training?
  - iii. How beneficial are the monitoring and support mechanisms?

11. Please provide suggestions on how best to implement/deliver CPTD programmes for rural secondary school teachers in Lady Frere, Eastern Cape? (probe on venue for in-service training, mode, preferred duration, preferred time of the year, organizational structure, form of recognition, nature of in-service training, prohibiting factors to attending in-service education)

## 2. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

### Preamble

This interview schedule was used to ensure that relevant data be collected during the interviews. The schedule did not dictate what was to be discussed in the interview. Participants were allowed to discuss aspects about continuous professional teacher development and how do they perceive the programmes as far as the teacher development is concerned.

### Opening remarks

13. Welcomes participants
14. Confirmation of anonymity, confidentiality and indicate to participant/s that their names will not be revealed in any way.
15. Request permission from participants to record interview on tape.
16. Inform participants that they can refuse to answer any question or discontinue anytime during the interview.
17. Brief explanation of research objectives
18. Brief explanation of teacher development can benefit from the study

### Interview guide for school teachers

#### Perception and views of teachers regarding CPTD programmes

1. Is the programme characterized by a high degree of central control with the programme agenda determined by dominant stakeholders?

Probing questions:

1. *Are teachers part of designing the CPTD programme as people who know best of what they need?*
2. Are teachers, after development, so empowered that they are creative, innovative and constantly responding to the needs of learners?
3. Are teachers, after the programme, capable of making their own interventions and creating expanded opportunities in their classrooms?

Probing questions:

1. *Do you think CPTD programmes result in renewed commitment of teachers or*
2. *Renewed moral purpose?*

Probing statements:

1. *These outcomes are crucial teacher effectiveness.*
  2. *the most significant outcome of any successful professional development programme is that of having a positive impact in changing teachers' knowledge and practice.*
  2. *While most teachers have a deep and strong desire to improve teaching and learning, many professional development programmes seem unsuccessful at changing teacher practice.*
4. Can you describe any professional teacher development you have taken part in, since you became a qualified teacher? (Name of organization/s conducting the programme)

Probing questions:

1. *Did you learn more about your teaching subject?*
  2. *Did you learn more about learning?*
  3. *Did you learn new ways of teaching?*
5. Did your development programme emphasise 'learning by doing'?
6. Have there been any of the professional development programmes that were specifically subject-based?

Probing statement:

1. *It might happen that there are some teachers that have content gaps.*
7. How easy was the course to access? Were there any practical difficulties to overcome? (Time, funding, etc.)
8. How did the programme build on initial teacher training?
9. Was the development programme useful in developing classroom practice?

Probing question:

1. *If Yes, how?*
10. Is how new knowledge is used in practice addressed in the professional development programmes?
11. Was there any opportunity to give feedback on the programme? Any follow-up and support?

Probing statement:

1. *CPTD programmes are unlikely to have a lasting effect without support.*
2. *For every development programme there should be mentoring/coaching and communities of practice.*

Probing questions:

1. *Did the support programmes include:*
  - i. *Modelling*
  - ii. *Workshops*
  - iii. *Observation*
  - iv. *Feedback*
  - v. *Coaching*

- vi. *Peer support which included enabling and encouraging peer observation, sharing practice, peer coaching, collaborative planning and schemes of work*
- vii. *Planned and informal meetings for discussion*

12. What sort of professional development model would you like to see made available?

Probing question:

1. *Why do you think this model might be important?*

13. How do you think CPTD should be delivered?

14. What kind of development models would best support you as a practitioner?

15. How useful do you think a local network of teachers in your subject area might be useful to you personally, where you would find teachers of your subject collaborating on issues of your subject?

Probing question:

1. *Specify in what ways.*

16. How would you like to see such a network set-up?

17. What development model would you need to be in place for you to benefit from?

Probing questions:

1. *Would you perhaps want your school to form a partnership with one of the Higher Education Institutions?*
2. *If Yes, why?*
3. *What would it allow you to do that you cannot do now?*
4. *Would you like school-based development programmes?*
5. *If Yes, why?*

18. Do you think professional teacher development facilitators have the capacity to coordinate all aspects of Teacher Development?

Probing question:

1. *If facilitators have the capacity to coordinate all aspects of Teacher Development are they dependable and reliable?*
2. *Do you see them as being organized or disorganized;*
3. *rambling and poor at public speaking;*
4. *Failing to take into account different learning styles, levels of ability and prior knowledge amongst the teachers attending the session?*
5. *Is it a common practice that facilitators cut the sessions short?*
6. *Do your development programmes allow adequate preparation*
7. *Are you given enough time to spend on practical concerns, with a resultant impact on teaching and learning?*

19. Did the input sessions of the facilitators involved introducing teachers to new knowledge and to new ways of doing things?

