WESTERN CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT (WCED) TEACHER IN-SERVICE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES WITH THE EMPHASIS ON TEACHING AND LEARNING AND THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNERS

JENNIFER PRISCILLA MARTIN
8432837

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Supervisor: Prof. Lorna Holtman

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KEY WORDS

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Learner-centred teaching
Teaching
Western Cape Education Department (WCED)
Continuing Professional Teacher Development
Department of Basic Education (DBE)
Monitoring and review
Sustained economic growth
ABSTRACT

There is global interest in teacher education as a strategy for national development. More specifically, emphasis is placed on teachers as the driving force behind educational provision which is central to achieving high standards of learner achievement. This study focused on teacher in-service development and its role for effective teaching and learning towards the holistic development of learners.

Extensive social inequalities, along the lines of race, still exist in South Africa almost twenty years into the new dispensation. This is evident by the vast majority of impoverished schools in previously disadvantaged areas. Learners at these schools experience a range of barriers to learning which impede teaching and learning. Consequently, teachers at these schools are confronted with a tension-filled task: having to be sensitive to the needs of these learners, whilst at the same having to ensure their success. This is reflected in Department of Education (DoE) policies which emphasises principles of social transformation for redress and equity, coupled with the acquisition and application of knowledge and skills for the benefit of individuals in South Africa, as well as global trends.

As a quantitative data collection method in this mixed method study, 55 teachers (of which 26 responded) from two schools, were asked to complete a questionnaire on the effectiveness of teacher in-service development programmes towards the holistic development of learners. Qualitative data collection methods entailed interviewing a principal of one of the schools; a social worker from the area; as well as a district officer from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED). In addition, relevant DoE policies were reviewed.

Findings reflect that teachers at impoverished schools are confronted with a range of challenges presented by learners in the classrooms. The findings also indicate that even though DoE policies reflect a commitment to teacher development, the in-service programmes offered to teachers mostly do not reflect the needs of teachers for the holistic development of learners. In instances where in-service programmes do assist with the holistic development of learners, findings indicate that the implementation thereof is challenging due to the high teacher: learner ratio and limited resources.

Thus, recommendations include the periodic monitoring and review of long-term DoE teacher development initiatives whilst short term measures incorporate giving attention to impediments like lack of parental support and behavioural challenge. Long term measures, which are strongly recommended, encompass systemic change that facilitates the working together of a number of governmental departments. In so doing, educational reform takes on a society wide form, as it is evident that on its own it cannot abate poverty and the related effects. Thus, the DoE’s vision of education for social transformation towards redress and equity, as well as economic growth for individuals and South Africa is more plausible. These recommendations create a vital space for future research.
DECLARATION

I declare that WCED TEACHER IN-SERVICE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES WITH THE EMPHASIS ON TEACHING AND LEARNING AND THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNERS is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Jennifer Priscilla Martin
November 2013

Signed: ........................................

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE
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<td>ACE</td>
<td>Advanced Certificate in Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>APA</td>
<td>American Psychological Association</td>
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<td>CAPS</td>
<td>Curriculum and Assessment Policy</td>
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<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
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<td>CPTD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Teacher Development</td>
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<td>CTLI</td>
<td>Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute</td>
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<td>DBE</td>
<td>Department of Basic Education</td>
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<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>ELRC</td>
<td>Education Labour Relations Council</td>
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<td>FET</td>
<td>Further Education and Training</td>
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<td>GEAR</td>
<td>Growth Employment and Redistribution</td>
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<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
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<td>IQMS</td>
<td>Integrated Quality Management System</td>
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<td>MSSI</td>
<td>Mpumalanga Secondary Science Initiative</td>
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<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-governmental organisations</td>
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<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>NSC</td>
<td>National Senior Certificate</td>
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<td>OBE</td>
<td>Outcomes Based Education</td>
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<td>PCK</td>
<td>Pedagogical Content Knowledge</td>
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<td>PGPs</td>
<td>Personal Growth Plans</td>
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<td>PEDs</td>
<td>Provincial Education Departments</td>
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<td>RCNS</td>
<td>Revised National Curriculum Statement</td>
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<td>SAIDE</td>
<td>South African Institute for Distance Education</td>
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<td>SDT</td>
<td>Staff Development Team</td>
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<td>SGBs</td>
<td>School Governing Bodies</td>
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<td>SIP</td>
<td>School Improvement Plan</td>
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<td>TDS</td>
<td>Teacher Development Summit</td>
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<td>TIMMS</td>
<td>Trends in Mathematics and Science</td>
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<td>UWC</td>
<td>University of the Western Cape</td>
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<td>WCED</td>
<td>Western Cape Education Department</td>
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION TO STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

A vast majority of South Africans, as a result of their low level of basic education, are not acquiring the needed skills for the sustained social and economic development of the country. The throughput rate of learners in the Further Education and Training (FET) band (Grades 10-12) is of primary concern to the Department of Education (DoE, 2005). Statistics for individuals with Grade 12 certification and individuals with tertiary qualifications provide a clear indication as to the reasons for concern. The percentage of the South African population in 2009 with Grade 12 certification stood at 26,1% as opposed to 21,55% in 2002. Individuals with a tertiary qualification increased from 9,2% in 2002 to 10,9% in 2009 (DoE, 2009). Although these figures indicate slight increases over the years, closer examination is useful to identify possible impediments to the sustained social and economic development of South Africa, specifically within the sphere of education.

Over and above the slight increases in Grade 12 and Higher Education (HE) certification, the unemployment rate in 2011 was at 25,5% (Statistics South Africa, 2012). This rate of unemployment in South Africa is highest in the sector of the population with the lowest rate of entry into HE. The earning rate for this group is a low percentage of the earnings of those who have the highest rate of entry into HE (Statistics South Africa, 2010). These statistics are supported by the research of Danziger and Ratner (2010), who found that HE graduates have better prospects at employment than high school graduates. In addition, findings of the research of Danziger and Ratner (2010) indicate that an adult with a Bachelors degree will over a life-time earn twice as much as an adult with only a high school qualification. According to Danziger and Ratner (2010) successful throughput towards access into HE could contribute to a reduction in unemployment as well as to prospects for an increase in earnings for South Africans.

Support for teachers at schools could impact positively on throughput of learners for successful access into HE. However, the 2003 Trends in Mathematics and Science (TIMMS) study as indicated in the National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa (DoE,
2006) cautiously forewarn that even though South African teachers are afforded extensive development opportunities, figures for learner achievement reflect that these opportunities still have limited impact. To gain a better understanding of the reasons for this limited impact, this study investigates in-service development programmes offered to teachers for the holistic development of learners.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

As a background to this study, key elements within relevant Department of Education (DoE) policy pertaining to teaching and learning are highlighted. These policies reflect a commitment to social transformation. However, while post-apartheid South Africa, through its policies, intended to contribute to redress and equity, it simultaneously ensured that its economic policies were in line with global trends (Vally, 2007) which are reflected in legislation like the South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996. In addition, current curriculum policy emphasises the importance of knowledge and skills so that South Africa is able to compete globally. Educational policy specifically expresses this two-fold intention: social transformation, intended to contribute to redress and equity; and the acquisition and application of knowledge and skills so that South Africa is able to compete globally.

Principles toward social transformation are often reflected in educational policy by emphasising the need for redress and equity so that the needs of all learners are considered. Based on the principles of social transformation, educational policy post 1994 emphasises that all learners be included, regardless of their socio-economic conditions, physical ability or intellectual ability, so that it is possible for learners to meet their potential to the maximum (DoE, 2001a; DoE, 2011). As its central purpose White Paper 6 of 2001 (DoE, 2001a) specified the establishment of an inclusive education and training system for all, achieving equality and human rights for all, with and without disabilities, so that they (learners) are able to pursue their learning potential to the maximum.

Emphasis is placed on:

...learners who experience or have experienced barriers to learning and development or who have dropped out of learning because of the inability of the education and training system to accommodate the diversity of learning needs, and those who continue to be excluded from it… (DoE, 2001a: 11).
One of the barriers of learning referred to in the above quote is socio-economic deprivation (DoE, 2001a). Learners experiencing socio-economic deprivation have specific learning needs. If these needs remain unmet, learners “... may fail to learn effectively or be excluded from the learning system...” (DoE, 2001a: 7). More specifically, these barriers to learning in impoverished communities include poverty, underdevelopment of basic services, lack of or overcrowded housing, unemployment, dysfunctional families, violence and crime (Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001: 311). Also peer pressure, lack of home involvement, lack of recreational opportunities, as well as deficiencies within communities e.g. the lack of involvement, are examples of barriers to learning (Adelman & Taylor, 1994). Adelman and Taylor (1994) further emphasise that external factors like these are primarily responsible for learners’ emotional and behavioural problems at schools. These principles of transformation are also echoed in the current DoE curriculum policy, which guides teaching and learning as expressed in the National Curriculum Statements (NCS) Grades R-12 (DBE, 2011).

Simultaneously, the central aim of the NCS is for the successful acquisition and application of knowledge and skills by learners, which are meaningful for these learners, while due consideration is given to global needs (DoE, 2012). In addition, legislation like the South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996) enable more advantaged schools with higher fee structures paid by affluent parents to employ extra teachers in order to alleviate large classes. In sharp contrast to these affluent schools, schools situated in areas like Blue Waters, where this study took place, are less likely able to afford to employ extra teachers. The South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996) also makes it possible for School Governing Bodies (SGBs) to provide for mentoring and induction of teachers. However, a number of schools, mostly in rural areas and townships like Blue Waters do not have this luxury (Arends & Phurutse, 2009). Resulting from financial constraints, impoverished schools tend to encounter a decrease, or minimal improvement in the senior certificate results over a period of time (Hoadley & Ward, 2009).

Blue Waters is one of the many impoverished townships in the Western Cape. Learners in this township experience the barriers described above on a daily basis. In this community extreme poverty exists. There is a high unemployment rate and gangsterism is rife (Mail & Guardian, 1

1This is a fictitious name for purposes of anonymity.
April 2011). While teachers in impoverished areas like Blue Waters are required to take learners’ needs into account, teachers are simultaneously required to assist learners to develop their maximum potential so that their acquisition and application of knowledge and skills are relevant for employment as well as global needs. Thus, relevant support for in-service teachers by the DoE, the Department of Basic Education (DBE), and the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) is necessary.

1.3 RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Socio-economic factors like poverty are daily realities of the South African education system. South Africans who live in poverty are prone to inadequate education, low wages, unemployment, malnutrition, conflict, violence, crime, substance abuse, which all aggravate the cycle of poverty (Prinsloo as cited in Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2011), and hamper education within the schools. Teachers are expected to deal with these challenges and its effects while still focusing on the successful throughput of learners daily. The impact of socio-economic factors on the education system, particularly within the classroom is complex, making educational assistance from the DoE at national, provincial and local levels imperative. Still, support for teachers to deal with these challenges is lacking (Centre for Education Policy Development, 2009).

The National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa (DoE, 2006) emphasises the role of teachers for a good quality educational system. Furthermore, this policy document claims that a direct link exists between teachers’ lack of conceptual and content knowledge, and the low degree of learner achievement. Resultantly, Grade 12 results are affected, as well as the number of learners who attain access into HE. Thus, in addition to teacher in-service development programmes which focus on strengthening teachers’ understanding of subject and pedagogic knowledge, support is needed for teachers to effectively deal with socio-economic challenges which learners bring into the classrooms.

Schools, thus urgently need to be centres of care and support (Centre for Education Policy Development, 2009). However, in order for schools to do this adequately, Adelman and Taylor

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2 For purposes of anonymity the authors of newspaper articles referred to in this document will not be revealed.
(2007) point out that merely being concerned with school health, which includes the mental and physical health of learners, is not enough for learner success. Instead, school health is only one component of a “…multifaceted continuum of programmes and services, schools need to enable effective learning and teaching...” (Adelman & Taylor, 2007: 74). This continuum includes the promotion of a healthy development as well as addressing barriers to teaching, learning and development, towards a holistic developmental approach of learners (Adelman & Taylor, 2007).

Successful learning is dependent on the holistic development of learners, which essentially focuses on the overall needs of learners. Teaching towards holistic learner development, including addressing barriers for the success of learners, thus necessitates learner-centred classrooms (Brown, 2003). It is clear that for teachers to teach towards successful throughput of learners, effective teacher in-service support is needed for teachers to be equipped to address learning barriers effectively.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This section outlines the problem statement, which briefly highlights learner-centred principles within DoE curriculum; the resultant challenges for teachers at schools in impoverished areas; and, the implications for teacher in-service development programmes. This is followed by the objectives, and finally, the research questions.

1.4.1 Statement of the problem

Curriculum reforms of the past decade have been informed by the notions of learner-centred teaching (Brodie, Lelliot & Davis, 2002). Curriculum policy in South Africa emphasises that “…Curriculum development…should put learners first, recognizing and building on their knowledge and experience, and responding to their needs…” (National Department of Education, 1996: 11, as cited in Brodie, et al., 2002). Brodie, et al., (2002) further emphasise that the learner-centred approach requires that learners’ knowledge and experiences should be taken into account. However, while teachers generally display eagerness over the new curriculum and believe that they are working with the principles embodied in the curriculum, much teaching practice remains teacher-centred (Chisholm, et al., as cited in Brodie, et al., 2002).
Learner-centred teaching towards the holistic development of learners presents teachers with a huge challenge (Brown, 2003). With this approach teachers should, for example, focus on: the prior knowledge of learners; their interests and strengths; and, their linguistic abilities and cultures (Brown, 2003: 99). While believing that all learners have the ability to learn, teachers should remember that all learners have different strengths and abilities while still having high expectations of all learners (Brown, 2003). Simultaneously, Brown (2003) further states that teachers should also remember that with the learner-centred approach they are responsible for learners’ intellectual, emotional, physical, as well as social growth.

Thus, teacher development faces multi-dimensional challenges for both pre-service and in-service programmes. It is a “…complex, tension-filled practice…” (Adler & Reed 2002: 5). Interestingly, teachers are expected to deal with learners from poor socio-economic conditions living with challenges like poverty and violence. By implication teachers are expected to alleviate these challenges, while being accountable for learners’ success. Dealing with the impact of socio-economic factors like poverty, (and by implication high learner-teacher ratios), while being responsible for learners’ success, is a tension filled, and challenging situation for teachers. This makes it imperative that teachers receive the relevant support.

It is evident that the DoE views teacher development programmes as imperative for successful learner throughput (DoE, 2006). Even though extensive development opportunities are available to teachers, the rate of learner achievement, however, reflects that these opportunities have limited impact (DoE, 2006).

Adler and Reed (2002) point out that the practice of merely upgrading the subject knowledge of teachers is too simplistic. They further emphatically stress that this simplistic approach will not bring forth better learner attainment, unless it is accompanied by teacher development programmes. These programmes should focus on dealing with teachers’ contexts, as well as the contexts of the learners, as required by the learner-centred approach reflected in the National Curriculum Statements. Brodie, et al., (2002) however caution that challenges like violence, large classes, and learners with diverse backgrounds, impede a learner-centred approach. These challenges, therefore, have implications for teacher development programmes and need to be
taken into account. This would contribute towards the goal of the eventual emergence of adults who are ready to lead productive lives in the South African society as claimed by Danziger and Ratner (2010). The in-depth focus on WCED teacher in-service development programmes in Blue Waters, thus highlights whether this support is adequate for the challenges presented by the learners in such areas.

1.4.2 Objectives

The objectives of this research are as follows:

i. To provide an overview of existing teacher in-service development programmes of the WCED in Blue Waters.

ii. To examine if teacher in-service development programmes assist teachers with learner-centred teaching strategies.

iii. To provide recommendations on how teacher in-service development programmes can equip teachers to teach in a learner-centred manner for the holistic development of learners.

1.4.3 Research questions

The research questions at the core of this study are the following:

i. Do district offices of the WCED and the national DBE offer relevant and meaningful teacher in-service development support towards a learner-centred approach?

ii. Do teacher in-service development programmes by the WCED and the DBE provide guidance with regard to the context of learners and the context of teachers?

iii. How can teacher in-service development programmes be enhanced so that teachers are effectively able to support the holistic development of learners?

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

To investigate teacher in-service development programmes for the holistic development of learners, a research design that would answer the research questions in the best possible manner was chosen.
Babbie and Mouton (2001), state that research design involves the planning of scientific inquiry to specify what needs to be investigated; and secondly, to determine the best way to go about this. In order to gather data for this study, as a unit of analysis, two schools were chosen from the pool of schools within the jurisdiction of the WCED to serve as a case study. Thus, the investigation at a micro level (Zaianal, 2007) of a present day social phenomenon, in a real life context was possible, using multiple sources of data (Yin, 1984).

To collect data, a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods, that is, a mixed method approach was used. This mixed method approach served as the underpinning paradigm for this research.

1.5.1 Mixed method research as a methodological paradigm
Bassey (1995) defines paradigm as a system of clear, logical beliefs about the nature of the world which are observed and followed by certain researchers. These ideas form their thinking and support their research activities. This “…basic worldview or belief system…” (Guba & Lincoln 1994: 105) of the “...assumptions about the nature of knowledge (ontology) and the means of generating it (epistemology)...” (Bazley, 2002: 2) guides this researcher more than method (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Purists for quantitative and qualitative approaches view the underlying paradigm for their chosen approach as ideal for research, positioning each of their paradigms and the associated methods so as not to mix with each other (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004: 14). Mixed method research, a third paradigm, is useful particularly in educational research, and serves to draw on the strengths of each paradigm (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). The mixed method approach used in this study enabled the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods to be utilised. Some of these strengths of each type of method are mentioned below.

Quantitative method is seen as a more objective way (Myers, 1997) to gather numeric data which is analysed statistically (Bazley, 2002). Typically, the quantitative researcher is an objective observer who does not influence or participate in what is being studied (Myers, 1997). Myers
(1997) also states that by using this method, participants have more freedom to give their opinions in an honest manner without any fear of reprisal.

The multiple methods used in qualitative research are interactive and humanistic; enable more detailed discussions with participants; and, encourage the involvement of participants in the natural setting (Rossman & Rallis, 2000). The researcher is thus able to, in an explorative manner (Bazley, 2002) gather details about the individual/s and the place, facilitating the researcher’s involvement in the actual experiences of the participants (Rossman & Rallis, 2000). Qualitative research methods like interviews enable flexibility, making it possible for adjustments and changes where necessary (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). At the same time, special observations can be made during the interview processes which “…are not easily reduced to numbers…” (Babbie, 1995: 280).

The emphasis of the approaches (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007) in this mixed method study was however more on qualitative methods, which enjoyed dominant status. Consequently, this study has a strong leaning toward an interpretive research paradigm as it systematically analysed social meaningful action by directly observing people in their “…natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how…” they “…create and maintain their social worlds…”(Neuman, 1997: 68). Study of a “bounded system”, revealing information that can be captured within set parameters, is possible with case study design, allowing intensive exploration of a phenomenon (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004: 32). With case study design, data can be obtained feasibly though a variety of data collection methods (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 490). The range of data collection methods used for this case study is briefly discussed in the next section.

1.6 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

This mixed method study incorporated both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. By combining these methods a “thick description” of the theme studied (Geertz, 1973, as cited in Henning et al., 2004: 37) can be provided. Data for this study was collected through convenient and purposive sampling strategies. Thus, the participants were easily accessible, and research costs were kept to a minimum (Marshall, 1996: 523). More specifically, these participants were
teachers, a principal, and a social worker in Blue Waters, as well as a district officer of the WCED. All participants were purposively chosen as the researcher was familiar with the area and its schools, resulting from the researcher’s experience as a teacher in this area for a number of years. As a quantitative data collection method, all the teachers (55) at the two schools were asked to complete a questionnaire, of which 26 responded. The qualitative data collection methods included three semi-structured interviews with a principal of one of the schools, a social worker working in the area, and a district officer of Metropole South. These participants provided essential information of the context and setting of the area; the school and its learners; as well as the pertinent details of departmental mechanisms related to teacher-in-service programmes. Furthermore, an analysis of relevant documents was conducted.

1.6.1 The questionnaire
Fifty-five teachers across two schools in Blue Waters were asked to complete a questionnaire (Appendix D) and twenty-six responded. By including this quantitative data collection method, the teachers were given an opportunity to respond to questions in an objective, honest manner without any fear of reprisal (Myers, 1997). The questionnaire was validated by educational experts, and corrections to the questionnaire were made on their recommendations. The questionnaire assisted to gather data about teacher in-service development programmes offered by the WCED. More specifically, teachers were asked to list the in-service development programmes and to describe these programmes in more detail. In addition, teachers were asked to evaluate five statements according to a five point Likert scale.