20. Did the support sessions involved facilitators working with teachers to interpret and implement the new knowledge or skills and to make the consequent changes to their practice?

21. With professional development programmes you attended:

1. *were issues addressed relevant?*

2. *was the material pitched at an appropriate level*
3. *was the session leader well prepared?*
4. *were the materials suitable?*
5. *was the training centre the right size?*

22. What would you think your needs might be over the next five years?

## **Appendix 2: Questionnaires**

### **Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) Survey**

This survey is basically used to assess the implementation of CPTD programmes. The aim of the survey is to assess:

- i. the implementation of the CPTD programmes for teachers in the rural secondary schools of Lady Frere;
- ii. the capacity of facilitators and team leaders of the CPTD programmes;
- iii. the support and monitoring programmes put in place by Department of Education (DoE) to assist teachers.

The main purpose of the study is to assess the implementation of the CPTD programmes for teachers in the rural schools of Lady Frere. In other words the attempt is to find out how do teacher development programmes assist in:

- i.* helping professional learning;
- ii.* promoting independence and growth;
- iii.* supporting teachers through the process making changes and improvement to practice;
- iv.* making explicit links between professional learning and learner learning.

The findings of the study will assist teacher development programmers in determining proper transformational strategies for various teacher development programs, by finding an appropriate CPTD model for different purposes. With the help of this research, it is expected that learner performance and classroom practice will improve almost to the required standard. The research will, therefore, concentrate on teacher development conducted on-site/school-based and off-site, as well as, teacher networks and communities of practice.

On-site/school-based CPTD model occurs within the normal working environment and is managed mainly, but not completely, by the schools main personnel in order to fulfill the immediate and specific needs of the school. Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), like Walter Sisulu University (WSU) or Fort Hare, where they have formed partnerships with schools, using their teacher trainees, work with the subject specialist in planning and teaching the subject concerned. The on-site/school-based programmes are meant for creating effective efforts for change to take place close to the action as it may be found that Subject Advisors, Lead Teachers and Senior Teachers usually conduct demonstration lessons at school to ensure that the on-site programmes are:

- i.* concrete;
- ii.* teacher specific;
- iii.* focused on practical problems and;
- iv.* involve teachers in project decision, including classroom assistance and regular meetings that focus on practical problems.

Off-site development programmes occur when teachers from different clusters/schools gather at a central venue for courses or workshops of a day or longer. These centralized CPTD models are mostly conducted by experts from DoE or from Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). They often take a form of a cascade model which was initially used by DoE to disseminate the new curriculum. Apart from the cascade model there are teacher networks and communities of learning that are collaborative, in that, teachers can learn from each other. Teachers in a learning community scaffold one another’s learning through a powerful exchange of ideas. It is to this extent that the study seeks to assess the CPTD programmes in Lady Frere.

Your participation in this research, therefore, is highly appreciated. Please complete the survey and return it to the administrator/principal on the specified date.

## A Demographics

**(Tick the appropriate box where applicable)**

1. Are you a teacher or a teacher assistant?

- |                      |    |                          |
|----------------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Teacher           | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Teacher-Assistant | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. For how long have you worked as a teacher?

- |                     |    |                          |
|---------------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Less than 1 year | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. 1 - 5            | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. 6 – 15           | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. 16 -25           | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. 26 -35           | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. What is your age group?

- |                       |    |                          |
|-----------------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Less than 25 years | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. 26 – 30            | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. 31 – 40            | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. 41 – 50            | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. 51 – 60 5.

6. More than 60 years 6.

3. What is your gender?

1. Female 1.

2. Male 2.

4. What is your academic qualification?

1. FET-College Diploma 1.

2. B.A. 2.

3. Honors 3.

4. M.A. 4.

5. Other (Please specify) 5.

5. In which subjects have you majored?

1. Xhosa 1.

2. English 2.

3. Afrikaans 3.

4. Mathematics 4.

5. Physical Science 5.

6. Accounting 6.

7. Economics 7.

8. Business Economics 8.

9. Agricultural Science 9.

10. Biology 10.

11. Geography 11.

12. Other (Please specify) 12.

6. How many years has it been since you completed your academic qualification?

.....

7. What is your professional qualification?

- |                           |    |                          |
|---------------------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. PTC                    | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. JSTC                   | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. PTD                    | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. B.Ed                   | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Other (Please specify) | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

8. How many years has it been since you completed your professional qualification?

.....

9. What subject/s are you teaching?

- |                            |     |                          |
|----------------------------|-----|--------------------------|
| 1. Xhosa                   | 1.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. English                 | 2.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Afrikaans               | 3.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Mathematics             | 4.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Physical Science        | 5.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Accounting              | 6.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Economics               | 7.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Business Economics      | 8.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Agricultural Science    | 9.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Biology                | 10. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. Geography              | 11. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. Other (Please specify) | 12. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

10. Are you permanently or temporarily employed?

- |                |    |                          |
|----------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Permanently | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|                |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. Temporally

2.

11. Which grades have you been teaching?

.....

12. For how long have you been teaching in those grades?

.....

13. Have you been teaching them ever since you started working?

.....

14. How large are the classes you are teaching?

1. Below 20

1.

2. 21- 30

2.

3. 31- 40

3.

4. 41- 60

4.

5. 61 and above

5.

15. Are you teaching in a mixed school?

1. Yes

1.

2. No

2.

16. Can you handle both boys and girls in one class?

1. Yes

1.

2. No

2.

17. If **YES** can you rate your ability to handle biasness and other challenges?

1. Unable

1.

2. Satisfactory

2.

3. Good

3.

4. Very good

4.

5. Excellent

5.

18. Have you been teaching in the same school since you started working

1. Yes

1.

2. No 2.

19. What position do you hold at school?

1. Post level I teacher 1.

2. Post level 2 teacher 2.

3. Post level 3 teacher 3.

4. Senior teacher 4.

5. Head of Department 5.

20. For how long have you been in your current position?

.....

21. What other responsibilities do you have apart from teaching?

.....  
.....  
.....

## **B Professional Development/ In-service Training**

**(Tick the appropriate box where applicable)**

1. Have you attended any professional development/ In-service training programme?

1. Yes 1.

2. No 2.

2. How often have you attended?

1. Once a year 1.

2. Once in six months 2.

3. Every school term 3.

4. Once a month 4.

5. Other (Please specify) 5.

3. Are these development programmes conducted every year?

1. Yes

1.

2. No

2.

4. Who conducted the workshops?

1. Experts from Higher Education Institution (HEI) e.g. Fort Hare

1.

2. Subject Advisors from Department of Education (SAs)

2.

3. Lead teachers (LTs)

3.

4. Senior teachers (STs)

4.

5. Other (Please specify

5.

5. Were the programmes:

1. Off-site/

1.

2. On-site or

2.

3. Both

3.

6. Who conducted off-site programmes?

1. Experts from Higher Education Institution

1.

2. Subject Advisors from Department of Education

3. Lead teachers

3.

4. Senior teachers

4.

5. Other (Please specify)

5.

7. Were they conducted for?

1. Schools of one cluster

1.

2. Schools from different clusters

2.

3. Two to three neighboring schools together

3.

4. Informal gathering of teachers

4.

5. Other (Please specify)

5.

8. Who arranged these programmes?

- |  |    |                          |
|--|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Experts from Higher Education Institution     | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Subject advisors from Department of Education | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Lead teachers                                 | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Senior teachers                               | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Other (Please specify)                        | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

9. Who conducted the on-site staff development programmes?

- |  |    |                          |
|--|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Experts from Higher Education Institution | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Subject advisors                          | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Lead teachers                             | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Senior teachers                           | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Other (Please specify)                    | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

**(For the following section respond only to the training programmes that you attended, for example programmes that were run by HEIs, SAs, etc.)**

10. Were the training programmes by HEIs available to everyone?

- |        |    |                          |
|--------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Yes | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|        |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. No  | 2. |                          |

11. If your response above is **YES** were the training programmes including teacher trainees from Higher Education Institutions to collaborate with subject teachers?

- |        |    |                          |
|--------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Yes | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|        |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. No  | 2. |                          |

12. Which of the following describes how the training programs were conducted? Tick all answers that are relevant.

- |             |    |                          |
|-------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Lectures | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|-------------|----|--------------------------|

- 2. Demonstration lessons to strengthen classroom practice 2.
- 3. Workshops 3.
- 4. Group discussions 4.
- 5. Other (Please specify) 5.

13. Were the courses run by HEI experts stimulating by?

	yes	no
1. assisting you to acquire new ideas		
2. exchanging experiences with teachers from other school		
3. connecting theory with classroom practice		
4. others (Please specify		

14. Rank the training methods you found to be most important in order of 1 to 4 , 1=poor,

2=average, 3-good, 4=excellent

1. Lectures	
2. Demonstration lessons helped to strengthen classroom practice	
3. Workshops	
4. Group discussions	
5. Others (Please specify	

15. Were the training workshops by SAs available to everyone?

- 1. Yes 1.
- 2. No 2.

16. If your response above is no, who was allowed to participate in the SAs' training programs

---

17. Which of the following describes how the training programs were conducted? Tick all answers that are relevant.

- 1. Lectures 1.