1.6.2 Individual interviews
The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with the principal of one of the schools in Blue Waters and a social worker working at a non-governmental organisation (NGO) in this area. A third interview was conducted with a district officer of the WCED. Interview probes were used (found in Appendix E). This qualitative data collection method allowed for flexibility (Babbie & Mouton, 2001) and the conversational manner made it easier to establish a relationship of trust. The principal and the district officer were asked to give their views and provide recommendations pertaining to teacher in-service development programmes by the
WCED. The interview with the social worker provided insight into the social context of learners who attended the two schools.

1.6.3 Document analysis
Relevant documents that relate to the problem and purpose of this study (Bowen, 2009), more specifically the DoE policy documents that pertain to teacher in-service development programmes and the holistic learning of the learners, were analysed. These documents were systematically reviewed (Bowen, 2009) to reveal meaning, acquire understanding, and develop perceptions relevant to the research problem (Merriam, 1998: 18).

1.7 DATA ANALYSIS
Quantitative data, processed statistically by using the Microsoft Office package Excel, are graphically presented. Qualitative data drawn from responses to the qualitative research instruments were analysed and presented diagrammatically and through texts.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS
This study was conducted after the University of the Western Cape (UWC) approved the research proposal. Permission was requested from the WCED to gain access into schools and to relevant staff. Remenyi (1998: 114) states that confidentiality of participants should be maintained at all times in order to avoid potentially “unsatisfactory practices, which could endanger the participants”. This position of confidentiality was upheld by the researcher and participants were assured that their identities would be kept anonymous. Participants in the research were also informed that their participation is voluntary and that they would be informed of the findings of the research.

1.9 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS
This section presents how the researcher organised the chapters of the thesis as well as the contents of each chapter.

Chapter 1: Introduction to study
Chapter one serves as an introductory chapter to the research study. It provides an introduction and background to the study. The rationale and significance of the study, as well as the problem
statement, objectives and research questions are discussed. In addition, the research design and data collection methods are described, followed by an explanation of the data analysis process. Reference is also made to the ethical considerations. Finally, an outline of all the chapters is provided.

Chapter 2: Conceptual theoretical framework and literature review
In this chapter a conceptual framework encompassing conditions necessary for optimal learning for teachers, as well as learners, is discussed. Included is a discussion on social cognitive learning theory, transformational learning theory and an integrated framework for holistic learning. In addition, this chapter provides a review of literature which focuses on teacher development within the South African context, which includes the legislation guiding it; a brief overview of teacher development in South Africa; the effects of poverty on education; factors which contribute positively to learners’ success; and finally, and, the need for teacher in-service development. Examples of studies on in-service teacher development are also provided.

Chapter 3: Methodology
This chapter explains the details and processes followed for this research. A discussion on the research design is included which is followed by a description of the data collection and analysis processes. Lastly, a brief description of the ethical considerations for this research is outlined.

Chapter 4: Presentation, analysis and discussion of research findings
The research findings from the questionnaires, the interviews and relevant DoE policy are presented in this chapter. This is followed by an analysis of the findings and concludes with a discussion of these findings.

Chapter 5: Conclusion and recommendations
This concluding chapter summarises the findings; discusses recommendations; and suggests areas for future research.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION
In the interests of the development of South Africa, it is imperative that its population is able to sustain itself economically. Research findings indicate that a strong link exists between Higher Education (HE) graduates and successful employment. However, challenges within the education system in South Africa are extensive, ranging from inadequate resource distribution and provision, to the on-going endeavour in developing a competent teaching force that is thoroughly equipped to ensure successful learner throughput. Thus, rigorous attention should be given to effective and meaningful teacher in-service development programmes so that learner throughput is increased and the increase in the matric pass rate is obtained for entry into HE.

Closer examination of teacher in-service development programmes necessitates a location within a context of scientific knowledge through highlighting previous research and other relevant texts to this area of study. By means of a literature review, the contextualization within an existing body of knowledge (Babbie, 1995) is possible. The review of literature for this study provides an overview of trends in teacher development in South Africa; a discussion on globalisation, marketisation and privatisation and its impact on education; a discussion on barriers to learning and its effects on learners; a conceptual theoretical framework for conditions which contribute to optimal learning for teachers and learners; and a summary of teacher in-service development with examples of other studies, curriculum changes and policy documents pertaining to teacher in-service development in South Africa.

2.2 OVERVIEW: TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA
Historically, teacher education was provided differently for different race groups. Only teacher education for the Whites was deemed as a professional practice located in post-matriculation colleges or universities (Welch as cited in Adler & Reed, 2002). Later colleges for the provision of teacher education for Blacks were developed offering two- and three-year qualifications as opposed to the three- and four-year qualifications for the white teachers. Furthermore, teachers
were equipped with the educational philosophy of fundamental pedagogy (Welch in Adler & Reed, 2002), which essentially ignores the socio-political context of education (Yonge, 2008).

Fundamental pedagogy assisted Christian National Education (Le Grange, 2008) which was established by Afrikaner nationalists, the objectives of which were in line with apartheid policies serving to preserve the master-servant relationship between Africans and the Whites (Msila, 2007). Le Grange (2008) emphasises further that fundamental pedagogics, thus, served as an educational doctrine for apartheid education. This is echoed by Enslin (1981) who states that fundamental pedagogics ignores sociological factors in explaining teaching and learning. For example, teachers trained in this paradigm were encouraged to take on the view that achievement is only realised through obedience (Gluckman, 1981). Enslin (1981) suggests that pedagogics formed the basis of teacher training, which is a component of fundamental pedagogics. Furthermore Beard and Morrow (1981) state that South African teachers were trained in pedagogics which had theoretical claims of being the only dependable way of studying education.

However, credit needs to be given to the education principles and practices of People’s Education which were promoted by civil society in the 1970’s and 80’s to the early 90’s. People’s Education influenced by Paulo Freire’s ideas and methods of education was given much attention by many South Africans who saw it as a vehicle for conscientisation by promoting critical thinking and analysis as well as the establishment of alternative structures of governance in education (Vally, 2007). The call for democratic governance within schooling included a plea for a single anti-racist, anti-sexist schooling system; better provisioning of resources; a changed curriculum; and, free compulsory schooling (Vally, 2007). This was coupled by a call for the development of alternative courses in schools and alternative teaching methods, according to the principles of People’s Education.

At the time of the negotiations between the ANC and the apartheid government in the early 90’s, liberal views were also at the forefront of the education scenario. Emphasis then shifted from radical discourse to one which was focused on performance and outcomes, was cost effective, and economically competitive (Vally, 2007). This is echoed by Chisholm, (2004: 5) who states
that South Africa’s macro-economic policy affected education policy during the decade after 1994. This essentially created a tension between education and training as a vehicle for increased productivity and competitiveness of the South African economy, while theoretically providing support for the redress of historical imbalances (Vally, 2007: 49). While post-apartheid South Africa, through its policies, intended to contribute to redress and equity, it simultaneously ensured that its economic policies were in line with global trends at the time. Resultantly, this is reflected in its education policy, specifically curriculum policy and cuts to education, social services and budgetary constraints (Vally, 2007: 49), having far reaching implications for teacher development.

In the next section globalisation, with particular reference to privatisation and marketisation, and the impact on education, is discussed. Examples of legislation and policies relevant to these terms are also cited.

2.3 GLOBALISATION: IMPACT ON EDUCATION

Globalisation refers to a complex set of processes resulting from world scale social interaction like the development of an increasingly integrated global economy and worldwide telecommunication networks (Mok, 2000). Becoming more prominent and noticeable after the end of the Cold War in 1989, globalisation influences world scale events as well as the everyday lives of individuals, restructuring their daily lives. Globalisation has pressurised states to improve and maintain their competitiveness in the global market (Mok, 2000) commonly through education reform. Notions of free-market ideology and finance-driven reform and the notion of competitiveness within globalisation have effects on education (Mok, 2000) through economic trends like privatisation and marketisation (Mok, 2010).

Echoing the views of Mok (2010), Whitty and Power (2000) state that reforms within education reflect a move from state funded education and state provision of education to more “…devolved systems of schooling with increased emphasis of parental choice and competition between increasingly diversified types of schools…” (p. 93). Resultantly, principles of privatisation and marketisation, within education, are on the increase (Whitty & Power, 2000).
More specifically, the terms privatisation and marketisation have been used at times interchangeably to explain the shift in the provision of welfare, and are frequently lightly defined and its meanings are uncertain. It is used to exaggerate conflict and to rally support, and sometimes have political connotations embedded (Whitty & Power, 2000). Essentially, these terms could be understood in relation to welfare support and restructuring of welfare. Sources of funding and the provision of funding are key elements of an elementary understanding of the organisation of, and the degree and essence of welfare (Whitty & Power, 2000). The “pure” model of state welfare for most “mass education systems” traditionally locates funding and provision firmly in the public sector (Whitty & Power, 2000: 94). With privatisation, however, there is a decrease in state provision, a decrease in state subsidies, and deregulation and relocation of services from the public sectors to the private sectors (Whitty & Power, 2000: 94). This is reflected within recent education reforms. Inherent in the South African Schools Act (DoE, 1996) are traces of devolvement of responsibility from the state to school governing bodies (SGBs). According to Section 37 (1) of this Act, SGBs of public schools have the authority to establish and administer a school fund. Section 37 (5) stipulates that all assets acquired by a public school on or after the commencement of this Act, remain the property of the school (DoE, 1996).

Whitty and Power (2000) argue however that, specifically with regard to funding, education has not been privatised on a large scale. Instead, marketisation may best describe the nature of reforms where quasi-markets are developed in state funded and state provided services (Whitty & Power 2000). Quasi-markets in education, particularly mass education systems, involve a mixture “…of parental choice and school autonomy with a greater or lesser degree of public accountability and government…” deregulation (Whitty & Power, 2000: 94). A quasi-market typically remains tightly controlled with state control of, for example new providers, and the quality of service and cost (Whitty & Power, 2000: 95). These scholars emphasise that parental decision-making has practical constraints which outweigh the “theoretical freedom”. This limits most education to the public sector. Despite this, education has still been “privatised” in the ideological sense (Whitty & Power, 2000: 95). Even though all mass education systems are within the ambit of state education systems, the growth of marketisation with features of privatisation, impact on such systems (Whitty & Power, 2000: 97). Section 39 of the South
African Schools Act stipulates that school fees at a public school are determined at school level and that (Section 42) the governing body of a public school may enforce the payment of school fees by parents who are liable to pay (DoE, 1996).

With particular emphasis on India, Geetha and Zaka (2010) assert that neo-liberal policies, which advocate low-cost, semi-private schools, have reduced the role of the state in schools. Thus, the poor and marginalised are over-represented in state-run schools, especially at primary school level. These factors have adversely impacted on the ability of the poor to access quality education (Geetha & Zaka, 2010). The decreased financial ability of parents to satisfy the demands associated in socialising and providing adequate educational opportunities for children, increases the number of school dropouts (Mok, 2010). With reference to South Africa, the poorer schools like township and most rural schools have a low-income parent body. There is less potential for the school fees generated at these schools to provide for the payment of extra teachers to alleviate the large classes. Thus, the effects of poverty on learning are a cause for grave concern as it contributes to the failure of learners’ needs being met, evident by the increased number of dropouts (Mok, 2010).

May (1998) points out that freeing up of markets and removal of state controls and intervention in many instances have not led to benefits for the poor, as the underlying institutional context has remained the same. This is echoed by Adato, Carter and May (2006: 227) who state that macro-economic policy, as reflected in the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy, has not proven to produce sufficient growth, and has not improved income distribution or poverty measures. Even though South Africa is an upper to middle income country, poverty is experienced by most South African households; and most South African households are susceptible to being poor. South Africa also has one of the most uneven distributions of income and wealth in the world (May, 1998; Woolard, 2002). Consequently, effective teaching and learning is hampered by learners’ emotional and behavioural problems at schools resulting from poverty (Adelman & Taylor, 1994).

**2.4 POVERTY**

Owing to the lack of resources, individuals or households are unable to achieve and uphold a socially acceptable minimum standard of living. This phenomenon of poverty can be
experienced beyond the individual and households, affecting communities as well (May & Govender, 1998: 9). “Lack of resources” is just not confined to a shortage of income, food or income but can also extend further. Resources can also be financial (money to purchase goods and services); cognitive (the mental ability to deal with everyday life through acquired literacy and numerical skills); emotional (ability to regulate emotional responses); physical (physical health and mobility); spiritual (belief in a divine purpose and guidance); support structure-related (having friends who are supportive and family as back-up resources); relationship-orientated (having meaningful, nurturing, constructive relationships); and, awareness of groups’ hidden rules like unexpressed cues and habits (Kamper, 2008: 1).

Apartheid policy which favoured the white minority has left a legacy of inequality (May, 1998; Woolard, 2002). Similarly, May (1998) asserts that the impact of apartheid is amongst the causes of inequality and poverty, which shaped the nature of poverty in South Africa. Adato, et al., (2006: 227), state that inequality and poverty have increased after the demise of apartheid, arising from poverty traps. To be specific, the socio-economic polarity between different race groups during apartheid created inequality which hampered conventional paths of upward mobility. A large proportion of South African households have no access to wage income. For those who are employed, there is a wide divergence in wages earned (Woolard, 2002).

Inequality is apparent when reflecting on the matric results. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) data of 2010 on school enrolments indicate that in Gauteng, the Western Cape and the Free State, there are fewer black learners than white learners in schools which are located within richest quintiles (de Kadt, 2010). Schools in these more affluent quintiles have a tendency to produce more successful matric results. This implies that inequality, based along the lines of race, is still prevalent in South African schools and society almost 20 years after the new dispensation.

2.4.1 The impact of poverty on education

The socio-economic and sociological problems stemming from poverty make it challenging for the equal provisioning of quality education and resources (Kamper, 2008). Typically high-poverty schools are confronted with learners who often are ill and hungry; are not properly clothed; do not have facilities to study; do not enjoy support from their parents; and struggle with
language proficiency, self-esteem and motivation to study; and, frequently move from one school to another. The teachers at these schools are mostly inexperienced; are often not qualified; lack self-esteem, are not adequately motivated; do not have high expectations from learners; display little respect for learners and parents; practice “poverty pedagogics” also referred to as “drill and kill” teaching; mostly work in decrepit classrooms; and have to cope without adequate resources. The parents at these schools are often in need of social or healthcare; are illiterate or semi-literate; have a distrust or even hatred of school as a result of their own experiences at school; and tend to be single parents or substitute parents. The environment at school is typically characterised by rundown buildings, broken furniture, and substandard toilet facilities (Kamper, 2008: 2).

Principals in impoverished schools are confronted with numerous challenges which include hungry learners; learners who lack proper clothing; learners who have no access to study facilities; lack the motivation to study; learners who lack parental support; and learners who lack self-esteem and language proficiency (Kamper, 2008: 2). In addition, high-poverty schools experience socio-economic circumstances characterised by unemployment, violence and crime as well as lack of provision of facilities, provision of textbooks, and meaningful support from education district offices. Although this is the case, these challenges can to an extent be overcome through compassionate, energetic and empowering leadership (Kamper, 2008: 13).

2.4.1.1 A dualistic school system

Educational quality has, therefore, not improved since the end of apartheid (van der Berg, 2008). Many schools continue to function as they did under apartheid. The primary education schooling system remains dualistic where schools which served predominantly white learners are functional while schools which catered largely for the black learners are dysfunctional (Spaull, 2012: 3). Learners from historically black schools represent 80% of enrolment (van der Berg, 2008) and these schools are characterised by excessive grade repetition rates, extreme underperformance, high levels of teacher absenteeism and high dropout percentages (Spaull, 2012: 3). Two systems of education still remain. Along the lines of race, the “have” and the “have-nots” can be distinguished several years after the political transition. This is despite an increasing black middle class, as 90% of those who are considered poor South Africans are black
Spaull (2012) further adds that the poor experience a far lesser quality of education than the more affluent. Important too is that it is the majority of learners who receive this inferior quality of education (Spaull, 2012) indicating that the school system has not yet been able to overcome the socio-economic disadvantage of poor schools (van der Berg, 2008). This perpetuates the cycle of poverty as the majority of learners are disadvantaged in the labour market (Spaull, 2012). Differential school outcomes, thus, translate into labour market inequalities. These do not only affect the productive adult life of present learners but also the education of the parents of the future generation (van der Berg, 2008). This is contrary to the hype of the “increase in the matric results” as claimed by the Department of Basic Education (DBE). A closer look indicates a different story. The next section focuses on the significance of the national senior certificate results.

### 2.4.2 Significance of the national senior certificate results

Even though there has been an increase in national senior certificate results, a closer look at these reflects that they do not necessarily allow learners into HE and/or employment. The national pass rate of the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination has steadily increased these past years, from 60, 6% in 2009; 67, 8% in 2010, to 70, 2% in 2011 (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Although this increase in the number of learners who have passed matric in 2011 statistically exists, it is interesting to note that these increasing numbers do not necessarily reflect a success or improvement in the number of South Africans with matric qualifications who qualify for HE entrance. In addition, the increase in pass rate does not also signify a success for the DBE with regard to the standard of education.

According to Statistics SA, of the 1055 397 learners who enrolled in 2000 only 496 090 wrote the matric exams in 2011 and only 348 117 passed (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Thus, the pass rate of learners who enrolled in 2000 is a mere 33% instead of the acclaimed 70, 2% pass rate (Business Day, 12 January, 2012). Moreover, even though learners attain matric passes, these passes do not necessarily fulfil the requirements for entry into Higher Education so that matric learners are further able to equip themselves with the necessary skills for employment which could provide for a sustained, productive living. More recently published statistics reflect that only 23,5 % of the 537 543 candidates who wrote in 2010 attained Bachelors passes (DBE,
With reference to the 2011 results, the Vice-chancellor of University of Free State and leading academic, Professor Jonathan Jansen states that 539,102 learners disappearing from the system fits in with the gradual decrease over the years of learners enrolled for the Grade 12 examinations (Weekend Argus, 7 January, 2012). In 2010, 559,166 students wrote the exam compared to the 511,038 who wrote in 2011. Thus, 41,443 fewer learners wrote the 2011 Grade 12 examinations than in 2010. So to merely look at pass rates in terms of percentage is not a true reflection of success. Professor Jansen further argues that due to political pressure schools hold pupils back, especially in Grade 11, and reroute learners into doing easier subjects like maths literacy over pure mathematics. This then assists with the increase in pass rate. He further adds that the quality of the pass rate is also questionable as it has low requirements for passing. For example 46.3% of learners passed mathematics in 2011, which includes learners who scored 30%. Learners who scored 50% and over are a mere 18.51%, and this represents 8.38% of the total amount of learners who wrote the exams.

Another report in the Weekend Argus makes reference to a published notice in the Government Gazette where Angie Motshekga, Minister of the DBE, gives notice of the establishment of a ministerial committee to conduct a study on pass requirements with exit qualifications of other countries and the investigation of other matters affecting the quality of matric (Weekend Argus, 3 Nov 2012). This is in response to unrelenting criticism of the South African education system by leading academics like Dr Mamphela Ramphele who pointed out that the results of the NSC are deceptive; do not lead to on-going education or employment; and degrade education standards (Weekend Argus, 3 Nov 2012). An honest analysis of these results indicates that a vast majority of learners have either dropped out of the school system without matric certification or have attained matric certification but are still not able to enter HE. Already the current rate of unemployment is 25.5% (Statistics South Africa, 2012) and on the incline. If learners successfully enter into, and successfully graduate from HE, they have better prospects of being employed (Danziger & Ratner 2010).
Thus, the identification of the needs of the poor majority of learners and a competent teaching force to effectively teach these learners toward successful throughput into meaningful employment, presents the DBE with the responsibility of ensuring that teacher in-service development is relevant for the needs of these learners.

2.5 BARRIERS TO LEARNING: IMPACT ON LEARNERS

White Paper 6 (DoE, 2001a) stresses that the failure to meet the learning needs of South African learners in South Africa could lead to the failure of learners to learn effectively, or the possible exclusion of these learners from the education system. To respond to challenges like these schools ought to become centres of care and support (DoE, 2001a) and school leaders increasingly have to respond to socio-economic challenges within schools (Marneweck, Bialobrzeska, Mhlanga, & Mphisa, 2008).