- 2. Demonstration lessons to strengthen classroom practice 2.
- 3. Workshops 3.
- 4. Group discussions 4.
- 5. Other (Please specify) 5.

18. Were the courses run by SAs stimulating by?

	yes	no
1. assisting you to acquire new ideas		
2. exchanging experiences with teachers from other school		
3. connecting theory with classroom practice		
4. Others (Please specify)		

19. Rank the training methods you found to be most important in order of 1 to 4 , 1=poor, 2=average, 3-good, 4=excellent

1. Lectures	
2. Demonstration lessons helped to strengthen classroom practice	
3. Workshops	
4. Group discussions	
5. Others (Please specify)	

20. Were the training workshops by LTs available to everyone?

- 1. Yes 1.
- 2. No 2.

21. If your response above is no, who was allowed to participate in the LTs training programs \_\_\_\_\_

22. Which of the following describes how the training programs were conducted? Tick all answers that are relevant.

- 1. Lectures 1.
- 2. Demonstration lessons to strengthen classroom practice 2.
- 3. Workshops 3.
- 4. Group discussions 4.

5. Other (Please specify)

5.

23. Were the courses run by LTs stimulating by?

	yes	no
1. assisting you to acquire new ideas		
2. exchanging experiences with teachers from other school		
3. connecting theory with classroom practice		
4. Others (Please specify		

24. Rank the training methods you found to be most important in order of 1 to 4 , 1=poor, 2=average, 3-good, 4=excellent

1. Lectures	
2. Demonstration lessons helped to strengthen classroom practice	
3. Workshops	
4. Group discussions	
5. Others (please specify)	

25. Were the training workshops by STs available to everyone?

1. Yes

1.

2. No

2.

26. If your response above is no, who was allowed to participate in the STs training programs

\_\_\_\_\_

27. Which of the following describes how the training programs were conducted? Tick all answers that are relevant.

1. Lectures

1.

2. Demonstration lessons to strengthen classroom practice

2.

3. Workshops

3.

4. Group discussions

4.

5. Other (Please specify)

5.

28. Were the courses run by STs stimulating by?

	yes	no
1. assisting you to acquire new ideas		
2. exchanging experiences with teachers from other school		
3. connecting theory with classroom practice		
4. others (Please specify)		

29. Rank the training methods you found to be most important in order of 1 to 4 , 1=poor,

2=average, 3-good, 4=excellent

1. Lectures	
2. Demonstration lessons helped to strengthen classroom practice	
3. Workshops	
4. Group discussions	
5. Others (Please specify)	

30. Were the workshops by other specialists available to everyone?

1. Yes

2. No

1.

2.

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

31. If your response above is no, who was allowed to participate in the training programmes by other specialists?

---

32. Which of the following describes how the training programs were conducted? Tick all answers that are relevant.

- |   |    |                          |
|---|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Lectures   | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Demonstration lessons to strengthen classroom practice | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Workshops  | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Group discussions                                      | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Other (Please specify)                                 | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

33. Were courses run by other specialists stimulating by?

	yes	no
1. assisting you to acquire new ideas		
2. exchanging experiences with teachers from other school		

3. connecting theory with classroom practice		
4. others (Please specify)		

34. Rank the training methods you found to be most important in order of 1 to 4 , 1=poor, 2=average, 3-good, 4=excellent

1. Lectures	
2. Demonstration lessons helped to strengthen classroom practice	
3. Workshops	
4. Group discussions	
5. Others (Please specify)	

35. Indicate by circling the extent to which you agree to the following statements concerning the training programmes you attended, irrespective of the form they took, (workshops, lectures, demonstrations or group discussions)

Key:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<b>1. Strongly Disagree</b>				
<b>2. Disagree</b>				
<b>3 Agree</b>				
<b>4. Strongly Agree</b>				
1. The training programmes contributed to my personal development	1	2	3	4
2. The training programmes allowed us to indicate personal expectations				
3. The training programmes improved my teaching practice	1	2	3	4
4. The training programmes provided useful information for my current job.	1	2	3	4
5. The workshops met the specific needs of teachers	1	2	3	4
6. Teachers have any opportunity to meet with others form neighbouring schools to discuss and practice what they learnt	1	2	3	4
7. I was always aware of the purpose of each of the training programmes I attended				
8. The training programmes developed my teaching confidence	1	2	3	4
9. The training programmes were well planned	1	2	3	4
10. They inspired me to change my teaching	1	2	3	4

methods				
11. The training programmes helped me think about how I teach	1	2	3	4
12. Employers provide support after the training	1	2	3	4
13. The training programmes increased my teaching skills	1	2	3	4
14. I would recommend other teachers to attend the training programmes I attended	1	2	3	4
15. Subject advisers allowed us to indicate the problems we face in our classrooms	1	2	3	4
16. Developing activities needed a lot of sacrifice	1	2	3	4
17. There was some coaching after the training programme	1	2	3	4
18. The training programmes were done at convenient times(eg during holiday, after school)	1	2	3	4
19. The training programmes helped me to use new teaching methods	1	2	3	4
20. The time spent on the training programmes was adequate	1	2	3	4
21. We were provided an opportunity to practice various activities during the workshops	1	2	3	4
22. The training programmes were done frequently	1	2	3	4
23. The training programmes developed my interest to do further studies	1	2	3	4