In 1996 the Ministry of Education tasked the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training and the National Committee for Educational Support to conduct a needs analysis and make recommendations around policy for participatory and democratic principles within education (Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001). A number of key points emerged from this process. These findings included that there is a wide range of needs and that the education system has to be structured so that it is able to accommodate a diverse range of learners’ and system needs. The commission “…proposed the development of a welcoming and supportive ethos or psycho-social environment for learning and teaching through institutional development strategies…” (Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001: 313). Furthermore, the commission recommended that barriers to learning and developmental needs be identified so that it becomes clear where the educational system has to change towards transformation.

The commission identified that barriers may be located within the learner, within the school, within the educational system and/or within the broader social, economic and/or political context (Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001: 311). More specifically, these barriers could be socio-economic barriers; lack of parental support; lack of human resource development including education and training of teachers, as well as other relevant role players; and lack of protective legislation and policy to assist with the development of an inclusive education and training system for all
Special needs, resultant from the barriers individuals encounter when interacting in the environment (Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001: 306) could arise out of a range of factors. These include psycho-social disturbances; particular life experiences, or more pertinent to this study, socio-economic deprivation (DoE, 2001a); and more specifically, issues of poverty (Moletsane as cited in Hemson, 2006). In addition, factors like unemployment also impede learner success. Furthermore, Stevens and Schaller (2011) state that loss of jobs by parents also increases the probability of learners remaining in the same grade by 15%.

Research conducted by the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) in 2008 indicate that many school managers have begun to counter the socio-economic needs of the learners by creating networks of support for learners, for example, nutrition, aftercare and counselling - some systematic and sustainable. However, there is not much evidence that schools are supportive of the needs of teachers (Marneweck, et al., 2008).

2.5.1 A case for holistic learning

The DoE policy documents emphasise the holistic development of learners, which at the least requires the application of learner-centred principles by teachers. McCombs (1993) states that learner-centred principles require that teachers pay heed to a variety of psychological factors internal to the learner. The environmental and other contextual factors that learners interact with should also simultaneously be recognised. However, the financial constraints of poor schools with high teacher-learner ratios and learners who are subjected to impeding socio-economic deprivation hamper learner-centred teaching.

The next section which serves as a conceptual framework for this study, takes a closer look at holistic learning. It proposes conditions for optimal learning, which incorporate learner-centred principles. These principles are highlighted and are followed by a discussion on social cognitive learning theory, transformational learning theory, and holistic learning theory.
2.6 CONCEPTUAL THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.6.1 Holistic learning

Exploration of holistic learning as a concept is central to this investigation of teacher in-service development programmes. Teacher in-service development embodies an intention that in-service teachers’ learning is consistently developed so that quality teaching is attained. In doing this, a learning environment that is conducive for optimal learning so that learners are given the opportunity to reach their maximum potential, is possible.

2.6.1.1 Teacher learning

Professional development programmes for teachers have been criticised as being brief, fragmented, decontextualized and removed from the reality within classrooms and are not likely to improve the standard of teaching (Ono & Ferreira, 2010: 60). Thus, many models of professional development for teachers are not successful (Ono & Ferreira, 2010). Bransford, Brown and Cocking (2000: 27) emphasise that the principles of learning and the implications for designing the learning environment are equally relevant for both child and adult learning. Professional development for in-service teachers should thus contain a learner-centred element and be knowledge centred, assessment centred, and be centred around community for optimal teacher learning (Bransford, et al., 2000). Key features of effective teacher professional development programmes (Lue, 2004) are illustrated in Figure 1 below.

![Figure 1: Key features of an alternative approach to teacher learning](image)

A school based teacher development model:

- which prepares teachers to be empowered professionals;
- is teacher facilitated (with support materials);
- where “teacher knowledge” and the realities of classrooms is of central importance;
- where all teachers participate.

The above results in:

- active and participatory learning;
- teachers who are reflective practitioners and who make informed professional choices.

Adapted from: Lue, (2004:6)

While teacher in-service development programmes should be geared toward creating learner-centred environments for teachers, simultaneously these programmes should be focused on equipping teachers to holistically develop learners. This requires a learning environment which is
conducive for optimal learning.

2.6.1.2 Conditions for optimal learning

Pulist (2005) emphasises that successful learning is possible when learners’ needs are at the centre of the teaching/learning process (Pulist, 2005). More specifically, it entails listening to the needs of individual learners, getting to know them, finding out what they know, and creating a context that is conducive for successful learning (Pulist, 2005). Through this, a focus on effective teaching processes for the promotion of optimal learner motivation (Gibbs, 1992) is ensured. It also includes building learners’ confidence, creating an atmosphere for learning that is free of anxiety, and placing an emphasis on what learners know rather than what they do not know. This approach also means a shift from a teaching methodology that focuses only on what should be taught to include also how and by who it will be learnt (Pulist, 2005).

To ensure success for learners, attention needs to be given to creating learner-centred classrooms (Brown, 2003). Support for learners so that learning is successful needs to be provided in a manner that would serve the needs of the whole learner. Thus, the holistic needs of the learner, which include the physiological, psychological and emotional needs, should be taken into account for successful learning to occur. To emphasise this, McCombs (2000) further adds that “...meaningful and sustained learning is a whole person phenomenon...” (p. 1).

More specifically:

‘Learner-centred’ is the perspective that couples a focus on individual learners - their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs - with a focus on learning - the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning, and achievement for all learners (McCombs, 2000: 4).

McCombs (2000) motivates that real life learning from the learners’ perspective, is meaningful; seems like a natural process; is often characterised by playfulness; and is self-directed, engaging, and non-linear. Contrary to this, learning in the school setting is rote. Learners need to comply with expectations in order to attain standards, and in the process become alienated, frustrated and bored (McCombs, 2000: 2). This is in direct conflict with some of the purposes of education which ought to serve to ensure: the development of productive, healthy people (Combs as cited in McCombs, 2000); the building of learning communities (Fullan as cited in McCombs, 2000); and foster life-long learners (Fullan as cited in McCombs, 2000). In addition to focusing on
content and skills, schools need to take into account the learning environment and the learning process of learners (McCombs, 2000).

Thus, in 1993 the American Psychological Association Learner-centred Psychological (APA) Principles: Guidelines for School Redesign and Reform were created. The principles within this framework have been developed by taking into account a variety of psychological factors internal to the learner, as well as the external environmental and contextual factors the learner interacts with. The APA principles assist as a knowledge-base for understanding motivation and learning, which occur when the context and conditions support the needs of individual learners, their capacities, interests and experiences. Consideration of this knowledge-base is essential for successful educational systems (McCombs, 2000: 3).

Essentially, this framework for successful learning sets out fourteen principles (summarised in Appendix A). These fourteen principles are categorised into four groups of factors namely: (i) cognitive and metacognitive factors; (ii) motivational and affective factors; (iii) developmental and social factors; and (iv) individual differences factors (Brown, 2003). For example, within the individual differences category (see Appendix A), as a result of hereditary factors and prior experiences, learners have varying capabilities, approaches, and strategies for learning.

In addition to the above, Brown (2003) points out that the conditions as developed further by the American Psychological Association and emanating from the above-mentioned principles, need to be created and maintained by teachers within their classrooms in order to assure learners’ success in learning. These conditions are illustrated in Figure 2 below:

Figure 2: **Conditions for learner-centred classrooms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Condition 1</td>
<td>Classrooms must be learner-centred, not content centred.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 2</td>
<td>Teachers must believe that all learners can learn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 3</td>
<td>Learner-centred classrooms must be success-oriented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 4</td>
<td>Learning must be active, not passive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 5</td>
<td>Instruction must be developmentally appropriate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 6</td>
<td>Instruction must address many different learning styles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 7</td>
<td>Learners must be allowed to work together.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 8</td>
<td>Teachers must be facilitators of teaching, not just presenters of content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 9</td>
<td>Teachers must provide learners with choices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 10</td>
<td>Learning must be contextually relevant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 11</td>
<td>Many different forms of assessment must be employed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition 12</td>
<td>Teachers must be reflective practitioners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The conditions for learner success (illustrated in Figure 2) have far-reaching implications for teacher in-service development programmes. Teachers have to be equipped with these conditions to teach in a learner-centred manner, through teacher in-service development programmes that are learner-centred so that optimal learning can take place for the teacher. In the next section social cognitive learning theory, transformational of learning, and holistic learning theory, are discussed.

2.6.2 Theories of learning

As a guide into this section, figure 3 below serves to diagrammatically highlight some of the conditions for optimal learning (discussed in the previous section), and the learning theories which will be discussed below.

Figure 3: **Conditions for optimal learning and learning theories**

### Conditions for optimal learning
- learner-centred classrooms (Brown, 2003)
- learners’ holistic needs - physiological, psychological, emotional needs, are met (Brown, 2003)
- learners’ needs are at the centre of teaching and learning (Pulist, 2005)
- active and participatory learning (Lue, 2004)
- reflective learners (Lue, 2004)
- instruction is developmentally appropriate (Brown, 2003)
- instruction addresses different learning styles (Brown, 2003)
- learning is contextually relevant (Brown, 2003)

### Learning theories discussed
- **Social cognitive learning theory** (Bandura, 1977)
- **Transformational learning theory** (Mezirow, 2000)
- **Holistic learning theory** (Yang, 2004)
2.6.2.1 Social cognitive learning theory
Bandura (1977) emphasises that all learning resulting from experiences can take place through observing others’ behaviour and its consequences (p. 392). According to this theory, individual and environmental factors influence each other. Human behaviour is seen as an interaction among cognitive, personal and environmental factors, all interacting and influencing each other. The interaction among environmental, personal and behavioural factors is central to cognition and learning. However Bandura (1977) stresses that individuals do not only react to outside influences instead “…they select, organize, and transform the stimuli that impinge on them…” (p. vii). Four main elements can be identified in social cognitive learning theory: observational learning process; self-regulation; self-efficacy; and reciprocal determinism (Yang, 2004). In terms of self-regulation, individuals are able to exercise influence over their own behaviour. Influences can therefore be self-produced (Bandura, 1977). Thus, individuals are both products and producers of their environment (Bandura, 1977). Within the component of self-efficacy, an individual is able to regulate behaviour. Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy tend to set higher goals for themselves and develop ways and means to acquire knowledge and skills.

Yang (2004) however states that individuals do not only learn from observation but also by thinking and affecting (p.252). In addition, Yang (2004) states that learning does not only start by observing and modelling behaviour but can start from explicit or technical knowledge and then proceed to knowledge gained through observation. Yang (2004) also notes that social cognitive learning theory restricts its attention to practical knowledge that exists and discounts new, creative knowledge generated during the learning process (p. 252).

2.6.2.2 Transformational learning
Transformational learning was introduced by Mezirow in 1981 (Erickson, 2007) who described it as a “constructivist theory of adult learning” (p. 63). Essentially, constructivists posit knowledge as an active process of constructing meaning. The acquisition of knowledge is therefore an adaptive activity and requires interaction with experience. Thus, an ongoing process of construction of meaning occurs, based on the interpretation of experiences, development being linked to this process (Erickson, 2007: 63).
Transformational learning is however unique to adulthood (Mezirow, 2000). There is also a distinction between learning and transformational learning. Learning is a process using previous interpretations to understand a new or revised interpretation of an experience to inform future action. Transformational learning, however, is when previous or new experiences are reinterpreted based on a new set of expectations. Through this, an old experience is given new meaning and perspective (Mezirow, 2000: 5). These set of expectations are embedded in individuals’ frames of reference or structures of assumptions through which individuals understand their experiences. Through transformational learning, the frames of reference can be transformed into becoming “…more inclusive, open, emotionally capable of change and reflective…” in order that more true or justified beliefs or opinions are produced (Mezirow, 2000: 9).

Central to transformational theory is meaning schemes (which include specific beliefs, value judgements and attitudes) and meaning perspectives (broad, generalised perspectives). Learning occurs when there is an alteration in either meaning schemes or complete meaning perspectives. Transformation of perspective, however, occurs when learners are released from previously constricting beliefs, attitudes, values and feelings which have limited their lives (Yang, 2004: 254). This transformation of perspective is, however, limited in terms of transformation learning.

### 2.6.2.3 Holistic learning theory

A brief summary of the key points of holistic learning theory follows. Knowledge, according to holistic learning theory is seen as individuals’ understanding of reality “…through mental correspondence, personal experience, and emotional affection with outside objects and situations …” (Yang, 2004: 242). Thus, a social construct, knowledge has three interrelated and distinctive components: explicit, implicit and emancipatory knowledge (p. 242).

Explicit knowledge (rationality) is transmitted formally and systematically, for example, organised knowledge that discerns true from false. However, implicit knowledge (reality) is the behavioural aspect, emanating and existing in an individual’s behaviour, action and accumulated experiences. It is, thus, personal and context-specific, familiarity being difficult to formulate and communicate. On the other hand, emancipatory knowledge (liberty) is the emotional component
of knowledge; is value-laden; is reflected by the emotions and feelings which individuals hold about the situations and objects surrounding them; defines individuals’ perspective of what the world should be like; results from individuals pursuing freedom from social and natural constraints; and, reflects individuals’ internal emotional and motivational states (Yang, 2004: 242).

Yang’s (2004) holistic learning theory asserts that each of the above components is existent in all learning processes. Learning can be seen as an individual activity or a social activity. Learning entails change in an individual’s cognition, behaviour and attitude resulting from maintaining the balance among three forces influencing the knowledge forces, that is, rationality, reality and liberty. The interactions amongst these three components (through various degrees of constraining and sustaining each other) determine individual behaviour in a specific situation. Similarly, socially, learning entails changes of the practical, critical and technical knowledge shared by members of a social group or organisation resulting from maintaining the equilibrium between efficiency, effectiveness and social justice (p. 247).

Parallels can be drawn between Yang’s (2004) holistic learning theory and transformational learning. With reference to holistic learning theory, Yang (2004) emphasises that transformational learning, however, only occurs when individuals’ emancipatory knowledge changes. To restrict change in learning to the explicit and implicit components is merely additive or instrumental learning. Instead, profound, deep change is necessary to bring about transformational learning (p. 24). Mezirow’s theory is focused on a cognitive process of learning and assumes that learning is mostly an individual process shaped by rationality (Yang, 2004). Holistic learning theory, on the other hand, emphasises change within an individual’s emancipatory and critical knowledge common to a number of individuals. It is based on the assumption that the current “social system is oppressive and those who are oppressed need to engage in critical consciousness” (Yang, 2004: 255).

Figure 4 on the following page illustrates some key common points among the theories discussed above.
Learning occurs through observation of others’ behaviour and its consequences.

Individuals are products and producers of behaviour.

Interaction among environmental, personal and behavioural factors is central to cognition and learning.

Holistic learning theory (Yang, 2004)
- Learning occurs through rational, personal and emotional interaction with outside objects and situations.
- Learning has three distinctive and interrelated components: explicit, implicit and emancipatory knowledge.
  - Explicit knowledge is rational, transmitted formally and systematically.
  - Implicit knowledge (reality) is the behavioural component, resulting from and existing in an individual’s behaviour and experience.
  - Emancipatory knowledge (liberty) is the emotional component, is value-laden, resulting from individuals seeking freedom from natural and social constraints.

Transformational learning theory (Mezirow, 2000)
- Learning is an active process of constructing meaning.
- Learning is adaptive and requires interacting with experiences.
- Previous interpretations are used to inform new interpretations.
- Previous or new experiences are reinterpreted based on new expectations, embedded in frames of reference.

Social cognitive learning theory (Bandura, 1997)
- Learning occurs through observation of others’ behaviour and its consequences.
- Individuals are products and producers of behaviour.
- Interaction among environmental, personal and behavioural factors is central to cognition and learning.

- Individuals have the ability to choose, structure and change behaviour.
- Individuals have the ability to regulate and determine their behaviour.

Figure 4: Some common key points among social cognitive, transformational and holistic learning theories
In summary, social cognitive learning theory emphasises learning through observation. Environment, while not the only factor, plays a key role in behavior and learning, in that individuals are influenced by environment, and in turn, individuals also influence the environment.

Transformational learning theory is specific to adulthood. Transformational learning occurs through reinterpretation of previous or new experiences, based on new expectations, which are embedded in frames of reference. These reference frames are central to transformational theory and are also referred to as meaning schemes (which include specific beliefs, value judgements and attitudes) and meaning perspectives (broad, generalised perspectives). Learning occurs when there is a change in either meaning schemes or entire meaning perspectives. Through this process, the frames of reference can become more inclusive, capable of change and reflective.

Holistic learning theory posits that there are three distinct components: explicit, implicit and emancipatory knowledge. While the rational or cognitive aspect (explicit), as well as the behavioral component (implicit) are prevalent in social cognitive and transformational learning theories, the emancipatory component introduced through holistic learning theory is additional to previous understandings of knowledge construction.

Central to all three theories discussed is the autonomy held by individuals to choose structure and change behaviour, thus confirming that all individuals have the propensity to learn, through regulating and determining their own behaviour. While social cognitive learning theory emphasises learning through observation, with a measure of limitation resulting from the two-way relationship between individuals and their environment, transformational learning theory and holistic learning theory offer added insights with regard to learning. These are particularly useful for future in-service development programmes. However, further exploration of the possible contributions of these theories to learning programmes for teachers is particularly meaningful if it follows the findings of this study’s investigation into current teacher in-service development programmes. To assist with this process, a discussion on teacher in-service development follows.
2.7 TEACHER IN-SERVICE DEVELOPMENT

In-service training for teachers is defined as “…a process whereby teachers continuously improve their skills, knowledge and attitudes while continuing their employment…” (Oldroyd, Elsner & Poster, 1996: 19), so that teachers are more efficient and effective in the classrooms. The examples of studies on teacher in-service which follow provides a starting point for this section which then proceeds to a discussion on curriculum changes and relevant policy documents pertaining to teacher in-service development in South Africa.

2.7.1 Examples of studies

Loucks-Horsley, Stiles and Hewson (1996) report on a study conducted by The Professional Development Project of the National Institute for Science Education in the United States of America. This qualitative study focused on whether mathematics, science, and professional development communities share a perception on what professional learning is and teacher development should be fostered. This was essentially a document review, and it examined standards and related sources. From this study seven shared principles for best experiences for Science and Mathematics teachers were derived. Recommendations for effective professional development for policy initiatives were also made.

Another example of a study on teacher in-service development for Mathematics and Science teachers is the qualitative study of the Mpumalanga Secondary Science Initiative (MSSI) in Mpumalanga secondary schools (Ono & Ferreira, 2010). This qualitative study, a two-phased, longitudinal case study, spanned from 1999 to 2006. Representatives of key role players (teachers, principals, district subject advisors and heads of departments of schools for Mathematics and Science teaching) attended workshops on lesson study. The implementation of lesson study in these schools was monitored through feedback provided by the participants in workshops.

Lesson study, a model for teacher development used extensively in Japan, is a form of classroom research, in which a few teachers explore teaching and learning in the setting of a real class lesson. Thus, teachers are cooperatively engaged in action research to increase the quality of their teaching (Ono & Ferreira, 2010: 63). After teachers complete the lesson study, their work is
documented in a report describing their lesson, explaining how it worked, and what they have understood about teaching and learning from this experience. Lesson study is, thus, a professional development activity that is classroom-situated, context based, learner focused, improvement oriented, teacher owned and collaborative (Ono & Ferreira, 2010: 64).

Although the MSSI was not successful at establishing lesson study as school-based professional development for teachers during the project period, this project had other spin-offs. Firstly, a cluster system throughout the province was established. Secondly, the results of this study showed that teachers who were involved in lesson study improved their teaching practice.

This study differs from the studies mentioned above. Briefly, the studies above have focused on subject specific teacher in-service development (Mathematics and Science). In addition, the methodology employed in the above studies differs from the methodology employed for this study. To assist with the understanding of the developments of teacher in-service development it is useful to contextualize this study within the curriculum changes over the years.

2.7.2 Curriculum changes
Between 1994 a number of initiatives were introduced within education for improvement of access, equity and quality. In line with this transformation period, which occurred after apartheid, the late nineties experienced an increase in policy development, particularly curriculum policy. For example, through the South African Schools Act governing bodies at schools were introduced to democratise control (Chisholm, 2004: 1). To further address the disparities of the past, the dual system of education was replaced by a single inclusive Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system.

The earliest curriculum statement for a democratic South Africa was the Lifelong Learning through a National Curriculum Framework document of 1996. This was informed by principles from the White Paper on Education and Training, the South African Qualifications Act (No 58 of 1995) and the National Education Policy Act (No 27 of 1996). The White Paper stressed the need for key changes in education and training so that teaching and learning in South Africa is normalised and transformed (DoE, 2001a: 3).
The subsequent National Curriculum Statements or Curriculum 2005 of 1997 for Grades R-9 instituted into schools in 1998 aimed at improving quality (Chisholm, 2004). A review committee was however later commissioned by the Ministry of Education in order to strengthen and streamline Curriculum 2005. The Review Committee for Curriculum 2005 recommended that: teachers be orientated; teachers be trained and developed; learning support materials be provided; and, provincial support should be provided. Consequently, the eventual Revised National Curriculum Statements (RCNS) was released with the planned implementation date of 2004 (DoE, 2001b).