36. What three new things were you able to do after attending the training programmes?

.....

.....

.....

37. What suggestions can you make to improve the way training programmes are done?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

### C Facilitation of Teacher Development Programmes

1. Write YES or NO in the appropriate box to indicate how facilitators conduct the CPTD programmes.

- |   |    |                          |
|---|----|--------------------------|
| 1. CPTD appeared to have been a relatively unplanned, reactive process.   | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Facilitators attended activities in a haphazard manner.  | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Most of the time discussions are about politics and remuneration.  | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Facilitators structured learning to the development needs of individuals.  | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. The developmental activities took into account teachers' working situations.   | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Subject-based CPTD was one of the most highly regarded forms of professional development.  | 6. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Facilitators were disorganized, rambling and poor at public speaking.  | 7. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Facilitators took into account different learning styles, levels of ability and prior knowledge amongst the teachers attending the course. | 8. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Failed to tailor their courses sufficiently to the subject matter.   | 9. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. Rank the appropriateness of the following CPTD methods by using a scale of 1-8 (1 being the least and 8 the best method)

- |   |    |                          |
|---|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Small group work                               | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Didactic lecture teaching                      | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Distance learning packages                     | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Computer-based learning                        | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Short workshops (one day)                      | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Residential courses (several consecutive days) | 6. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Courses one day a week over several weeks      | 7. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Courses over several months                    | 8. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

3. Rank order from 1-5 on what timing you would have preferred for teacher development programmes ((5 being the best time and 1 being the worst time)

- |                                    |    |                          |
|------------------------------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Half-sessions                   | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Lunch time sessions             | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Full-day sessions               | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Evening courses                 | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Those lasting more than one day | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

4. What kind of topics was done during the teacher development programmes?

- |                                   |    |                          |
|-----------------------------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Subject content                | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Teaching and learning methods  | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Developing learning programmes | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Developing work schedules      | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Developing lesson plans        | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Other (Please specify)         | 6. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. Were the teacher development programmes you attended aiming at:

- |   |    |                          |
|---|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Closing the content gap  | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Introducing new teaching and learning methods and skills               | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Introducing teachers on how to develop learner guides                  | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Informing teachers on how to deal with learner resilience              | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Indicating to teachers ways of dealing with kinds of classroom climate | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Other Please specify)  | 6. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

6. Do you think that:

- |   |                          |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. Teacher development programmes were deemed unresponsive to the preferences of teachers when timetabling CPTD activities? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Often development programmes were offered mid-term, during busy periods, at long distances from school                   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Teachers preferred to engage with development activities when things were quieter at school                              | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Some teachers preferred 'twilight' sessions given after school, during the late after noon and early evening             | <input type="checkbox"/> |

7. Alternatively:

- |  |                          |
|--|--------------------------|
| 1. Would you be happy giving up a day or two o your holidays each year to attend conferences or sessions on teacher development? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|--|--------------------------|

2. Would you prefer on line learning so as to participate in teacher development activities at your own pace and according to your own interest?
3. Would you be part of those who valued being able to meet and network with colleagues from different schools

**(For question 9 and 10 indicate how you would rate the following statements by ranking them from 1-4 (4 being the most common and 1 being the least))**

8. In the communities of practice in your cluster teachers work together to support each others' professional growth through the following aspects (Rank order them according to their preference from 5-1)

- |  |    |                          |
|--|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Experimentation                     | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Observation                         | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Reflection                          | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Exchange of professional ideas; and | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Shared problem solving              | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

**(For question 9 and 10 indicate how you would rate the following statements by ranking them from 1-4 (4 being the most common and 1 being the least))**

9. To what extent do teachers work with one another in the following areas? Rank order them from 1-4 (4 being the most preferred and 1 the least)

- |   |    |                          |
|---|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Planning                                   | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Instruction                                | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Developing materials                       | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Watching one another working with students | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

10. How far were school-based programmes:

- |   |                          |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. Meeting needs and expectations of the teachers;                          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Being practiced;   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Being continuous;  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Giving teachers the opportunity for professional development and growth? | <input type="checkbox"/> |