The RCNS emphasises the important role of teachers as “key contributors” to transforming South African education. The RCNS envisions teachers who are “qualified, competent, dedicated and caring” in accordance with the roles outlined in the Norms and Standards for Teachers (1998). As such, the RCNS, like Curriculum 2005, is also outcomes-based and aims to: create lifelong learners; develop the full potential of each learner; and develop learners who are confident, multi-skilled, respectful of the environment and able to contribute to society as active and critical citizens (DoE, 2001b: 8). The RNCS emphasised the need for short- and long-term teacher development and support.

In addition to the above, the Ministry of Education under the leadership of Professor Kader Asmal identified nine priorities which further aimed to develop quality in education. These nine priorities arranged into five main programme areas and captured in the Implementation Plan for Tirisano (Chisholm, 2004), primarily aimed at advancing the professional quality of teachers, and fostering participatory learning through outcomes-based education. This system defined by the Ministry of Education as learner-centred and activity based, had major implications for teacher development as it meant a shift in the previous methodology of teaching (Naicker, 2000).

The National Curriculum Statements Grades R-12 sets out policy within the DBE for curriculum and assessment practices for schools (DBE, 2011). One of the central aims of this document is to ensure that learners acquire and apply skills and knowledge which is meaningful for their lives (Department of Basic Education, 2011: 3). The Curriculum and Assessment Policy (CAPS), a component of the National Curriculum Statements Grades R-12, sets out curriculum and
assessment statements for each subject. In addition, sections of CAPS stipulate the norms and standards of the National Curriculum Statements Grades R-12. More specifically, amongst the purposes stipulated and pertinent to this study are:

- equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfillment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country (DBE, 2011: 4).

Furthermore, the principles listed in CAPS, which are relevant for this study are:

- A commitment of social transformation so that past educational disparities are redressed and that all sectors of the population enjoy equal opportunities.
- The encouragement of critical and active learning.
- An emphasis on inclusivity and social justice where issues such as poverty, inequality are addressed sensitively.
- The provision of quality education comparable to education in other countries.

This document further emphasises inclusivity as a key focus of the teaching, organisation, and planning at each school. Inclusivity is however only possible if teachers are able to effectively recognise and address barriers experienced by learners. Furthermore, the responsibility for managing inclusivity rests with relevant structures within the school community, District-Based Support Teams, Institutional-Level Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres (DBE, 2011: 4).

It is apparent that the curriculum, as set out in the above publications of the DBE, has far reaching consequences for teacher in-service development. Teacher in-service development policy is discussed in more detail in the next section.

### 2.7.3 Teacher in-service development policy

The 1995 National Teacher Education Audit found that the provincial budgets for education were spent mostly on salaries, leaving little funds for teacher development (Welch in Adler & Reed, 2002). During this period there was increased overseas-funded, non-governmental organisations’ (NGOs’) assistance to teachers. The subsequent creation of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) leading to the demand for accreditation and certification of
short-courses and the withdrawal of overseas funding, were two reasons that the DoE were best positioned to be the main providers of teacher development (Welch in Adler & Reed, 2002).

However, ten years after 1994 little impact had been found of projects to improve learner performance (Chisholm, 2004). Analyses of projects indicated that there is a need for attention for district capacity development; that attention be given to teacher quality, including available teacher education; and, that there is an urgent need for the professional development of teachers and district personnel (Chisholm, 2004: 5). Although various outputs like the Norms and Standards for Teacher development, the White Paper on Teacher development, and the commencement in January 2000 of ongoing teacher development of Curriculum 2005 were achieved by 2004, quality within the majority of primary schools still remained poor and reflected past historical imbalances (Chisholm, 2004: 5).

Relevant policy initiatives by the DoE which make reference to teacher in-service development are summarised below.

2.7.3.1 Norms and standards for teachers
In the Norms and Standards for Teachers (DoE, 1998) the DoE sets out its commitment to in-service training (INSET) for South African teachers as an ongoing process of professional development. Ngobeni (2002: 4) categorises INSET programmes into four sections, namely:

i. School-based in-service: to assist teachers to improve the quality of education in their schools.

ii. Job-related in-service: to help teachers to be more effective in their own jobs.

iii. Career-orientated in-service: to prepare teachers for promotion.

iv. Qualification-orientated in-service: to provide teachers with extra qualifications.

All the above categories contain elements of professional teacher growth and development. Mestry, Hendricks & Bisschoff (2009: 477) emphasise that the focus of INSET programmes is on the learning experiences of learners through the enhancement of teachers’ knowledge, skills, values and attitudes toward whole school improvement.
The Norms and Standards for Teachers also sets out the roles, and the associated set of applied competence (norms) and qualifications (standards) for the development of teachers (DoE, 2000) for both pre-service and in-service education and training. The roles of the teacher are set out as follows:

- Learning mediator;
- Interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials;
- Leader, administrator and manager;
- Community, citizenship and pastoral role;
- Scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;
- Assessor; and
- Learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist

(DoE 2000: 13-14).

These roles function as descriptors for measuring competence levels of teachers. As such, these roles and competences must be incorporated into the learning program for teachers and are the outcomes for the initial teacher qualification. For example, as a learning mediator, the teacher should be competent at mediating learning while being sensitive to the varied needs of all learners which include those with barriers to learning. Within the role of community, citizenship and pastoral role, the teacher should develop a “…supportive and empowering environment for the learner and respond to the educational as well as other needs of learners and fellow educators…” (DoE 2000: 14).

2.7.3.2 The implementation plan for Tirisano

The Implementation Plan for Tirisano: January 2000 - December 2004 (DoE, 2000) as a goal, prioritised the development of the professional quality of teachers in order to promote and enhance the competence of all teachers through the participation of all teachers in teacher development programmes. The immediate programme of implementation (2000-2001) is directed at the improvement of the quality of teaching, and focused on the quality of teaching and learner achievement (Chisholm, 2004: 2). The primary purpose of this plan was for the DoE and the provincial education authorities to address the most urgent problems in education particularly:
• the dysfunctional state of many institutions;
• the continuing inequities in terms of basic facilities and learning resources;
• the unacceptably high levels of illiteracy amongst the youth and adults;
• sexual harassment and violence, including crime and drugs; and,
• the scourge of HIV/AIDS (DoE, 2000: 3).

This plan, essentially a five year implementation plan, had five programmes as its central focus. Professor Kader Asmal, Minister of Education at the time, proclaimed the vision of the plan as ranging from providing a quality education that is accessible from childhood to adulthood, in order for citizens to be prepared to participate in a multicultural society and have a shared set of values (DoE, 2000).

For Programme 2 of this plan, School Effectiveness and Educator Professionalism, the priorities were:

- Schools must become the centers of community life;
- The end to conditions of physical degradation in South African schools;
- The development of the professional quality of the South African teaching force; and,
- Ensuring the success of active learning through outcomes-based education.

These priorities had strategic objectives some of which were:

- To develop a school system that functions efficiently and effectively to raise the educational and social goals of the country;
- To develop a framework for teacher development that promotes and enhances the competence and professional skills of all teachers;
- To ensure improved learner performance and attainment; and,
- To create a safe and tolerant learning environment that celebrates innocence and values human dignity (DoE, 2000: 5-9).

2.7.3.3 The Integrated Quality Management System

To improve teaching and learning in schools the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) was formulated by the Education Labour Relations Council in 2004 (Mestry, et al., 2009). The
IQMS is an integrated system of the Developmental Appraisal System, Whole School Evaluation, and the Performance Management System. The Continuing Professional Development (CPD), a performance standard entailing ongoing in-service development for teachers, is located within the IQMS.

2.7.3.4 The National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa

The National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa, (DoE, 2006) aimed to enable teachers to efficiently perform their tasks and continually improve their professional competence and performance. One of the strategic aims is the successful development of teachers so that the economic and social needs of South Africa are successfully met. It also emphasised the need for teacher development so that teachers are able to strengthen their subject and content pedagogical base. To further emphasise this need Shulman (1986) states that in the sphere of teacher education, general pedagogical skills are not adequate. Instead, effective teacher education includes the merging of both content and pedagogical knowledge. This Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) briefly refers to teachers’ understandings of subject-matter knowledge for effective learning within classrooms (Shulman, 1987).

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

The more recent Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (DoE, 2010) is essentially a framework for the ongoing development of teachers over time. The primary aim of this plan is the improvement of the quality of teacher education and development so that the quality of teachers and teaching can improve (DoE, 2011).

It would be foolhardy to claim that the only contributory factor for effective classroom learning is a competent teaching force that is able to overcome the socio-economic challenges presented by learners. There are also other factors which impact positively on learner achievement, some of which are pointed out below.
2.8 FACTORS INFLUENCING LEARNER SUCCESS

Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) emphasise that it is not only teachers who affect educational opportunities that impact on learner achievement. The interplay of various other factors also adds to the success of learners.

Irrespective of socio-economic status, supportive parents are positive for learner achievement (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Similarly, Hoadley and Ward (2009) also point out that parental support for education impacts positively on learner achievement. Other factors also contribute positively to learner achievement. These include positive relations between teachers and managers, as well as collaboration between teachers (Hoadley & Ward, 2009).

In addition, the development of “social trust” between the school and the community is also positive for learner success (Selong & Bryleas cited in Hoadley & Ward, 2009: 146). This is irrespective of the degree of poverty within the community. While the insufficiency of resources is not as important to learner achievement, the effective management of these resources definitely is a prerequisite for learner success (Selong & Bryle as cited in Hoadley & Ward, 2009). Similarly, Kamper (2008: 1) states that some high-poverty schools, as a result of effective leadership have overcome the odds and performed well. However, it is imperative that optimal learning environments are created for learners (Felner, Favazza, Shim, Brand, Gu, & Noonan, 2001) which could be vastly assisted by relevant teacher support. Schools are primarily developmental settings that can prevent socio-emotional, behavioural, as well as academic difficulties and can promote the development of competencies necessary for success (Felner, et al., 2001).

2.9 SUMMARY

This literature review has highlighted that a strong correlation exists between successful and meaningful learner throughput into Higher Education and successful entry into the labour market. High drop-out rates and poor matric results hamper the economic progression of the majority of learners towards a sustainable quality life even almost two decades after the political transition. The school system continues to reflect the disparities experienced prior to the new
dispensation. The majority black and poor learners, already disadvantaged by the marketisation of schools, still experience enormous socio-economic challenges in various forms.

The intention of new curriculum policy documents is toward quality in terms of keeping up with global trends, while simultaneously referring to a learner-centred approach in teaching methodology. On closer examination however, these documents do not necessarily highlight the praxis of assisting teachers within these poor schools to effectively deal with learners’ needs. In order for a sustainable, productive adult life for the majority of learners to be reachable, it is imperative that the Department of Basic Education embraces a learner-centred approach for in-service development for teachers and pay heed to their needs. In addition, teachers should also be equipped in such teacher in-service development programmes to meet the needs of learners. By doing this, the intention of curriculum policy is achievable both in terms of global trends as well as for the economic transformation of future generations of the majority of the presently poor in South Africa.
CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION
This study focuses on research on the teacher in-service development programmes offered by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) to assist teachers with the holistic development of learners in the classroom. The preceding chapters have sketched the background to this study and provided an outline of the research. It has also highlighted other relevant research and texts from policy documents pertinent to teacher in-service development. This chapter captures the details and processes of research followed for this study. More specifically, it locates the methodology used for this research within a paradigm. It also argues the rationale for the underpinning paradigm. This is followed by a discussion on the research design and a description of the data collection and analysis processes. Lastly, a brief description of the ethical considerations for this research is outlined.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
While a number of research methods are available for the collection of data, each with distinct advantages and disadvantages (Babbie, 1995), this study used a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods, that is, a mixed method approach. To assist with the understanding of the rationale for using this mixed method approach, paradigm as a concept and how it relates to research is firstly explained.

3.2.1 Research methodological paradigm
Guba and Lincoln (1994) emphasise that it is paradigm, more than method that guides the researcher. Paradigm is “…the basic worldview or belief system that guides the investigator…” (Guba & Lincoln 1994: 105); and the “…assumptions about the nature of knowledge (ontology) and the means of generating it (epistemology)…” (Bazley, 2002: 2). Similarly, Bassey (1995) defines paradigm as a scheme of clear, logical views about the nature of the world which are followed by a number of researchers, which influences their views and supports their research actions.
Both qualitative and quantitative purists believe that their paradigms are the best for research, positioning each of their paradigms and the associated methods so as not to mix with each other (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004: 14). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) however state that the focus for these purists is more on how each paradigm differs from each other as two separate paradigms. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) further argue that a third paradigm, mixed method research, particularly in educational research, is useful and serves to draw on the strengths of each paradigm. In doing this, the weaknesses within each paradigm are minimised (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The paradigms underlying both the quantitative and the qualitative approach, as argued by the purists for each of the respective approaches, are outlined below. Thereafter, the mixed method approach, as a paradigm, is discussed.

3.2.1.1 The quantitative method
Initially developed in the natural sciences to investigate natural phenomena (Myers, 1997), the quantitative method is seen as a more objective way to gather data. Myers (1997) also states that typically the quantitative researcher is an objective observer who does not influence or participate in what is being studied. By using this method participants have more freedom to give their opinions in an honest manner without any fear of reprisal. For the quantitative approach the researcher collects numeric data (Bazley, 2002) using pre-determined instruments like a survey (Cresswell, 2003:18), which is analysed statistically (Bazley, 2002). Furthermore, the development of knowledge is post-positivist in that causes are assumed to probably determine outcomes (Cresswell, 2003: 7). Thus, the logic employed is deductive, and the type of investigation is confirmatory (Bazley, 2002: 2).

Social observations, according to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:14) with the quantitative approach, should be treated in the same objective manner as physical phenomena, making social science objective. The observer is therefore separate from that being observed. Educational researchers doing quantitative research should remove their biases; stay emotionally detached; and remain separate from the subjects being studied, in so doing ensuring a time- and context-free generalisation (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004: 14). Writing for quantitative purists should be formal and impersonal (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).
3.2.1.2 The qualitative method

The qualitative researcher views social phenomena holistically. Qualitative purists argue that a range of realities exist; “…that time- and context-free generalisations are neither desirable nor possible…”; values are intrinsic within research; and, that differentiation between causes and effects are impossible (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004: 14). Furthermore, the “…more complex, interactive and encompassing the narrative, the better the qualitative study…” (Creswell 2003: 182).

Qualitative research as a paradigm employs a number of methods that are collaborative and humanistic (Rossman & Rallis, 2000). These methods enable more detailed discussions with participants and encourage the involvement of participants in the natural setting (Rossman & Rallis, 2000). Thus, the researcher is able to, in an explorative manner (Bazley, 2002), gather details about the individual/s and the place. This facilitates the researcher’s involvement in the actual experiences of the participants (Rossman & Rallis, 2000). Moreover, it enables flexibility, making it possible for adjustments and changes where necessary (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Through the use of interviews, special observations can be made during this process “not easily reduced to numbers” (Babbie, 1995: 280). This approach requires sensitivity towards participants, and seeks to create a relationship of trustworthiness with the individual/s in the study (Rossman & Rallis, 2000). Data gathered is usually textual, which can be elicited from unstructured engagement with participants, and then interpreted (Bazley, 2002). The writing style for the qualitative researcher is usually less formal. Qualitative purists prefer detailed, rich, thick description, written straightforwardly and somewhat informally.

3.2.1.3 The mixed method

Marshall (1996: 522) argues that choosing between quantitative and qualitative research methods should be informed by the research question, not by the choice of the researcher. The purpose of the quantitative approach is to test hypotheses that are previously determined and produce “generalisable” results, and studies within this approach are valuable for answering routine “what” questions. Qualitative studies, instead, provide an understanding of intricate psychosocial issues and are more valuable for humanistic “why” and “how” questions (Marshall, 1996: 522). This study asked teachers and the principal to identify challenges experienced by learners in the
classroom and to list in-service development programmes offered by the WCED to teachers. Teachers and the principal were also asked to give their opinions on the relevance of these in-service development programmes for their needs and to provide recommendations for further in-service development programmes. Thus, a mixture of qualitative- and quantitative-type questions, as argued by Marshall (1996), was used to gather data for this research. This type of research, which involves combining quantitative and qualitative approaches, was introduced during the 1960’s (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). Essentially, this mixed method research “…involves collecting, analysing and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a series of studies to investigate the same phenomenon…” (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2007: 267).

Mixed method research is becoming more known as a third research paradigm (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Greene, Caracelli and Graham identify mixed method designs as “…those that include at least one quantitative method (designed to collect numbers) and one qualitative method (designed to collect words)…” (Greene, et al., 1989: 256). Johnson, et al., (2007: 113) further define mixed methods research as a particular approach to knowledge that take into account various perspectives, which always include the perspectives of both qualitative and qualitative research. Thus, this research study used both quantitative and qualitative research for the type of data and operations, and the type of analysis - two components identified by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007).

Mixed method research has been utilised specifically in recent years by researchers in the behavioural and social sciences who believe that both qualitative and quantitative perspectives and methods are useful in their research. Johnson, et al., (2007) emphasise that the employ of mixed methods research was however in practice before the label “mixed method research” was coined. This synthesising of ideas from both quantitative and qualitative research, although not new, is however a growing discourse (Johnson, et al., 2007).

In this mixed method study the emphasis of approaches (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007) is more qualitative which has dominant status. Thus, this mixed method study has strong leaning toward an interpretive research paradigm as it systematically analysed social action through directly
studying people in natural surroundings to gain an understanding and interpretation of the manner in which people construct and sustain their social worlds (Neuman, 1997: 68). By engaging with teachers, the principal and the social worker within their “reality”, the researcher was able to explore their experience and their interpretation of this reality (Neuman, 1997).

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN
This study researched the in-service support offered by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) to assist in-service teachers in the holistic development of learners. To gather data that would be representative of all schools within the jurisdiction of the WCED, a unit of analysis (two schools) from this pool of schools within the WCED’s jurisdiction was chosen to serve as a case study. A case can be a programme, event or an entity like a school (Stake, 2006: 1). The unit of analysis is classically a scheme of actions rather than a group or an individual (Tellis, 1997). Case studies entail selective focus on one or two matters to gain an understanding of the system being studied (Tellis, 1997).

3.3.1 Case study design
For a detailed understanding of the experiences and meanings of teachers, a principal, a district officer and a social worker, the case study design was chosen. Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004: 32) state that a “bounded system”, which is “…any social entity that can be bounded by parameters which shows a specific dynamic and relevance, and revealing information that can be captured within these boundaries…” is possible within a case study method. Case study design allows for intensive exploration of a phenomenon (Henning, et al., 2004).

A case study design is useful for research as the examination of data at a micro level is made possible (Zaianal, 2007). Yin (1984) defines a case study as an investigation, using multiple data sources, of a present day social phenomenon in a real life context. Zaianal (2007) specifies that a case study design is used as a tool in many social science studies, to study social issues and problems. The case study or case studies are bound by time and activity and can be used to illustrate an issue (Stake, 1995). Furthermore, Zaianal (2007) argues that a case study design is practical when it is difficult to obtain a big sample population.
Lastly, cases studies offer data of actual life situations and provide a better understanding of in-depth behaviours of those being studied (Zaianal, 2007). Various strengths as well as weakness of a case study design have been highlighted through the years. Some of these are discussed further.

### 3.3.1.1 Strengths

Quite a number of authors have highlighted the strengths of case study design. The study of a case entails careful examination of its functioning and activities and the first objective is to understand the case (Stake, 2006: 2). A case study, thus, provides clearer understanding of a practice or a matter and assists with informed decision making (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 419). A case can be used as an arena where functions and relationships can be brought together for study, operating in real situations in real time (Stake, 2006: 3). Qualitative understanding of a case necessitates experiencing the activity of the case within its context and its particular situation. This situation usually shapes the activity. It also shapes the experiencing and the interpretation of the activity. In case study design a detailed description and analysis of themes or issues are provided as well as the researchers’ interpretations of the case (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) also emphasise that case study analysis is often used for policy research. It provides a more thorough understanding of an intricate situation, identifies unplanned consequences, and examines the practice of policy implementation which is beneficial for choices in the future (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 548). Case study involves giving attention to both ordinary experiences and practices in natural habitats, as well as to factors and concerns of the academic disciplines.