11. Which of the following were done in teacher network programmes?

- |  |    |                          |
|--|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Peer observation  | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Participating in projects in groups with fellow professionals | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Forming local groups to discuss issues                        | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Taking turns to lead sessions                                 | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

12. What do you think were teachers' impressions on networking?

- |  |    |                          |
|--|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Learning opportunities that took place outside school                             | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Teachers found these opportunities stimulating and refreshing                     | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. These opportunities had also assisted their overall professional development      | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Teachers needed to be given time to think collectively about what they are doing. | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

13. On peer observation teachers expressed great enthusiasm for observing peers

- |  |    |                          |
|--|----|--------------------------|
| 1. teaching the same or similar subject areas and  | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. visiting other schools which, teachers felt it was extremely important.                               |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.   |    |                          |
| 3. They felt that peer observation was an extremely cost-effective professional development opportunity. |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. For them, it was one CPTD implementation method that could play a more important role within schools. |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |

14. Which of the following were done during off-site programmes?

- |  |    |                          |
|--|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Peer observation  | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Participating in projects in groups with fellow professionals |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.   |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Forming local groups to discuss issues                        |    |                          |
| 3.   |    |                          |
| 4. Taking turns to lead sessions                                 | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

15. In the CPTD programmes, are teachers

- |   |    |                          |
|---|----|--------------------------|
| 1. Reflecting on their practice?  | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Having greater role in setting the agenda and being actively engaged in an experimental process? | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Assisted to work with their peers as facilitators and team leaders?                              |    | <input type="checkbox"/> |

16. Do employers provide sustained leadership and support?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

1.

2.

17. Are school-based programmes collaborative and interactional rather than lectures to large groups?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

1.

2.

#### D. Evaluation

1. Evaluate each of the following statements by ticking the box which best reflects your opinion and experience of the specific statement. (Please tick one box for each statement and if not applicable to your case write NA in the appropriate box).

- 1. School-based models of CPTD create a potential to contribute to critique and shape educational reform. 1.
- 2. Action research is a powerful tool for change and improvement at the local level. 2.
- 3. Action research involves teachers in research and the evaluation of their own performance. 3.
- 4. Action research focuses on challenges experienced by teachers to enhance their teaching and improve student learning 4.

2. School-based and teacher networks, on-site and off-site programmes

- 1. Demonstrate most effective efforts for change to take place close to the action.
- 2. Are aimed at the needs and expectations of teachers.
- 3. Are practical.
- 4. Occur continuously.
- 5. Give teachers the opportunity for professional development and growth.

3. Have you ever been part of the school-based development models?

- 1. Yes

1.

- 2. No

2.

4. Have you ever been involved in Action Research at your school or in your classroom?

1. Yes 1.
2. No 2.

5. In this new paradigm CPTD needs to make teachers

1. shift from old patterns or past orientations to new ones that would lead   
 1. to change in knowledge, attitudes, values, skills and relationships;
2. strengthen their subject knowledge base, pedagogical content knowledge   
 2. and teaching skills;
3. to be skilled in recognizing, identifying and addressing barriers to learning 3.   
 and creating conducive teaching and learning environments for all learners;
4. to be involved in a CPTD system that is well-coordinated;   
 4.
5. to see to it that it brings about designers of materials, researchers and life 5   
 long learners; and
6. develop teachers such that they learn new roles and ways of teaching. 6.

3. The following statements indicate criticism of what happens in schools. Rate and tick all the statements that relate to your school.

**Key: +**

	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
<b>1. Strongly Disagree</b>				
<b>2. Disagree</b>				
<b>3 Agree</b>				
<b>4. Strongly Agree</b>				
1. Coaching of teachers	1	2	3	4
2. Mentoring of teachers	1	2	3	4
3. Monitoring of educational processes	1	2	3	4
4. Demonstration lessons for peers on site	1	2	3	4
5. Demonstration lessons are conducted after every workshop attended by lead teachers	1	2	3	4
a.				
6. My school is part of the	1	2	3	4



14. The school management organizes school-based Professional teacher development without considering the needs of the school.	1	2	3	4
15. The school management does not organize any school based professional teacher development.	1	2	3	4
16. The most effective efforts for change in your school are focused on ractical problems, involve teachers in project decision, include classroom assistance and have regular meetings that focus on practical problems.	1	2	3	4
17. The school management does not have any attempt of bringing about change in classroom practice.	1	2	3	4
18. There are regular meetings that do not focus on practical problems.	1	2	3	4