In addition, case study design is a feasible way to obtain valid data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 400). In case study design an extensive description of the case and its context is provided based on a variety of sources which include interviews, documentation, field observations, and participant observation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 490). From this a few key issues are presented, and analysed with supporting or negative evidence. The researcher then develops generalisations which are useful to apply to similar cases (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 491).
What is generalised is thus applied to the particular case. Stake (1995) states that the data gathered from case studies are often relevant for a broad spectrum of readers, in so doing facilitating the understanding of a phenomenon by many.

### 3.3.1.2 Weaknesses

Weaknesses of case study design have also been emphasised. Yin (1984) points out three types of arguments against case study research. Firstly, the degree of rigour is questionable. To emphases this, Yin (1984: 21) states that the case study researcher is often sloppy and allows biased views and ambiguous evidence to impact on the findings and conclusion. The second argument against case study presented by Yin (1984) is that case studies use a small number of respondents, providing little basis for scientific generalisations. Thirdly, case studies tend to be long; are difficult to conduct; and, produce high amounts of documentation (Yin, 1984). This is echoed by Zaianal, (2007) who states that case study method lacks rigour; results cannot be easily generalised (Zaianal 2007; Tellis, 1997); and, there is a tendency for the researcher to have a biased interpretation of the data (Zaianal, 2007).

Though the weaknesses of case study design are mentioned above, McMillan and Schumacher, (2001) and Henning, et al., (2004) argue that case study design is indeed useful as an extensive description of the case and its context is provided, based on a variety of sources like interviews and documentation. The next section provides more details of the context of this study and the sources of data.

### 3.4 PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

In this section the participants of the study are described. This includes a background sketch of the context or research setting (the Western Cape Education Department and Blue Waters), followed by a discussion of the population and sampling strategies.

Miles and Huberman (1994) state that a discussion of participants can include four aspects: the setting - the place where the research occurs; the participants - those being observed or interviewed; the events - what will be observed about the participants or the contents of the
interview/s; and the process - the developing nature of the events undertaken by the participants in the setting. The following section describes some of these aspects in more detail.

3.4.1 The research setting
Studies that include qualitative research need to take into account the context in which the phenomenon is taking place (Neuman, 1994). Neuman (1994) further asserts that if the context is ignored then the social meaning and significance can be distorted. As this is a mixed method study with a dominant qualitative status (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007), it is imperative that the context is elaborated on. As the fundamental nature of qualitative research is naturalistic (studying individuals in regular settings), sampling has to take account of the context of the study (Marshall, 1996: 524). This study researched the in-service support offered by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) to assist teachers in the holistic development of learners, thus it is appropriate that a brief sketch of the WCED is presented, as well as a description of the context that many teachers of learners in impoverished areas like Blue Waters are confronted with.

3.4.1.1 The Western Cape Education Department
The Western Cape Education Department (WCED) comprises of eight education districts. The districts include four rural districts (West Coast, Cape Winelands, Eden and Karoo, and Overberg), and four urban districts (Metro North, Metro South, Metro East and Metro Central). These districts were established based on local government boundaries. The functions of these districts are to provide advice on curriculum and coordination; to provide education for learners with special needs; and to provide institutional management and governance (Western Cape Education Department, 2008).

According to the Department of Basic Education (2011) in 2010 there were 1455 ordinary public schools in the Western Cape, with 959 714 learners and 31 870 teachers. In the Western Cape in 2009 more than 41.9% of these schools had a class size of more than 40 learners (DBE, 2011). This includes the schools in Blue Waters where the research was conducted.
3.4.1.2 Blue Waters

The high school and primary school selected for this study are situated in Blue Waters. A social worker who has been directly involved at a non-governmental organisation (NGO) in Blue Waters for over twenty years offered valuable information about the history of this township. The township, he says, was established as a result of the forced removal strategy of Apartheid, legislated through the Group Areas Act of 1965. The people who moved into the newly-built township in the early 70’s mostly came from areas that were declared “whites-only” territory when they were forced to move. Other residents in the township came from the surrounding informal settlements and were granted housing in Blue Waters over the past thirty-odd years.

Blue Waters is known as a township with extreme poverty, high unemployment and gangsterism (Mail & Guardian, 1 April 2011). While walking through the area, the low-cost housing and informal housing structures are clear to see. This area is overcrowded and this is exacerbated by backyard wooden structures serving as homes for extended families. Unemployment is clearly evident when visiting this area during the day. Sights of young women, either pregnant or pushing prams, are common. Days on which government grants are paid are marked by long queues for collection. This is coupled with busy trading activity as people buy basic necessities from these limited funds. A number of school-going youths, who ought to be at school, can be seen walking around, sitting idly on street corners, or loitering around shops begging for money. Abuse of substances such as alcohol, tik, mandrax and glue is rife. Instances of breaking into houses to feed the drug habit are part of the landscape of this area.

According to the social worker, there are many women-headed homes in this area. These homes are under-resourced and absent fathers and husbands are common features. More and more, these homes are further disadvantaged by the increase of drinking and other negative activities of these women who are single-parents, resulting in a complete breakdown of supportive family structures.

According to the principal of one of the schools in Blue Waters, besides the (already) challenging socio-economic conditions of the area, this area resembled a war-zone during 2011 and 2012. Gang violence emanating from this area, is regularly granted coverage in local
newspapers. For example, an eleven-year old girl, a victim of this gang violence was shot in both legs while playing outdoors (Cape Argus, 12 October, 2011). As a result of the gang violence, learners are scared of being on holiday and prefer to be at school (Cape Times, 5 December 2011). This is the background of a large number of the learners attending the schools which this study focused on.

3.4.2 The population
Eisenhardt (1989: 537) states that the population defines the set of entities from which the research sample is drawn. Furthermore, it also defines the limits for generalising the findings (Eisenhardt, 1989) based on the findings of studying a sample. Teachers and principals at schools under the jurisdiction of the WCED, situated in impoverished areas like Blue Waters, with learners who experience similar socio-economic challenges like poverty, unemployment, substance abuse and violence, served as the population for this study.

3.4.3 The sample
Samples for qualitative research tend to be small (Marshall, 1996: 523). A misapprehension exists that “generalisability” is the primary goal of excellent research. However, studying small samples for qualitative research is useful and a suitable sample size for qualitative study is one that sufficiently answers the research question (Marshall, 1996: 523). This may be single figures for straightforward questions or very in-depth studies (Marshall, 1996). The aim of all qualitative sampling approaches is to obtain a representative sample of a population for the results to be generalised back to the population (Marshall, 1996: 522). Random or probability sampling, while providing most optimal opportunity to generalise the results to the population, is not the most efficient way for gaining understanding intricate issues relating to individuals’ behaviour (Marshall, 1996: 523). This study used a combination of convenience and purposive sampling strategies, discussed further.

3.4.3.1 Convenience sampling
The choice of participants was most accessible (Marshall, 1996) to the researcher. The schools chosen for the research were located close to where the researcher lived thus being the least costly in terms of time, effort and money (Marshall, 1996: 523). As an experienced teacher of
close to twenty years, the researcher was familiar with the operational mechanisms of the schools within the chosen location of research, Metropole South. Additionally, the researcher’s familiarity with the teaching environment within the specific location where the research took place, proved valuable in gaining access into the chosen schools and surrounding community.

3.4.3.2 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling is the most frequently used sampling technique (Marshall, 1996). This type of sampling is when the “…researcher actively selects the most productive sample to answer the research question…” (Marshall, 1996: 523). Thus, “key informants” who would be able to assist with the exploration of the research question (Henning, et al., 2004) were selected. This involved locating individuals with certain characteristics as determined by the researcher (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

The researcher’s recent experience as a teacher in a school in the Metropole South revealed the socio-economic challenges experienced by learners, as presented in the classroom by these learners. The researcher, as a former teacher of learners of the area, was fully aware of the socio-economic challenges which include poverty, substance abuse, high rates of unemployment, and violence experienced by learners. Participation by the researcher in in-service development programmes offered by WCED during this time caused personal frustration while bearing additional witness to expressions of dissatisfaction amongst colleagues due to the lack of relevance of programmes in response to the challenges presented by learners in the classroom.

The participants selected were “desirable participants” (Henning, et al., 2004: 71) working in Blue Waters. These “key informants” included teachers from a primary and high school in the area, a principal from one of the schools, and a social worker in the area. In addition a district officer from the Metropole South was also interviewed. These participants provided essential information of their experiences of teacher in-service development programmes; the context and setting of the area; the school and its learners; as well as the pertinent details of departmental mechanisms related to teacher-in-service programmes.
Knowledge claims were made based on the meanings given by the above individuals of their experiences. These subjective meanings developed as a result of interaction with others (Wolcott, 1994). Similarly, the researcher interpreted the findings shaped by personal experiences and background (Cresswell, 2003: 8). Thus due consideration had to be given to ensure the validity and the reliability of the processes within this research.

3.5 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The researcher needs to ensure validity (internal and external) and reliability (Yin, 1989). As this research was both quantitative and qualitative, part of it thus being interpretive the researcher was involved in a “…sustained and intensive experience with the participants…” (Cresswell, 2003: 184). For the researcher, recent past experiences as a teacher and participation in in-service programmes added to the particular interest in this research. Cresswell (2003: 182) states that in qualitative study, the researcher reflects on who he or she is; should be sensitive to his or her biography, and how it affects the study. Furthermore, the self-examination and acknowledgement of biases, values and interests and admitting that the personal-self cannot be separated from the researcher-self is an open and honest acknowledgement that all research is laden with values (Cresswell, 2003: 182). Thus, the researcher also needed to be mindful of bias that could influence the findings of the research.

The researcher reiterates the deliberate choice of employing both quantitative and qualitative methods so that a value-free, objective result that is closest to the participant’s perspective (Denzin, 1998; Babbie & Mouton, 2001) is more likely. With relevance to this, Greene, et al., (1989) specify various purposes of mixed methods research. Three of these purposes are:

- triangulation (seeking corroboration of results studying the same phenomenon);
- complementarity (seeking elaboration, clarification, and enhancement of the results from one method with the results of the other method); and
- initiation (discovering paradoxes and contradiction). (Greene, et al., 1989: 256)

Initiation, one of the purposes for mixed methods (Greene, et al., 1989) is equally emphasised by Rossman and Wilson (1985). This “discovery of paradoxes and contradiction” is strongly encouraged and requires an integration of methods (Greene, et al., 1989). In addition to using the mixed method approach for the discovery of paradoxes and contradictions, this study also fully
acknowledges the benefits of the other two purposes of the mixed method approach, cited above. Triangulation, which is essentially the combination of methods to research the same phenomenon (Denzin, 1998), makes it possible for the researcher to be more assured of a value-free, objective result that is closest to the participant’s perspective (Babbie & Mouton, 2001), and serves as a tool for validity and reliability (Denzin, 1998). Lastly, this study acknowledges that using a mixed method approach promotes the “complementarity” aspect of quantitative and qualitative methods in order to elaborate on, clarify, and enhance the results (Greene, et al., 1989).

Through a combination of these three purposes the researcher is assured of a value-free, objective result. In addition the “within method” of triangulation (within the qualitative paradigm) across a variety of research instruments/methods (semi-structured interviews and document analysis) assist with findings which best reflect reality (Denzin, 1998).

3.6 DATA COLLECTION
For effective data collection Yin (1994) states that the researcher must ask suitable questions and be able to decode the responses; must be a sound listener; and, be adaptable and flexible in order to respond to several situations. In addition, the researcher must have a solid understanding of the issues being examined and be unbiased. The case study design of this research enabled the use of various sources of data (Yin, 1984).

This mixed method study incorporated both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. For quantitative research, the researcher collects data using predetermined instruments like a survey which gives statistical data (Cresswell, 2003: 18). In a qualitative study, data is usually collected through interviews, observations and/or document analysis (Merriam, 1998). The combination of these methods should provide a “thick description” of the theme studied (Geertz, 1973, as cited in Henning, et al., 2004: 37). As a quantitative data collection method, 55 teachers across two schools were asked to complete a questionnaire. Furthermore, data was collected qualitatively through 3 semi-structured individual interviews, and document analysis.
3.6.1 Procedure for data collection
After ethical clearance was granted by the University of the Western Cape (UWC) to conduct the research, the procedure for data collection started. Through convenience and purposive sampling strategies, each with specific purposes (Marshall, 1996), the researcher identified accessible “desirable participants” who were “information rich” and from whom the most could be learned about relevant issues for the purposes of the research (Henning, et al., 2004: 71). By means of these strategies the researcher identified schools in the Metropole South, specifically in Blue Waters, that would be relevant for the purpose of the research.

Procedures to gain access into these schools and the offices of the Metropole South were drawn out. This was time consuming and frustrating. The researcher had to be granted permission from the WCED to conduct research in the schools and interview a principal and a district officer. Firstly, through the offices of the UWC a letter was sent by the researcher’s supervisor (see Appendix B) to the WCED.

The written permission requested by the university to the WCED to conduct research in these schools was addressed to the Director of Research Services of WCED. The letter detailed the methods used for data collection from teachers at the schools, a principal of one of the schools, and a district officer of the Metropole South. Reassurance of strict ethical procedures was emphasised in the letter. This included emphasis on informed consent by participants, participants’ freedom to withdraw from the study at any time, and the assurance of participants’ anonymity and confidentiality. The WCED was also assured that the researcher would not go into the classrooms and will not interfere with the work of the teachers at the schools. An intention to submit a copy of the report to the WCED on completion of the study was also clearly stated.

After a period of time, the researcher received a questionnaire from the WCED requesting details of the study. These details had to be completed by the researcher and supervisor. Once this was completed and returned to the WCED, the researcher awaited permission from the WCED before proceeding with the data collection. After being granted permission to conduct the research (see Appendix C), the researcher contacted the schools and the district office. This entailed writing
numerous e-mails and making many telephone calls to various personnel of the WCED hierarchy. After a period of three months since commencement of procedures to gain access, the researcher then commenced with data collection.

Once appointments were confirmed with the principal for the interview to take place and a suitable time was set to deliver the questionnaires in person, the data collection process at the schools proceeded. To interview the social worker, the researcher visited the advice office where support for the community was provided. The researcher followed the procedures that all community members seeking advice needed to follow in order to access the social worker for the semi-structured interview. After a period of time the researcher tracked down the relevant representative who co-ordinates in-service programmes for teachers in the district, and an appointment was set up for an interview.

3.6.2 Methods of data collection
This mixed method study incorporated both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. Cresswell, (2003: 18) states that for the quantitative approach the researcher collects data using predetermined instruments. Qualitative studies rely on text and image data; seek connection with their participants in data collection; and these data collection methods traditionally are based on open-ended questions, interviews and documents (Rossman & Rallis, 2000).

Thus, a mixture of qualitative- and quantitative-type questions, as argued by Marshall (1996), was used to gather data for this research. By combining these methods, a “thick description” of the theme studied (Geertz, 1973, as cited in Henning, et al., 2004: 37) is provided. As a quantitative data collection method, 55 teachers across two schools were asked to complete a questionnaire. Furthermore as qualitative data collection methods, data was collected through 3 semi-structured individual interviews, and document analysis. These data collection methods are each discussed below.

3.6.2.1 The questionnaire
The questionnaire comprised of four sections (see Appendix D). In the first section, teachers were asked to stipulate their age, gender, number of years teaching experience, qualification,
post level and demographic group. The second section required of teachers to list the challenges experienced by learners in the classroom and to briefly describe these challenges, if any. For the third section teachers were asked to list the in-service programmes attended for the past year and to provide a brief description of each programme. For the last section a five point Likert-scale, viewed by Vagias (2006) as the most appropriate measurement for measuring opinions and experiences of people, ranging from “always”, “mostly”, “sometimes”, “rarely” and “never” was used. Teachers were asked to evaluate five statements according to the points on this scale.

These statements were:

- In service programmes offered by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) assists me to effectively teach the learners in my class.
- I am consulted by the WCED about what in-service programmes would assist me to teach effectively.
- The in-service programmes are relevant for my needs as a teacher.
- The in-service programmes equip me to teach in a learner-centred manner so that the needs of each learner are met.
- The quality of the in-service programmes is excellent.

In addition, teachers were also given an opportunity to add any relevant comments pertinent to each of these statements.

3.6.2.2 Individual interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the principal of one of the schools, a district officer and a social worker. With qualitative interviewing, the interview can be flexible (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Described as “a conversation with a purpose” (Kahn & Cannell as cited in Marshall & Rossman, 1999: 108), interviews are useful to gather large amounts of information quickly. Marshall and Rossman (1999) further emphasise that during this exchange of information from the participant it is important that an attitude is conveyed by the interviewer that the participant’s responses are valuable and useful. The interviewer should also be respectful, non-judgemental and non-threatening (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).
The semi-structured character of the interview allowed the participants to share their experiences in an interactive way, this conversational manner making it easier to establish a relationship of trust. The first section of the interview guides (see Appendix E) required of the researcher to note the participants’ gender and demographic group. This was followed by mostly open-ended questions, as participants’ views were central for the study (Cresswell, 2003: 8). These questions required of participants to provide their personal opinions and experiences. Participants were also encouraged to explain or provide reasons for their opinions. Lastly, the participants were asked to make recommendations. The primary purpose of the interview with the social worker was to obtain a thorough understanding of the social context of learners who attended the two schools.

3.6.2.3 Document analysis

Document analysis is an orderly process for studying or evaluating documents (Bowen, 2009) to reveal meaning, develop understanding, and gain insights pertaining to the research problem (Merriam, 1998: 18). It is used as a data collection method for qualitative research studies that produce vivid explanations of a single event, phenomenon, program or organisation (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994). Documents could include study reports, memoranda, letters, agendas, or any notes that could supplement the data base (Yin, 1994).

3.6.2.3.1 Purpose of document analysis

The purposes of document analysis are useful. Three of these purposes, as stated by Bowen (2009), are triangulation, provision of context, and provision of supplementary data.

The foundation of document analysis rests in its function in methodological and data triangulation (Bowen, 2009), thus serving to verify evidence collected from other sources (Yin, 1994). For this mixed method study, document analysis was included as a qualitative research methodology for the purposes of triangulation for both method and data. Document analysis, therefore, assisted to corroborate the evidence gathered through the quantitative data collection method, namely the questionnaire. In so doing, this combination of methods to research the same phenomenon (Denzin, 1998), made it possible for the researcher to be more assured of a value-
free, objective result that is closest to the participant’s perspective (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Validity and reliability (Denzin, 1998) is thus ensured.

Secondly, the documents analysed for this study provides data in the context within which the participants for this study operate. Text thus provides context (Bowen, 2009: 29). From the documents analysed, background information as well as historical insight was provided (Bowen, 2009). Lastly, the documents chosen for this study provides supplementary research data and the information and insights gained are valuable additions to an existing data base (Bowen, 2009).

3.6.2.3.2 Procedure for document analysis
Although document analysis provides valuable data, researchers should view documents critically and avoid simply taking extracts from documents to add into their research. Instead, the meaning of the document should be pulled out as well as its input into the matters being investigated (Bowen, 2009: 33). Furthermore, the researcher ought to display the ability to identify relevant information and to distinguish it from that which is not relevant (Bowen, 2009). Thus, documents ought to be analysed according to the problem and purpose of the research. The content of the documents should also fit the conceptual framework of the study (Bowen, 2009: 33). Data from these relevant documents should be scrutinised and interpreted to obtain meaning, understanding and to develop knowledge (Bowen, 2009).

Bowen (2009) further states that an effective procedure for document analysis is that the researcher: identifies the documents analysed; specifies the nature or type of documents; and, describes the analytical procedure employed. However, to ensure that relevant documents are analysed, the problem and the purpose of this study were kept in mind so that the content of the documents fit the conceptual framework (Bowen, 2009: 33) of this study. This is discussed below.

(i) The problem and purpose of this study
The problem that this research addresses is that upgrading the subject knowledge of teachers is too simplistic and will not bring forth better learner attainment (Adler & Reed, 2002). Learner attainment will however improve if upgrading of teacher’s subject knowledge is accompanied by
teacher development programmes which focus on dealing with teachers’ contexts as well as the contexts of the learners as required by the learner-centred approach reflected in the National Curriculum Statements (Adler & Reed, 2002). Furthermore, Brodie, et al., (2002) caution that challenges like violence, large classes, and learners with diverse backgrounds impede a learner-centred approach.

Thus, the problem at the core of this research is that teacher development programmes need to deal with teacher’s contexts as well as the contexts of the learners as required by the learner-centred approach. The central purpose for this research is to determine if teacher in-service development programmes assist teachers with learner-centred teaching strategies, more specifically, if it incorporates the contexts of teachers as well as the contexts of learners.