### Appendix 3: Permission to conduct Research Letters



University of Fort Hare  
*Together in Excellence*

25 May 2010

The Principal

Dear Sir/Madam,


**Mrs Mabel-Wendy N. Mashologu; Student Number 200804357**

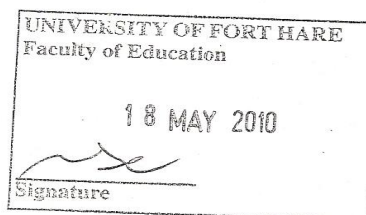
The above mentioned student is pursuing a PhD at the University of Fort Hare. I am her supervisor. Her study is titled "An Assessment of the Implementation of Continuing Professional Development Programmes for Teachers in Secondary Schools in Lady Frere, Eastern Cape". She has completed the first three chapters of her thesis and she is now required to collect data. She is supposed to administer questionnaires to Lead Teachers and Subject Teachers of Grade 11. She will also hold interviews and observe teachers in the classrooms.

I would be grateful if you could allow her to collect data from your school. I would like to assure you that any information that would be collected will remain confidential and no name of a person or school will be disclosed. The student will ensure that she does not disrupt ongoing activities during the period she will be collecting data.

I thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

  
Professor Symphorosa Rembe  
Supervisor





Province of the  
**EASTERN CAPE**  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X1152 LADY FRERE 5410 \* REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA \*

Tel:(047)8780355 Fax:(047)8780358 Cell:0824412039

E-mail:

bchulekazi@yahoo.com

COMPILER	DATE	TEL. NO.	FAX NO.	FILE NUMBER
Mrs. C.N. Bula	26.05.2010	047 8780355	047 8780358	

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

This is to confirm that Mrs Mabel-Wendy N. Mashologu: Student Number 200804357 was permitted to conduct research in Lady Frere Education District FET schools. She was allowed to administer questionnaires and hold interviews with cluster leaders, facilitators, HOD's and Principals of FET schools in Lady Frère District.

Hoping you will find the above in order.

Yours truly,

CN Bula

Chief Education Specialist for Curriculum Management: Lady Frere

Ms Mabel-wendy N. Mashologu  
P. O. Box 2251  
KOMANI  
21 May 2010

Grade 11 Teacher  
Lady Frere District

Dear Sir/Madam

**Re: Mrs Mabel-wendy N. Mashologu: Student Number 200804357**

This serves as a request for you to be part of the survey to be conducted by the above mentioned student in the Lady Frere District.

As it is a basic premise of ethical survey research that respondents or participants are informed about what it is that they are volunteering for, they should be aware of the following information before they answer the questions asked:

- Answers will be protected with respect to anonymity, confidentiality and that respondent's name will not be revealed in any way;
- Respondents can skip any question/s that they do not want to answer;
- Permission to record interview on tape will be requested from the respondents;
- Cooperation is voluntary in that respondents can refuse to answer any question/s or discontinue any time during the interview.

The research objectives of the study are to assess:

- how teachers are implementing what they have learnt in the Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) programmes;
- monitoring and support programmes put in place by the Department of education to assist teachers; and
- the amount of time given to the implementation programme.

This study will also assist in finding an appropriate CPTD model for different implementation models that will motivate teachers in lifelong learning and in the improvement of classroom practice.

Your participation and cooperation is highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully  
Mabel-wendy N. Mashologu

## **Appendix 4: Consent Letters**

Assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in the secondary schools in Lady Frere district, Eastern Cape.

### **Cover letter for School Managers**

Dear Participant

Your voluntary participation in this study is highly appreciated.

I am **Mabel-Wendy Nombutho Mashologu** a **Ph. D student** at the **University of Fort Hare, School For Post-Graduate Studies** .As part of my academic; programme, I am conducting research on **an assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in secondary schools in Lady Frere District, Eastern Cape.**

The purpose of the study is to examine whether classroom practices of lecturers convey hidden meanings to college students in the training context and the implications of this to the culture of pedagogy in the teachers' colleges.

The information availed to the researcher during the study will be kept in confidentiality so that your names remains anonymous .where it has to be use a code will be in its place. You are also free to withdraw from the study at any point if you so wish.

The research entails conducting face to face interviews with college managers and pre-service teachers at all levels of training. Further, relevant documents relating to the subject of study will be examined. You are kindly requested to answer all questions as honestly as you can. With your permission the interview will be audio – tape recorded and disposed of upon completion of the study.

I can be contacted on: cell 0843633485 or E-mail [mmashologu@wsu.ac.za](mailto:mmashologu@wsu.ac.za)

Thank you,

**Mabel-Wendy Nombutho Mashologu.**

Assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in the secondary schools in Lady Frere district, Eastern Cape.

### **Cover letter for school teachers**

Dear Participant

Your voluntary participation in this study is highly appreciated.