(ii) Relevant documents for this study

Relevant documents analysed which fit the conceptual framework for this research are listed below with a brief description of each:

- **Norms and Standards for Teachers (DoE, 1998).** This document:
  - sets out the Department of Education’s (DoE’s) commitment to in-service training (INSET) for South African teachers as an ongoing process of professional development. This includes school-based in-service which aims to assist teachers to improve the quality of education in their schools;
  - emphasises that the focus of INSET programmes is on the learning experiences of learners through the enhancement of teachers’ knowledge, skills, values and attitudes toward whole school improvement (Mestry, Hendricks & Bisschoff, 2009: 477); and
  - sets out the roles, and the associated set of applied competence (norms) and qualifications (standards) for the development of teachers (DoE, 2000) for both pre-service and in-service education and training. These roles include the teacher as “Learning mediator” and the teacher as “Community, citizenship and pastoral role” (DoE, 2000: 13-14).
The National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa (DoE, 2006). This document aims:
- to enable teachers to efficiently perform their tasks and to continually enhance their professional competence and performance;
- to successfully develop teachers to meet the social and economic needs of the country; and,
- emphasises the need for teacher development so that teachers are able to strengthen their subject and content pedagogical base.

The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (DoE, 2011). This document:
- is essentially a framework for the on-going development of teachers over time; and,
- aims to improve the quality of teacher education and development so that the quality of teachers and teaching can improve (DoE, 2011).

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (DBE, 2011). This document:
- sets out policy within the DBE for curriculum and assessment practices for schools (DBE, 2011);
- aims to ensure that learners acquire and apply skills and knowledge which are meaningful for their lives (DBE, 2011: 3);
- aims to:
  “…equip learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country…”(DBE, 2011: 4);
- emphasises inclusivity and social justice where issues such as poverty and inequality are addressed sensitively;
- emphasises inclusivity as a central focus of the organisation, planning and teaching at each school;
- specifies that the responsibility for managing inclusivity rests with relevant structures within the school community, District-Based Support Teams, Institutional-Level Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres (DBE, 2011); and
- ensures the provision of quality education comparable to education in other countries.
(iii) Analytical procedure for documents

The analytical procedure of these documents required of the researcher to find documents that relate to the problem and purpose of this study (Bowen, 2009), more specifically DoE policy documents that pertain to teacher development programmes and the holistic learning of the learners. Once relevant documents were identified and selected (Bowen, 2009: 27), the content of the data was skimmed, read through and interpreted (Bowen, 2009). This included the appraisal of, and synthesising of data. The data included extracts, quotations, or complete passages which were organised into main themes and categories particularly through content analysis. This was a cyclic process combining aspects of content analysis and thematic analysis (Bowen, 2009).

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Cresswell (2003) states that there is “…a cycling back and forth from data collection and analysis to problem reformulation and back…” (p. 183). In addition, there are the concurrent activities of collecting, analysing and writing up of data. Although this was a reiterative process experienced by the researcher, in the interests of clarity a description of the data analysis process during this study is set out below. This being a mixed methods study, both quantitative and qualitative data analyses were carried out. Thus, the quantitative data analysis for the questionnaire is described and is followed by a description of the qualitative data analysis procedures for the interviews and the document analysis.

The process of data analysis in a quantitative study involves sorting the collected information into components or elements in order to test the hypothesis or answering the identified research problem. Statistical analyses are conducted to assist the researcher in that process (Pallant, 2005).

Each returned questionnaire was given a number to identify it so it could be referred to when the findings are discussed. These questionnaires were then individually scrutinized to get a general sense of the responses. The Microsoft Office Package, Excel was used for data capturing, and analysis. The researcher used percentage distribution to describe the results which were graphically illustrated.

Data analysis for qualitative research starts with reading all the data. Data is then divided into meaningful units (Henning, et al., 2004). By working repeatedly though texts such as interview
transcripts or documents, as done for this study, the researcher then interprets the data. Thus, meaning is elicited in a disciplined, systematic and comprehensive manner. Themes are then identified by comparing different units of data, while identifying common patterns across units of data. These themes of categories of data are however flexible and can be modified during the process of analysis (Henning, et al., 2004).

In this study different units of data, collected from the interviews and relevant DoE policy documents were compared and themes were then identified and coded. Special attention was given to this process to ensure the meanings of the data were captured as objectively as possible.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS
The study was conducted within the universal ethical principles (respect for person, beneficence, non-malfeasance, and justice) and the ethics guidelines for postgraduate research prescribed by the University of the Western Cape. Permission was granted by the University of the Western Cape to do this research based on the above principles.

Remenyi (1998:114) states that confidentiality of participants should be maintained at all times in order to avoid potentially “unsatisfactory practices, which could endanger the participants”. To ensure the upholding of this consideration, the participants were assured that their identities will remain anonymous.

Participants were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they had the freedom to withdraw at any time. All participants were also assured that they would be informed of the findings of the research.

3.9 SUMMARY
This chapter has provided the details and processes followed for this mixed method study. The methodology used for this study has been highlighted and located within a paradigm. The rationale for the underpinning paradigm has been explained. In this chapter the chosen case study research design has been discussed, followed by a description of the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis processes. The ethical considerations for this study have also been described.
CHAPTER 4
PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION
The central aim of this study was to examine if teacher in-service development programmes assist teachers with learner-centred teaching strategies. More specifically, this study investigated: whether the teacher in-service development programmes by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) and the Department of Basic Education (DBE) provide guidance with regard to the context of learners and the context of teachers; and if district offices of the WCED offer relevant and meaningful teacher in-service development support towards a learner-centred approach.

In the previous chapter the research setting was described and the research methodology was discussed in detail. This current chapter presents the findings of this study. This includes the findings of the questionnaire which was administered to the teachers at the two schools in an impoverished area, as described in the previous chapter. Limitations resulting from time constraints and lack of funding restricted the scope of this research to the two schools. Thus the desired access to more teachers was not possible. These limitations are reflected in the extent of the findings.

Furthermore, this chapter includes the findings from the interviews with the principal of one of the schools, a WCED district officer and the social worker serving the community surrounding the school. Findings from the analysis of relevant Department of Education (DoE) policy documents, useful guides for expected teacher competencies, as well as a framework for teacher in-service development, are also presented. Keeping in mind the central aims of the study, key themes were identified from the findings. This chapter then proceeds into a discussion of these key themes.

4.2 KEY FINDINGS
In this section the key findings are presented. The quantitative data collection method used was a questionnaire administered to 55 teachers of which 26 responded. The qualitative data collection
methods included three semi-structured interviews. These were conducted with a principal of one of the schools, a district officer from the Metropole South, and a social worker working in Blue Waters. In addition to this, relevant DoE and DBE policy documents were analysed. Firstly, the findings from the questionnaire are described. This is then followed by the findings from the interviews and the key information about expected teacher competencies and teacher in-service development according to DoE and DBE policy documents.

### 4.2.1 Key findings from the questionnaire

Findings from the questionnaire (see Appendix D) emanated from the responses from 26 teachers across the two schools. The questionnaire had five distinct sections. Each of these sections is individually discussed; the results are illustrated, and then described below.

#### 4.2.1.1 The teachers

The first section required teachers to fill in their demographic information: race group, age, number of years teaching experience, gender, qualification, and post level. This information as collated is illustrated in Table 1 below.

As illustrated in the above table all (26) teachers were coloured. The average age of the teachers was 44.7 years while 84% (22) of the teachers were female and 16% (4) male. All teachers were

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3 The percentages illustrated in the tables only reflect the teachers who participated in this research.
qualified: 43% (11) had a degree in education, 43% (11) a three year diploma in education, and the remaining 14% (4) had a three year diploma in education and an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE).

4.2.1.2 Challenges presented by learners in the class
This section of the questionnaire required of the teachers to list the challenges presented by learners in the class. Teachers were also asked to briefly describe each challenge. Based on this, the challenges were categorised and the frequencies of challenges are presented in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parent involvement</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homework</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gangsterism</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional (low self-esteem)</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug/Substance abuse</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numeracy</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A description with an explanation for each of these challenges is provided below.

4.2.1.2.1 Discipline
This category was indicated by 56% (15) of the teachers as a challenge presented by learners. Lack of respect towards teachers, and disruptive, rude learners, who swear and back-chat were mentioned the most. This was followed by aggressive learners who fight. Teachers cited learners’ inability to focus as a reason for disruptive behaviour. Another reason provided for
disruptive behaviour is inadequate seats for large classes. Absenteeism without valid reasons was also cited as a concern for a teacher.

4.2.1.2.2 Literacy
Literacy was indicated by 27% (7) of teachers who responded to the survey as one of the challenges presented by learners in the class. Most of the teachers indicated that reading was particularly challenging for learners. More specifically, teachers stated that learners have no basic reading skills, cannot cope with basic concepts and cannot read and comprehend. Learners, thus, fail to follow written instructions and struggle to capture relevant information when asked to answer written questions. One teacher pointed out that learners experience a language barrier as their home language is Afrikaans and the medium of instruction is English.

4.2.1.2.3 Cognitive
For 27% (7) of teachers cognitive challenges were presented by learners in the class. Teachers stated that learners have a short concentration span; are not focused academically; are lazy and are not interested in academics; and, have a poor ethic. Learners are thus unable to cope with the workload and are ill-prepared for the exams. One teacher stated that 80% of the learners in class attain below 50%.

4.2.1.2.4 Poverty
Poverty was cited by 23% (6) of the teachers as a challenge presented by learners in the class. A teacher stated that learners are very poor and unhygienic; and that most learners do not have breakfast and therefore cannot concentrate. Another teacher remarked that learners do not have pens, uniform and food. Unemployment being the norm was also cited by a teacher. Other systemic factors resulting from poverty are schools being under-resourced. Thus, there is a lack of textbooks and learning aids; and large overcrowded classes with too many learners to one teacher.

4.2.1.2.5 Lack of parental involvement
Lack of parental involvement was cited as a challenge by 23% (6) of teachers. For this category learners’ failure to do homework was mentioned as a direct consequence of the lack of parental
involvement. Late-coming was also cited as a consequence of the lack of parental involvement. Lastly, one teacher stated that some parents are just not interested in learners’ school work.

4.2.1.2.6 Homework
For this category, failure to do homework was listed as a separate challenge that learners presented in the class. This was indicated by 19% (5) of teachers as a challenge. Besides learners not doing their homework, three teachers also specified that incomplete classwork is a tremendous challenge.

4.2.1.2.7 Gangsterism
The comments given by teachers for gangsterism, indicated by 15% (4) of teachers as a challenge in the class, include that learners mimic gangsters; learners are influenced by relatives who belong to gangs; and there is too much violence in the community.

4.2.1.2.8 Low self-esteem
Factors indicating learners’ low self-esteem were listed by 12% (3) of teachers as a challenge presented by learners in the class. These factors include learners’ lack of self-confidence and lack of dreams to aspire to; and, learners’ lack of ambition and being unconcerned about the future.

4.2.1.2.9 Drugs / substance abuse
The use of drugs was cited by 8% (2) of teachers as a challenge in the class. Glue-sniffing was mentioned by one teacher, while another stated that 10% of learners in each class abuse drugs and other substances like glue.

4.2.1.2.10 Numeracy
One teacher (4%) stated that learners cannot cope with basic numerical concepts.

4.2.1.3 In-service development programmes
Teachers were then asked to list the in-service development programmes they attended the past year. The next table illustrates the in-service development programmes attended by teachers.
Of the in-service development programmes attended, 25% (7) was for training in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS). Training for Mathematics made up 22% (6) of the in-service programmes attended. HIV and AIDS training made up 17% (4) of the in-service development programmes attended. Furthermore, teachers indicated that in-service development programmes for teaching methodologies amounted to 10% (3) of all programmes attended; literacy: 5% (1); administration: 5% (1); and Science: 5% (1). Lastly in-service development programmes attended for drug counselling constituted 5% (1) of all programmes attended; counselling for teachers: 2% (0.52); training on inclusive teaching: 2% (0.52); and dealing with the delinquent behaviour of learners: 2% (0.52).

4.2.1.4 Rating of in-service development programmes

In the fourth section of the questionnaire teachers were asked to evaluate five statements according to the points on a five point Likert scale. These points ranged from “always”,
“mostly”, “sometimes”, “rarely” and “never”. The five statements teachers were asked to evaluate were:

- In service programmes offered by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) assists me to effectively teach the learners in my class.
- I am consulted by the WCED about what in-service development programmes would assist me to teach effectively.
- The in-service development programmes are relevant for my needs as a teacher.
- The in-service development programmes equip me to teach in a learner-centred manner so that the needs of each learner are met.
- The quality of the in-service development programmes is excellent.

In addition, teachers were also provided with a space to make any comments relevant to a particular question.

The results for each statement with comments are illustrated below.

4.2.1.4.1 Table 4 below represents the responses from the participants on whether in-service development programmes assist them to teach effectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The responses to this question indicated that 12% (3) of the teachers felt that the in-service development programmes offered by the WCED always assisted them to effectively teach the learners in the class. The majority of the teachers (42%) indicated that the in-service development programmes mostly assisted them to teach effectively, while 38% (10) of teachers
felt that the in-service development programmes sometimes assist them to teach effectively. Only 4% (1) of the teachers felt that in-service development programmes rarely assisted them to teach effectively, while none of the teachers felt that the in-service development programmes do not assist them to teach effectively.

The comments made by some teachers include:
Teacher (T) 24: “Always” - *The programmes are always relevant to the times and children of today and I need to stay abreast with the times.*
T 1: “Sometimes” - *Not able to spend the amount of time per group. Not realistic. Not applicable in full classes.*
T 2: “Sometimes” – *They (the WCED or programmes) do not take into consideration the context of the school, for example learners from our school have illiterate parents.*
T 16: “Sometimes” - *For me some were not effective.*
T 18: “Rarely” - *Content remains the same but the real challenges are not addressed*

### 4.2.1.4.2 Table 5 below represents responses from teachers on the consultations by WCED on in-service development programmes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consultation Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses by the teachers indicated that 8% (2) were always consulted by the WCED about which in-service development programmes would assist them to teach effectively, while 35% (9) of the teachers indicated they were mostly consulted by the WCED about which programmes would assist them to teach effectively. Furthermore, 19% (5) of the teachers indicated that they were sometimes consulted, while 27% (7) indicated that they were rarely consulted. Lastly, 11%
(3) of the teachers indicated that they were never consulted by the WCED about which programmes would assist them to teach effectively.

The comments made by some teachers are:

T 24: “Mostly” - *I speak to the curriculum advisor and managers and ideas are relayed and eventually* (translated) *into a workshop.*

T 18: “Sometimes” - *Mostly in my learning area.*

T 16: “Rarely” - *Depends on mainstream subject.*

**4.2.1.4.3** Table 6 below illustrates the responses of participants on the relevance of in-development service programmes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Mostly</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eight percent (2) of the teachers indicated that the in-service development programmes were always relevant for their needs as teachers, and 48% (12) of the teachers indicated that the in-service development programmes were mostly relevant for their needs as teachers. Fourty-four percent (11) of the teachers indicated that the in-service development programmes were sometimes relevant for their needs as teachers. None of the teachers indicated that in-service development programmes were rarely or never relevant for their needs as teachers.

The comments made by some teachers are:
T 26: “Mostly” - Will not attend if not relevant.
T 2: “Sometimes” - Context of our school not taken into consideration. Some programmes are relevant.
T 3: “Sometimes” - Some programmes are relevant.
T 16: “Sometimes” - To enhance teaching / to equip learners.
T 19: “Sometimes” - Programmes need to be more hands on and more resources (need to be) given.
T 24: “Sometimes” - The ideas are excellent but I cannot apply it to all the learners as classes are overcrowded.

4.2.1.4.4 Table 7 presents responses from participants on whether the in-service development programmes equipped them to teach in a learner-centred manner.

The responses to this question indicated that for 8% (2) of teachers the in-service development programmes did equip them to teach in a learner-centred manner, while 28% (7) of the teachers indicated that the in-service development programmes mostly equipped them to teach in a learner-centred manner. The majority of teachers (60%) (16) indicated that the in-service development programmes sometimes equipped them to teach in a learner-centred manner, while
4% (1) of the teachers indicated that the in-service development programmes rarely equipped them to teach in a learner-centred manner. None of the teachers indicated that the in-service development programmes never equipped them to teach in a learner-centred manner.

See comments made by some teachers below:
T 1: “Sometimes”- *Sometimes the expectations are not realistic at all.*
T 8: “Sometimes”- *Depends on how big your groups are. Sometimes (it is) difficult.*
T 24: “Sometimes” - *It equips me but I cannot reach every learner due to overcrowded classes.*

4.2.1.4.5 Table 8 below illustrates the responses on the quality of the in-service development programmes.

None of the teachers indicated that the quality of the in-service development programmes is always excellent, while 38% (10) of the teachers indicated that the quality of the in-service development programmes is mostly excellent. Fifty-four percent (14) of the teachers indicated that the quality of the in-service development programmes is sometimes excellent and 4% (1) indicated that the quality of the in-service development programmes is rarely excellent.
Lastly, 4% (1) of the teachers indicated that the quality of the in-service development programmes is never excellent.

The following comments were made by some teachers:
T 2: “Sometimes” - Sometimes it is information that we are familiar with.
T 3: “Sometimes” - They (the WCED) are not really aware of what happens in our classrooms, our reality.
T 24: “Sometimes” - I do receive notes and in-depth data, but no posters for my class and I do not have time to make posters.

4.2.1.5. Recommendations from teachers

For the final section of the questionnaire teachers were asked to provide any recommendations with regards to in-service development programmes. Table 9 below reflects these.

(i) WCED - teaching and learning
These recommendations from 19% (5) of teachers focused on teaching and learning particularly pertaining to the input necessary from the WCED. The recommendations included the need for assistance with big classes to ensure maximum contact time. One teacher recommended that
effective teaching and learning need to start at pre-school level. Another pointed out that there is a need for curriculum and overall educational reform. It was suggested that the WCED should realize that not all learners should be taught in mainstream as some learners need so much more. Lastly one of the teachers recommended that the WCED should involve teachers before deciding on in-service programmes.

(ii) Parental involvement
Parental involvement was recommended by 12% (3) of the teachers. One teacher stated that sometimes there was no support from parents and suggested that there should be an extra effort put into getting parents to assist with their work and homework. Other relevant recommendations were that parents should also become more involved in the academic programme of the learners; and that parents should be more engaged in the learning process as all the responsibility is currently borne by the teachers and the school.

(iii) Finance
This category of recommendations was mentioned by 8% (2) of teachers. These teachers indicated that more finance be made available for sport and extra-curricular activities and that the school needed more finances to be able to help the learners. It was also emphasised that there is always a lack of funding

(iv) Less administration
Eight percent (2) of teachers recommended that the administrative work of teacher should be decreased. This would ensure more contact with the learners.

(v) Extra-curricular activities
In this category 8% (2) of teachers recommended that extra-curricular activities are included in the school programme. The need for extra finances for extra-curricular activities was also mentioned.

(vi) More exposure to the arts
Like the category above, 8% (2) of the teachers recommended that creativity and play are necessary for learners and that the incorporation of the Arts into teaching is often neglected and teachers need support in this area.
The following section focuses on the key findings of the interviews.

4.2.2 Key findings from the interviews
Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the principal of one of the schools, a district officer of the Metropole South district of the WCED, and a social worker working in the community. The aim of the interviews with the principal and the district officer was to gain insight into the in-service development programmes offered by the WCED to teachers at schools. More specifically, it was hoped that the interviews would shed light on the degree of relevance of these programmes for the holistic development of learners. The interview with the social worker provided the researcher with valuable information about the context of the schools, specifically the socio-economic challenges experienced by the learners of these schools.

4.2.2.1 Interviews with the Principal and the District Officer
The guiding interview questions posed at the principal and the district officer (see Appendix E) focused on the types of in-service development programmes; its usefulness for effective teaching and management of schools; and whether it assists teachers with the socio-economic challenges presented by learners in the classroom.

After engaging with the responses of each interview, these responses were organised into themes that would assist with the understanding of in-service development programmes offered by the WCED and its relevance for learner-centred teaching as required by DoE and DBE curriculum policy.