I am **Mabel-Wendy Nombutho Mashologu** a **Ph. D student** at the **University of Fort Hare, School For Post-Graduate Studies** .As part of my academic; programme, I am conducting research on **an assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in secondary schools in Lady Frere District, Eastern Cape.**

The purpose of the study is to examine whether classroom practices of lecturers convey hidden meanings to college students in the training context and the implications of this to the culture of pedagogy in the teachers' colleges.The information availed to the researcher during the study will be kept in confidentiality so that your name remains anonymous .Where it has to be used a code will be in its place. You are also free to withdraw from the study at any point if you so wish.

The research entails conducting face to face interviews with college managers, lecturers and pre-service teachers at all levels of training. Further, relevant documents relating to the subject of study will be examined. You are kindly requested to answer all questions as honestly as you can. With your permission the interview will be audio –tape recorded and disposed of upon completion of the study. I can be contacted on: cell 0843633485 or E-mail mmashologu@ wsu.ac.za

Thank you,

**Mabel-Wendy Nombutho Mashologu.**

Assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in the secondary schools in Lady Frere district, Eastern Cape.

### **Cover letter for Facilitators**

Dear Participant

Your voluntary participation in this study is highly appreciated.

I am **Mabel-Wendy Nombutho Mashologu** a **Ph. D student** at the **University of Fort Hare, School For Post-Graduate Studies** .As part of my academic; programme, I am conducting research on **an assessment of the implementation of continuing professional development programmes for teachers in secondary schools in Lady Frere District, Eastern Cape.**

The purpose of the study is to examine whether classroom practices of lecturers convey hidden meanings to college students in the training context and the implications of this to the culture of pedagogy in the teachers' colleges.

The information availed to the researcher during the study will be kept confidentially so that your name remains anonymous .Where it has to be used; a code will be in its place. You are also free to withdraw from the study at any point if you so wish.

The research entails conducting face to face interviews with college managers, lecturers and pre-service teachers at all levels of training. Further, relevant documents relating to the subject of study will be examined. You are kindly requested to answer all questions as honestly as you can. With your permission the interview will be audio –tape recorded and disposed of upon completion of the study. I can be contacted on: cell 0843633485 or E-mail [mmashologu@wsu.ac.za](mailto:mmashologu@wsu.ac.za)

Thank you,

**Mabel-Wendy Nombutho Mashologu**

## Appendix 5: Observations

1. Facilitators To become qualified must be able to:

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Conduct effective training					
2. Maintain the flow and enthusiasm of the workshop.					
3. Modify the content based on needs of the participants					
4. Act as a resource for participants					
5. Recruit potential participants					
6. Act as host agency's lead contact with participants					

2. Facilitators must exhibit a pleasant manner that fosters group learning by:

1. Being enthusiastic about the development and the Curriculum.					
2. Being easily understood					
3. Connecting with participants					
4. Being assertive; not fluster easily					
5. Valuing cultural diversity					

3. Facilitators should show having prior experience with leading group facilitation or teaching, or extensive leadership experience by:

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Having the capacity to facilitate group discussion and peer interaction such as maintaining the flow and direction of discussion, drawing out quiet participants, dealing with wrong answers.					
2. Being able to keep a group in task, interested and involved.					
3. Being able to ask and answer questions appropriately.					
4. Having the capacity to deal appropriately with emergencies, and with inevitable technical and logistical difficulties.					
5. Having the capacity to deal effectively with challenging behaviours and difficult personalities.					
6. Having the capacity to modify activities in the training programme to meet the needs of the participants, such as finding and using supplemental materials, using participant examples, substituting role plays for					

discussion, sharing personal experiences to make a point.					
7. Being willing to take advantage of available support and facilitator development opportunities					

4. Expected outcomes:

1. Who is being observed?	
2. How many people are involved?	
3. What are their positions?	
4. Where did the observation take place?	
5. What are conditions like?	
6. What is the main objective of the session?	
7. What emotions do participants express?	
8. What is the level of participation?	
9. Are participants allowed to share their views?	
10. Sharing of responsibility:	
11. Time frames allocated:	
12. Role of facilitator:	
13. Style of leadership:	
14. Method used for the development programme:	
15. Appropriateness of the development programme: (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)	

**Observation in the classroom after the development session (Teachers)**

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. Teachers' capability in handling the class					
2. Methods used:					
Teacher tell and learner listen					
Student finding out for him/herself with the teacher facilitating					
3. Teachers' confidence					
4. Ability in their subject specialization					
5. Use of teaching material provided after the development session					
6. Number of students in the class					
7. Student participation:					
1. Groups					
2. Individuals					
8. Change in the classroom practice					