4.2.2.1.1 Context
Observations of the setting prior to each interview are worth mentioning.

(i) The Principal
Walking through the surrounding area of the school it was apparent that the learners of the school (and by implication the school) were indeed confronted with challenges. Traces of poverty and unemployment were noticeable. Surrounding the school were poorly maintained three-storey council flats and adults who were either walking or loitering in the schools.
It was obvious that the principal was very busy. On the two occasions when visiting the school, the session with the principal was either delayed or interrupted. On the first appointment, a group of male senior learners were in the principal’s office. These learners were suspended for misconduct and returned to school on that day, as their term of suspension was complete. The second time the researcher visited the school the principal had to excuse himself from the interview to assist a visibly traumatised teacher who brought two female senior learners to the principal because they were fighting in class. During the course of the interview, the principal mentioned that although no overt incidents of extreme violence are experienced on the school premises, shootings do occur in the surrounding area and this does impact on the school and the learners.

(ii) The District Officer
The setting of the district office was different to the setting of the school. The entrances to the district office had strict security and the set-up within was corporate-like. The offices of personnel were peaceful, pleasantly adorned with pictures, and well-resourced with ample space, furniture and computers. There was strict control around time-slots and procedures for appointments. A couple of minutes after being seated at the front desk, the researcher was invited to proceed to the office of the district officer. The set-up in the office indicated that the district officer was quite busy with administrative tasks. A brief discussion between the front desk person and the district officer prior to the interview indicated that the district officer served in a co-ordinating capacity. The district officer explained to the researcher that figures and names of teachers who were on strike weeks before, had to be submitted to the provincial office and that there was a cut-off date for this. The interview was done quite hastily. However, the researcher was invited to contact the district officer via e-mail or telephonically if there was a need. Overall, the information given by the district officer was done in an amicable, informative manner, albeit with much haste.

4.2.2.1.2 In-service development programmes offered to schools
The principal and the district officer provided useful information about the in-service training offered to schools. These programmes are co-ordinated by the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI) based at the former Western Cape College of Cape Town in Bellville. This
The institute focuses on curriculum interventions, mostly for mathematical literacy, and science. Materials used for the in-service development programmes at the CTLI and training are provided through the assistance of Senior Curriculum Planners of the WCED as well as from external service providers.

(i) The Principal
The principal stated that training received for the past year from the WCED through the CTLI was for Curriculum and Policy Statements (CAPS) which focused on lesson planning, and assessment. While these programmes are useful and relevant, “sometimes they re-invent the wheel.” He added that the venue for these programmes is far though. In addition, the principal stated that teachers have to attend many meetings and have to provide learners with extra tuition. He also mentioned that the WCED is curtailed by limited funding.

(ii) The District Officer
The district officer explained that the courses at the CTLI are decided upon by the programme directors based on the information passed on from the circuit to the district. This information filters through from the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) and School Improvement Plans (SIPs). The district officer further referred me to the Teacher Development Summit (TDS) Report (ELRC, 2009) which provides more details about in-service development programmes offered.

The TDS reflects that programmes are offered across the foundation phase, intermediate phase, senior phase, and the Further Education and Training (FET) band. On closer examination inclusive education features as one of the programmes offered in the foundation phase. The table below summarises the courses offered as reflected in the TDS (ELRC, 2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOUNDATION PHASE PROGRAMME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literacy Learning Programme, Numeracy Learning Programme, Life Skills Learning Programme, Inclusive Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERMEDIATE PHASE PROGRAMME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences Learning Area, Mathematics Learning Area, Technology Learning Area, Arts &amp; Culture Learning Area, Languages Learning Area, Environmental Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SENIOR PHASE &amp; FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING (FET) PROGRAMME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics, Grade 8 Reading, Technology, Mathematical Literacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: In-service programmes offered by CTLI (ELRC, 2009)
4.2.2.1.3 Effectiveness of in-service development programmes

(i) The Principal
The principal pointed out that in order to address the socio-economic challenges at schools there are initiatives like the Safe Schools Project for every metropole. In essence, this project focuses on safety for schools, like the provision of extra security and fixing fences. The impact however is minimal. Feeding schemes are in place for learners who are poor, and through this, learners are provided with a meal at school.

Furthermore, to assist with learners’ socio-economic challenges the principal expressed that there is a learner support team available to whom learners with challenges can be referred. This procedure is however time-consuming as there are financial constraints within the WCED budget. Thus, one psychologist has to serve many learners. Resultantly there are long waiting lists for interventions. The principal ended this part of the interview by stating: “If I don’t act on my own then I will wait forever.”

(ii) The District Officer
The district officer explained that in-service development programmes focusing on learners’ socio-economic challenges are generally not offered. However conferences focusing on challenges like behaviour have been held and some teachers have attended these. Conferences like these have also been offered for managers and principals of schools. There are also specialised learner and teacher support units that schools can access for assistance with learners’ socio-economic challenges. The onus rests with the principal to access and make use of structures like learner support. While it is the case that this process entails a long wait because there is just one psychologist to see many learners, resources are limited. Even when there are inputs made, “the minute the support is moved out of the schools, then everything falls apart.” The district officer continued by saying that if the Teacher Support Teams at schools are motivated, it brings about positive results.

4.2.2.1.4 Consultation processes for in-service development programmes

(i) The Principal
The principal stated that he is generally not consulted about the in-service development programmes offered by the WCED. He also added that the impact of in-service development
programmes could be greater if teachers and principals are consulted. A simple questionnaire whereby the needs of the school could be listed would greatly contribute to the consultation process. He also added that it would be useful too if a mechanism is used to encourage reflection on the implementation of in-service development programmes attended. In so doing teachers at schools would be given an opportunity to provide feedback of in-service development programmes relevant to their needs.

(ii) The District Officer
The district officer pointed out that there are mechanisms in place and channels from the schools (like the IQMS) to the circuit team, to the district which feed through information about the needs at schools to the WCED.

4.2.2.1.5 Recommendations
The recommendations made by the principal centred on the lack of consultation for in-service development programmes. The principal recommended that it would be useful if teachers and principals are consulted about the nature of in-service development programmes needed at schools. The principal suggested that a questionnaire from the WCED to principals could assist with identifying what the needs of individual schools are. In addition, the principal stated that a feedback mechanism be instituted so that schools are able to report on the implementation of the ideas received from WCED teacher in-service development programmes. The final recommendation relating to this was: “Have a bosberaad (outdoor meeting) and decide there.”

The district officer stated that there is room for improvement for the system that is presently being used. In terms of future prospects, the district officer once again mentioned that recommendations have come forth from the TDS. One of it is the amalgamation of Workplace Skills Plan (WSP) and teacher development. The TDS report (ELRC, 2009) cites this as a recommendation stating that in so doing, training would be streamlined and aligned.

4.2.2.2 Interview with the Social Worker
4.2.2.2.1 Background information of Blue Waters
The history of the non-governmental organisation (NGO) where the social worker is based provides useful information of the history of the area as told by the social worker. The NGO was
originally established in response to the forced removal strategy of Apartheid, legislated through the Group Areas Act of 1965. This NGO, initially under the auspices of a welfare society, provided crèche facilities for children from the informal settlement on the outskirts of Blue Waters before the establishment of the township. However, a shift occurred when pressures arose from previously privileged white inhabitants close to where the crèche facilities were offered, subsequently leading to a clamp down of this facility in the area. This led to this facility being re-located under the auspices of a church-based organisation. Its work then spread out to other areas where informal settlements existed, and activities then provided services that were more than just child-care.

In addition, this church-based organisation also increasingly presented political resistance against Apartheid, in the form of screen-printing of anti-apartheid slogans and printing of anti-apartheid literature. Meanwhile the Blue Waters township was being established - low-cost housing for people who were forced out of areas then declared for whites only. Other residents of this new area included people who previously lived in the informal settlement surrounding Blue Waters. Post '94 the NGO entered the development terrain for the residents of this area. One of its main thrusts of development is in the form of an advice office, where residents of the area can consult with the social worker and other staff on various matters affecting them.

4.2.2.2 Socio-economic factors
Through its work within the community and from the information provided by the social worker, it is evident that there is a high rate of incidence of violence and family violence; there is a high rate of unemployment; there are many learner dropouts; and there is a high demand for assistance with the application of social grants, housing, and other requests for finance - the majority of requests being directly related to poverty.

The social worker also added that learners who attend schools out of the area are told by teachers that they are useless because they come from Blue Waters. There are no support structures for these learners at schools. Support offered by the WCED is minimal and for every social worker there are 5000 learners. The social worker felt that learners are not assessed appropriately and fairly in schools. In addition, learners are forced out of mainstream schools. Through policies of
absenteeism, learners are kicked out of the schools in the area into Schools of Skills. Although the intentions of Schools of Skills are noble, they do not provide stability for these learners as there are reports that learners habitually smoke *dagga* (cannabis) on school premises.

4.3 REVIEW OF DoE AND DBE POLICY
To assist with further understanding of teacher development, relevant policy documents have been analysed in relation to the questions investigated by the research. This section captures the essence of these documents and provides extra insight into DoE and the DBE expectations from teachers as well as the teacher development initiatives from DoE and the DBE. To gather information that is relevant for this research, two questions were asked when reviewing these documents: (i) what are the expected competencies of teachers as required by DoE and DBE policies, specifically in relation to the holistic development of learners?; and (ii) what are the key components within DoE and DBE frameworks for teacher in-service development that pertain to learner-centred teaching?


4.3.1 Expected competencies of teachers for the holistic development of learners
The Norms and Standards for Teachers (DoE, 1998), sets out the applied competencies of teachers. In essence, these outcomes serve as benchmarks for defining applied competence of teachers by which the standards of teachers’ performance (divided into seven categories of performance) can be measured against. A competent teacher is thus able to deliver evidence of performance that match the requirements as set out in this document.

This document clearly states that a fully competent teacher is able to “mediate learning in a manner which is sensitive to the diverse needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning”. Furthermore, fully competent teachers should be able to select sequence and pace learning while being sensitive to the differing needs of the subject/learning as well as the
differing needs of learners. In addition to this, teachers should develop a supportive and empowering environment to individual learners while responding to the educational needs of other learners as well. Teachers should also know about different approaches to learning and be able to use these approaches to suit individual learner needs and contexts.

Clearly from the above, competent teachers must be able to demonstrate competence in learner-centred teaching. This expectation is further emphasised in the National Curriculum Statements Grades R-12 (DBE, 2011). In this document the knowledge skills and values that learners acquire in classrooms should be meaningful for their lives, for local contexts, as well as global contexts. It also emphasises that learners of all socio-economic backgrounds and races should be able to develop their ability so that they are self-fulfilled and can take up meaningful citizenship in South Africa. It further argues for redress of imbalances so that there are equal opportunities for all learners while displaying sensitivity to issues like poverty and inequality.

4.3.2 DoE and DBE policy intentions for in-service teacher development

The National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa seeks to provide an overall strategy for successful professional development of teachers so that the social and economic needs of South Africa are met. Though the expected competencies of teachers are acknowledged, it emphasises that minimal levels of learner achievement are attributed to teachers’ poor conceptual and content knowledge. This document further mentions that (only) some teachers need to develop specialist skills in areas like diversity management, classroom management and discipline.

The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 emphasises that teacher development ought to contribute to the improvement in quality of learner achievement; focus on the needs of schools; and add to the development of the entire education system. It should specifically be focused on classroom teaching of a specific subject. It is envisaged that distinct roles, responsibilities and ground-breaking, collaborative relationships among key role-players are defined for the improvement of teacher development; that there is a reduction in the overload of policy prescriptions and regulations; and that
provision is made for equal, sufficient and efficient allocation of funds and other resources to assist all teachers to master teaching.

For these purposes four working groups were established, each focusing on specific areas:

- **Working Group 1**: issues relating to institutional arrangements so as to ensure that support is accessible to all teachers;
- **Working Group 2**: needs and programmes within a clear, coherent policy and regulatory environment for teacher appraisal and teacher development, which includes the streamlining and improvement of the IQMS;
- **Working Group 3**: support structures declaring that the DoE and Provincial Education Departments (PEDs) will develop coherent, cooperative and streamlined structures and credible capacity for teacher development and support within a national framework; and lastly,
- **Working Group 4**: budgetary resources for teacher development (including the Skills Development Levies) and how they are currently used will be identified by the DoE (DoE, 2010: 6).

The following principles for teacher development were also highlighted:

- Teacher development should improve the quality of learner achievement, address the needs of schools and entire education system;
- Activities and the identification of teachers’ needs should be nationally co-ordinated, focused, streamlined and simplified,
- Activities should be of high quality, relevant and accessible to all, and should provide opportunities for participants to demonstrate what they have learned (DoE, 2010:76). It however views inclusive education as an extended role and states that the knowledge and competence of inclusive education, with other extended roles like management and leadership, will be through teacher development be assessed later.

Figure 6 illustrates the key, relevant points for the purposes of this study.
Teachers should use various curriculum differentiation strategies such as those included in Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres. To address barriers in the classroom, structures within the school community, including Support Teams, Institutional-Based Support Teams, Institutional Support Teams, District-Based Support Teams, District-Based Support Teams, and the context.

The key to managing inclusivity is ensuring that barriers are identified and addressed by all the relevant support structures within the school community, including teachers, District-Based Support Teams, Institutional-Level Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres. To address barriers in the classroom, teachers should use various curriculum differentiation strategies such as those included in the Department of Basic Education’s Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (2010).
4.4 DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS
This section discusses the findings of the study.

4.4.1 DoE policy underpinning in-service development - dual purpose
Kwenda, and Robinson (2010: 98) state that globally there is an interest in teacher education as a strategy for national development and emphasise that teachers are the key influence behind educational provision and central to achieving high standards of learner achievement. Thus, a substantial investment is needed in teachers. Similarly, Kanjee, Sayed, and Rodriguez (2010: 94) emphasise that teacher professional development is pivotal to education reform.

Gauging from the initiatives in place for in-service teachers, it is evident that the DoE views ongoing development for teachers as important. This is further illustrated by relevant DoE policies which emphasise the importance of, and guide continued professional development or in-service development for teachers.

The National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa (DoE, 2006) emphasises the successful development of teachers to meet the social and economic needs of the country, while the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (DoE, 2011), essentially a framework for the ongoing development of teachers over time, has as its central aim the enhancement of the quality of teacher education and development so that the quality of teachers and teaching can improve.

Discussions at the TDS in 2009 indicate that policies related to teacher development are fragmented, exacerbated by poor communication and weak monitoring. Communication aimed at policy implementation is not successful throughout all provinces, and provincial circulars often contradict policies and collective agreements. In addition, the provision by DoE of instruments not agreed upon was highlighted. Policies were also reported to have been formulated without an outline of how they relate to each other. The ensuing duplication imposes an extra load on teachers and also results in contradictory circumstances like the concessions for poorer schools not to levy fees, contributing to the lack of availability of school funds for teacher development (DoE, 2011).
Thus, teacher development towards effective teaching and learning of poor learners, who experience a range of learning barriers, and reflected in the findings of this study, is referred to peripherally and as an extended role that could happen in the future.

Teachers in this study have reported that often they are familiar with the in-service development programmes offered to them, and in-service development programmes have also been described by teachers as “re-inventing the wheel”. The resultant duplication of in-service development programmes indicates that mechanisms and procedures in place are not effective. Furthermore, in-service development programmes offered by the district to teachers are diluted and do not adequately reflect their needs in respect to the challenges they experience in the classrooms. This indicates impediments experienced in the filtering down from DoE policies to mechanisms like the IQMS, which is intended to identify the needs of teachers so that relevant in-service programmes, which match the needs of teachers, are provided by the districts. Teachers have however reported that in-service development programmes do not adequately match their needs.

This coincides with the key points from discussions at the TDS which highlighted that policy related to teacher development is fragmented; the implementation of policy is not successful throughout all provinces; provincial circulars contradict policies and collective agreements; and policies have been developed without an overview of how they interrelate, leading to duplication.

Another key factor emerging from discussions at the TDS is that districts do not have the will or the capacity to support schools. Deacon (2010) sheds light on this matter by stating that the greatest proportion of funds available is controlled by the nine provincial governments. Provinces are required to use 1% of their human resources budget to develop the skills of their employees, which includes teachers. Utilisation of these funds varies across provinces; funds are seldom optimally used; and funds are sometimes set aside for purposes other than education (Deacon, 2010: 40). In addition, reporting and monitoring mechanisms for actual spending on teacher development is weak. Similarly, more detailed information requested from national to provincial often take a long time to compile and is often incomplete (Deacon, 2010: 40).
DoE curriculum policy guiding teaching and learning presently are explicitly expressed in the National Curriculum Statements Grades (NCS) R-12 (DBE, 2011). This curriculum guide stipulates policy on curriculum and assessment, and contains Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for each approved school subject. Its central aim is for learners to acquire and apply the knowledge and skills that are meaningful for their lives, while due consideration is given to global needs. Furthermore, through this curriculum it is endeavoured that learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, physical ability or intellectual ability, are equipped with the knowledge, skills and values for self-fulfilment and meaningful participation in society. Based on the principles of social transformation, it aims to ensure that previous educational imbalances are addressed, and that there are equal educational opportunities for all. Simultaneously, it emphasises the need for sensitivity to issues like poverty, inequality and language.

Thus, it could be said that the aims of NCS are two-fold. The first is to educate learners so that they can be productive and are able to contribute meaningfully to the South African economy which would assist with economic demands globally as well. Secondly, the NCS emphasises that for the purposes of social transformation, learners’ needs are taken into account, so that they are able to optimally develop their potential. Badat, (2009) points out that education and development as reflected in the NCS presents two challenges: education for the achievement of equality (educational and social transformation); and, education for the promotion of economic growth. To reduce education to a purpose of preparing learners for the labour market and economy only thus strips it of its wider social value and functions (Badat, 2009).

Badat (2009:5) further argues that it can be described that there is a “thin” conception of development or a “thick” conception of development. In order to attain the educational and social transformational goals as stipulated in DoE curriculum policy like the NCS, a “thick” conception of development needs to be adopted so that the historical and structural economic and social legacies of the past can be eliminated. In so doing the erosion and redress of inequalities and wealth can be set in motion. This presents teachers, especially in impoverished areas, with a daunting task: Firstly, the throughput of learners is of outmost priority. Secondly, while teachers are responsible for the successful achievement of outcomes by learners, the challenges within the
surrounding communities impact on the learning and teaching which hamper learner success for meaningful participation in the economy.

The Norms and Standards for Teachers (DoE, 1998) describes the standards of applied competences that teachers are expected to demonstrate in order to be deemed competent. Thus, teachers, for example, are expected to mediate learning whilst being sensitive to the varied needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning.

A central purpose of White Paper 6 of 2001 (DoE, 2001a) was the establishment of an inclusive education and training system for all which would ensure that learners are able to pursue their learning potential to the maximum. Specifically, learners who experience barriers to learning which are primarily responsible for learners’ learning, emotional and behavioural problems at schools (Adelman & Taylor, 1994) is emphasised. One of these barriers to learning (which impedes learning) is socio-economic deprivation (DoE, 2001a). More specifically, these barriers in impoverished communities include poverty, unemployment, dysfunctional families, lack of parental support, violence, crime (Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001: 311) peers who influence negatively, and lack of home involvement (Adelman & Taylor, 1994).

However, are teachers adequately able to deal with these so that learners can reach their learning potential as emphasised in White Paper 6 of 2001? More specifically as investigated by this research: (i) do the district offices of the WCED and the national DBE offer relevant and meaningful teacher development support towards a learner-centred approach, and (ii) do teacher development programmes by the WCED and DBE provide guidance with regard to the context of learners and the context of teachers?

It is against this backdrop that the findings of this research are further discussed. By illustrating the above, the likelihood that engagement with some deeper issues surrounding the challenges within education, (especially challenges presented by learners from impoverished areas), are best facilitated. Moreover, the necessity for in-service development for teachers which sufficiently assists with the dual purpose of education for economic growth, while simultaneously equipping
teachers with the tools to provide learner centred teaching in impoverished areas are best emphasised.

4.4.2 Challenges experienced by teachers in the classrooms

The results from the questionnaire indicated that teachers experienced a range of challenges in the classrooms. Discipline was cited by the majority of teachers as being a challenge in the classroom. This was followed by literacy which was cited as the second highest challenge, while poverty, lack of parent involvement, and learners’ cognitive difficulties were experienced as challenges for a smaller, equal proportion of teachers. Other challenges experienced by teachers were learners not doing homework; gangsterism; learners’ emotional problems or low self-esteem; drugs and substance abuse; and lastly, challenges with numeracy.

Findings from research conducted by Wadesango, Chabaya, Rembe, and Muhuro (2011) indicate that the behaviour problems among learners are caused by the effects of poverty in the family. This is echoed by Mouton, Louw and Strydom (2013) who state that learners in poverty stricken areas have outbursts of aggression in response to small triggers. Similarly, low levels of literacy, (Spreen & Vally, 2010), lack of parent involvement (Wadesango, et.al., 2011; Mouton, et al., 2013), exposure to drugs (Mouton, et al., 2013) and alcohol (Wadesango, et.al., 2011), gangsterism (Mouton, et al., 2013) cognitive difficulties (Mouton, et al., 2013), all side effects of poverty, interrelate with each other.

4.4.2.1 Poverty

Teachers described how poverty directly impacted on classroom teaching and learning. This is corroborated by Lomofsky and Lazarus (2001) who state that poverty is one of the barriers to learning. Learners’ lack of concentration span due to coming to school hungry; learner’s lack of pens, uniform and food; lack of textbooks and learning aids; and overcrowded classes are all factors mentioned by teachers which impact on teaching and learning. Mok (2010) also points out that the effects of poverty are of serious concern, as it contributes to the failure of learners’ needs being met, leading to an increase in the number of dropouts. The high prevalence of poverty and its effects was confirmed by the social worker who pointed out that the majority of requests for assistance at the advice office were related to poverty. Foremost were requests for
assistance with the application of social grants and housing, as well as direct requests for financial assistance.

WCED support for poor learners and the related challenges that accompany poverty are offered in the form of learner support units, conferences and feeding schemes at schools. The onus however rests with the principal to make use of the learner support units. There is acknowledgement from the district officer that accessing the learner support units involves a long wait as one psychologist has to serve many learners. The principal added that the procedure for assistance from learner support is time consuming. The financial constraints within the budget of the WCED meant that the limited amount of psychologists have to consult with an unlimited amount of learners. Thus, when learners need interventions there is a long wait for their problems to get attention from the psychologists. Meanwhile initiatives like the Safer Schools Project, which provide security and fencing for schools, as well as feeding schemes which provide a meal for poor learners, are in place at the school. Thus, the principal is constantly engaged with learners’ challenges that are poverty related. These include behavioural problems. The correlation between poverty and behavioural challenges coincides with the views of Mouton, et al., (2013) who state that poverty is coupled with the lack of discipline from learners, and violence in schools.

4.4.2.2 Behavioural challenges

The results indicate a range of behavioural challenges presented in class by the learners. These include disrespect towards teachers; learners who disrupt classroom activities; and aggressive learners who fight. A reason presented for disruptive behaviour is learners’ inability to focus in class. Another reason cited was lack of seats for learners in large classes. In classes with fewer learners, teachers are able to communicate more directly with individual learners, address learners’ needs, and plan for more innovative practices (Milner, 2013). Overcrowded classes hamper teachers’ control and impact on creating conducive conditions for teaching and learning. The social worker too reported high incidents of violence and family violence. Drug and substance abuse were also listed as a challenge teachers are confronted with in the classroom. Findings of research conducted by Wadesango et.al., (2011) in an impoverished community indicate that children are exposed to drugs and alcohol by being allowed into taverns.
Furthermore Milner (2013) states that in impoverished communities, family members of learners, and even learners themselves, suffer from harmful addictions like drug and alcohol abuse. Gangsterism, which is also experienced as a challenge by teachers, is rife in Cape Town - the drug hub of the country as stated by MEC Dan Plato (Kretzmann, 2013). Children in Cape Town were growing up with family members and friends of the family belonging to gangs (Kretzmann, 2013).

4.4.2.3 Lack of parental involvement
Lack of parental involvement was cited as the third biggest challenge experienced by teachers. Parents’ lack of involvement and interest was named as a reason for learners coming to school late and learners not doing their homework. Mouton, et al., (2013) point out that unemployment correlates with parents’ low socio-economic status and poor parental involvement in schools and late coming is one of the effects. The study conducted by Wadesango, et al., (2011) indicates that in impoverished communities there is a high incidence of alcohol abuse among parents and family members, resulting in lack of parental guidance in some of the families. In these families there is a lack of appropriate role models, and a lack of communication with their children (Wadesango, et al., 2011). Families tend to be reliant on social grants as a source of income and there was no consistent working relation between the school and the community, only when problems arise (Wadesango, et al., 2011). This is echoed by Mouton, et al., (2013) who state that communities in poor areas do not take ownership of schools.

4.4.2.4 Learning challenges
Challenges with literacy and the inability of learners to focus academically were mentioned by a large proportion of the teachers. This coincides with findings of Mouton, et al., (2013) which indicate that learners in poverty-stricken areas tend to be in a state of constant survival, their brains activated and hyper-alert, making it difficult for learning to take place.

Teachers in this study also indicated that learners’ low literacy levels impacted on their ability to interpret instructions resulting from the lack of basic reading skills. Consequently, learners had difficulty comprehending what was expected of them and understanding content. In addition, learners also experienced a language barrier as most learners’ home language is Afrikaans.
Spreen and Vally (2010) point out that a culture of reading is lacking in most communities and learners battle to achieve confidence in writing.

Learning challenges are further exacerbated by learners’ short concentration span; poor work ethic, and lack of interest in academics as reported by teachers in this study. Thus, learners are unable to cope with the workload and are ill-prepared for the exams. It was reported that 80% of learners in a class attained below 50%. The social worker mentioned that there were many learner dropouts in the area who are unemployed. A small proportion of teachers experienced learners’ numeracy levels as a challenge.

The effects of poverty on learners are extreme and impact seriously on teaching and learning. Learners who are subjected to poverty are prone to experiencing physical, psychological, and/or emotional abuse (Milner, 2013). The results of this study reflect evidence of learners’ impaired physical, psychological and emotional conditions (resulting from poverty) and illustrate damaging effects on teaching and learning.

Challenges presented in classrooms in impoverished areas are complex, interrelated, and hamper learner achievement. As indicated by the results of this study, poverty, with the resultant behavioural challenges and lack of parent involvement, all filter through into serious learning challenges. Consequentially, these factors impact on learner throughput rates leaving the two-fold aims of education and development, that is, economic growth and social transformation, unmet.

4.4.3 In-service development programmes

The central questions of this research were:

i. Do district offices of the WCED and the national Department of Basic Education (DBE) offer relevant and meaningful teacher in-service development support towards a learner-centred approach?

ii. Do teacher in-service development programmes by the WCED and the DBE provide guidance with regard to the context of learners and the context of teachers?

iii. How can teacher in-service development programmes be enhanced so that teachers are effectively able to support the holistic development of learners?
This section firstly focuses on the first two questions above by discussing whether in-service development programmes are relevant for a learner-centred approach, based on the context of learners and teachers as discussed in the previous section. The third question is discussed at a later stage in this chapter when an introduction to a model for holistic in-service development programmes is proposed based some of the findings of this research, relevant literature, and key, relevant points from social cognitive learning theory, transformational learning theory and holistic learning theory.

The in-service development programmes offered by the WCED are mostly offered at the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI) based at the former Western Cape College of Cape Town in Bellville. Most of the in-service training is curriculum based. Results from this study indicate that for the past year most of the in-service training attended by teachers was for curriculum training for CAPS. This was pointed out by the teachers, the principal and the district officer.

**4.4.3.1 Relevance of in-service development for a learner-centred approach**

Teachers and the principal reported that the majority of in-service development programmes attended was training in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS). The percentage of training for mathematics was next, followed by training for HIV and AIDS awareness.

When comparing this to the results in the previous section, that is, the challenges presented by learners in impoverished schools, it is evident that there is a mismatch between the challenges presented by the learners and the support provided by in-service development. This indicates a serious lack of support and guidance for teachers in developing strategies for effective teaching and learning for poor learners. To illustrate, discipline was indicated by teachers as the biggest challenge, yet the percentage of in-service development for teachers to assist in dealing with the delinquent behaviour of learners rank at the lower end of the scale. Similarly, in-service development for literacy constituted the lower end of the scale, yet teachers cited literacy, as the second biggest challenge they are confronted with. More pertinently, training on inclusive teaching which essentially encompasses learner-centred teaching, constituted the least of in-service development programmes offered to teachers. These findings coincide with the views of
Spreen and Vally (2010) who state that teachers are still not trained to adequately assist all learners to be successful, and learner-centred practices have not been implemented. For example, professional development for teachers on building literacy skills still focuses on reading as phonics and recitation. Instead literacy and numeracy should be developed through engaging and inspiring learners with a special focus on bilingual learners. In addition, libraries are needed (Spreen & Vally, 2010).

Even though teachers in this study have indicated that in-service development programmes sometimes equip them to teach in a learner-centred manner and do assist them to teach effectively, they have also expressed some of the limitations of these programmes. These include: in-service development programmes are not applicable in full classes as classes are too overcrowded; in-service development programmes do not take the context into consideration; more resources are needed to implement the ideas; even though the quality of in-service development is sometimes of a good standard, it at times is information that they are familiar with; and, in-service development programmes do not address the real challenges that teachers are confronted with.

This gives credence to Spreen and Vally’s (2010) view who state that even if teachers are trained (limitedly though) to assist all learners, teachers revert to authoritarian teaching and even to corporal punishment. Spreen and Vally (2010) further add that the training does not confront the embedded assumptions in teachers and it does not present teachers with workable alternatives for the challenging contexts in class (Spreen & Vally, 2010).

Furthermore, Spreen and Vally (2010) argue that learner-centred education has been “imported” without taking into account structural factors like resources, poverty, classroom space, parental involvement and work pressures (Spreen & Vally, 2010). In fact training for teachers itself does not model learner-centred practice (Spreen & Vally, 2010). Deacon (2010: 25) adds that the quality of training programmes in terms of the practicality and the personnel involved needs to be enhanced as some of these are poorly managed, have been “battered” for the purpose of quick profits rather than for sustained improvement, and badly co-ordinated, inefficiently resourced and not sufficiently focused on the specific content knowledge and pedagogical techniques required by teachers. The IQMS, which is meant to simultaneously further teacher development
and keep teachers accountable, has been viewed with suspicion and resisted by teachers’ unions; and has also been viewed as time-consuming, imposing excessive paperwork on teachers.

4.4.3.2 Consultation processes for in-service development programmes
More than half of the teachers indicate that they were “sometimes”, “rarely” and “never” consulted about which in-service programmes would be suitable for their needs. This was echoed by the principal who stated that he was generally not consulted about which in-service would be applicable for the needs of the school, adding that the impact of these programmes would be greater if teachers and principals were consulted.

For the WCED, the selection process for in-service programmes entails decision making by the programme directors based on the information passed on from the circuit to the district. Through mechanisms like the IQMS and School Improvement Plans (SIPs) the needs of teachers are identified and are decided by program directors at the CTLI. As suggested by the district officer, a more detailed account of the TDS, specifically in relation to the IQMS, is useful.

4.4.3.3 The IQMS
The IQMS is a tool intended to assist in the evaluation of teachers to identify areas of development for teachers. The Teacher Development Summit in 2009, attended by 350 participants, many of them practicing teachers, focused on teacher development. The discussions at this summit provide valuable insight into the IQMS. Although the IQMS is thought to be effective in identifying areas of development for teachers, concerns about the IQMS and the processes involved were expressed.

Within the processes of the IQMS the possibility of differences in interpretations of the criteria is problematic. Discussions at the summit also pointed out that the implementation of the IQMS is not effective with many problems and inconsistencies. The implementation of the IQMS requires the submission of teachers’ needs in their Personal Growth Plans (PGPs). From PGPs the information is developed and collated into School Improvement Plans (SIPs). Although the concept of PGPs is good, it is considered to be unreliable because teachers experience difficulty in drafting these. Some participants felt that the implementation time was not sufficient and there is also lack of departmental development or support within schools. The process for IQMS is felt
to be arduous, personnel heavy, with excessive bureaucratic control. It was suggested that the amount of paperwork should be reduced. Co-ordination in systems and structures were problematic. For example, some schools have 400 schools in one district, with only one person managing the district; and, the Staff Development Team (SDT) is responsible for the IQMS arrangements, and responsible for professional development at schools (ELRC, 2009).

Participants at the summit further suggested that training is needed. It was also felt that SIPs are diluted moving through the processes from schools, to circuits, to districts, and then to provinces, resulting in inappropriate development. Furthermore, there is also a lack of co-ordination between district and provincial offices. Thus, development programmes do not reflect the needs reflected in PGPs or SIPs. It was perceived that officials do not clearly understand the developmental concerns, and the collation of needs is not a priority. Also districts do not have the will and capacity to provide support to schools. Although they visit schools, it is to monitor schools and not to provide support schools. Therefore, strengthening in the commitment, funding and support from districts is necessary.

Deacon (2010) claims that teacher development and support has been hindered by overlapping and duplicated functions. He further adds that provincial providers in the same province are hardly ever aware of activities, priorities and needs at district offices. This could offer an explanation why teachers in this study have pointed out that the in-service development is sometimes about what they already know. “Re-inventing the wheel” as described by the principal, encroaches on the time of teachers. This is coupled with the demands of new policy for curriculum, for which teachers are still being trained ten years after it was introduced, learner ill-discipline, overcrowded classrooms, insufficient parental participation and the IQMS (Deacon, reflect the understandings, social realities and needs of its key constituencies like teachers, and learners 2010: 25).

In summary, the findings reflect a general of pattern of blame amongst sectors: teachers are focused on deficiencies presented by the learners, the community, the environment, and the district offices; the principal points to deficiencies within the district and provincial offices; while the district officer is apportioning blame to the principal. Sadly this overshadows the real
issue of the importance of throughput of learners, or possible solutions to the challenges encountered.

A possible solution is offered by the following views of Spreen and Vally (2010) who state that if policy aims to effect change, the design and implementation of policy has to reflect the needs, understandings and social realities of its primary constituencies like teachers, and learners instead of powerful stakeholders and protected interest groups (p. 53). They further add that very little policy research studies have examined classroom or changes in teaching and learning based on teacher perceptions and the perspectives of learners.

4.5 TOWARDS HOLISTIC TEACHER IN-SERVICE DEVELOPMENT

The conceptual framework for this study, as discussed in chapter 2, is guided by the principles of holistic development for learners. Simultaneously, teacher learning within in-service development programmes also embody these principles. The findings of this study indicate that there is a need for teacher in-service development programmes which reflect the understandings, social realities and needs of its key stakeholders like teachers, and learners.

In response to these findings an introductory model for holistic teacher in-service development is proposed and diagrammatically represented (figure 7). This model is informed by relevant literature on conditions required for optimal learning; the findings of this study; and key points from social cognitive learning theory, transformational learning theory, and holistic learning theory. In addition, the implications of holistic teacher in-service development for both macro- and micro-level intervention are at times pointed out.

4.5.1 Conditions for optimal learning

As discussed in chapter 2, certain conditions are prerequisites for optimal learning to take place. The findings of this study however indicate that even though DoE policy has as its central aim the opportunity for all learners to develop their full potential, these conditions for optimal learning are mostly absent. Against the backdrop of some of the findings, some of the conditions for optimal learning are discussed.

4.5.1.1 Learners’ needs are at the centre of teaching and learning

The findings indicate that in-service development programmes offered to teachers mostly do not cater for the needs of learners and teachers. For example, teachers indicated that in-service
programmes offered were mainly focused on training for CAPS. Another example is the lack of consultation about which programmes would suit their needs as indicated by the teachers as well as the principal. Pulist (2005) emphasises that one of the important conditions for optimal learning is that learners’ needs (and by implication teachers) are at the centre of teaching and learning.

4.5.1.2 Learning is relevant for context

A holistic approach requires that the needs of both teachers and learners are considered so that learning programmes are designed which are relevant for their contexts (Brown, 2003). Thus the consultation processes to identify the needs of teachers, like the IQMS, needs to be modified in order to maximise consultation processes between schools, districts, provinces and national spheres of the DoE.

4.5.1.3 Learners’ physiological, psychological, emotional needs are met

The findings indicate that there are learners in impoverished schools who come to school hungry, are disruptive and are not motivated to study. This is confirmed by Milner (2013) who states that learners who are subjected to poverty are prone to experiencing physical, psychological, and or emotional abuse. This presents teachers at these schools with numerous challenges. Poverty, a barrier to learning (Lomofsky & Lazarus, 2001) seriously impacts on teaching and learning. Mok (2010) further states that poverty leads to an increase in the drop-out rate of learners. Thus, the implications of poverty are not conducive for successful teaching and learning. This indicates a need for structural change that would ease the prevalence of poverty, so that learners are not hindered by it.

4.5.1.4 Learner-centred classrooms

For learners to be the centre of learning, it is necessary that classrooms are learner-centred for effective teaching and learning (Brown, 2003). Teachers have however indicated that full classrooms and lack of resources hamper learner-centred teaching and learning. In addition, teachers reported that even though some of the in-service programmes offered to them assist them to teach in a learner-centred manner, they are unable to implement these principles due to full classes and lack of resources. These impediments are particularly prevalent in impoverished schools, once again indicating a need for structural change that would decrease the rate of poverty experienced by most learners.
The conditions for optimal learning referred to above are briefly captured in figure 7 and positioned as a necessary background or foundation for effective holistic teacher in-service development.

4.5.2 Holistic teacher in-service development

Besides the need for conditions for optimal learning, the in-service programmes offered to teachers also require attention. Teachers have indicated that the in-service development programmes offered to them are mostly not relevant for their needs; are diluted and do not reflect their needs as indicated in the SIPs and filtered through to districts via the IQMS processes.

When considering suggestions for learning as posited by theorists like Bandura, Mezirow and Yang, it is apparent that these suggestions are useful when considering the design of and processes for holistic teacher in-service development programmes. Thus a holistic approach to teacher in-service development programmes ought to include these principles of learning for maximum effect so that all learners are provided with the opportunity to gain their full learning potential. These suggestions from social cognitive learning theory, transformational learning theory and holistic learning theory are captured in figure 7. Some of these suggestions are discussed below.

4.5.2.1 Active and participatory learning

Mezirow (2000), Lue (2004) and Yang (2004) emphasise that learning takes place through active participation. Thus in-service development programmes should actively engage teachers, through activity-based learning. Teachers should be given the opportunity to participate in the decision-making processes of in-service development programmes. While the IQMS processes are intended to involve teachers in the choice of in-service development programmes, findings of this study indicate that this is not always the case as the in-service development programmes offered to them often do not reflect their needs.

4.5.2.2 In-service development programmes are relevant for the contexts of learners and teachers

Bandura (1977), Mezirow (2000) and Yang (2004) contend that learning occurs through engagement with individuals’ environment. Thus, it is makes sense if in-service development programmes is focused on the contexts of learners and teachers.
4.5.2.3 In-service development programmes include an action-reflection-action component

4.5.2.4 In-depth exploration of learners’ contexts and influences
The behaviour of individuals is influenced by environment. In turn, individuals also have an influence over their environment (Bandura, 1977). In-depth exploration of learners’ contexts and the influences thereof could assist with an improvement in teaching and learning. An understanding of learners’ contexts could assist with teachers adapting learning programmes to accommodate the needs of individual learners.

4.5.2.5 In-depth exploration of personal beliefs, value judgments and attitudes
Mezirow (2000) and Yang (2004) assert that through in-depth exploration of personal beliefs, value judgments and attitudes, individuals are able to change their existing patterns of thinking to a more inclusive, open, emotionally capable of change and reflective so that more true or justified beliefs or opinions are produced (Mezirow, 2000: 9). This in-depth reflection for teachers would serve useful and possibly lead to the development of alternatives that will work for the challenging contexts in class. Spreen and Vally (2010) argue that due to lack of alternatives, teachers often revert to authoritarian teaching as the embedded assumptions in teachers are not confronted.

4.5.2.6 In-service development programmes model “good practice”
Spreen and Vally (2010) state that methods employed during training for teachers do not model learner-centred practice. According to Bandura (1977) individuals learn by observing behaviour. In-service development programmes for teachers should model effective teaching methods. This includes catering for different learning styles and assuring that programmes are pitched at appropriate developmental levels (Brown, 2003).

These points discussed above are included in figure 7.
Teacher in-service development

- active and participatory learning (Mezirow, 2000; Lue, 2004; Yang, 2004)
- reflective learners (Mezirow, 2000; Lue, 2004; Yang, 2004)
- instruction is developmentally appropriate (Brown, 2003)
- instruction addresses different learning styles (Brown, 2003)
- in-depth exploration of learners’ contexts and its influences (Bandura, 1977)
- in-built action-reflection-action component (Mezirow, 2000; Yang, 2004) to in-service programmes
- in-depth exploration of personal beliefs, value judgements and attitudes (Mezirow, 2000; Yang, 2004)
- in-service development programmes are relevant for the contexts of learners and teachers, incorporating exploration of their personal environments (Bandura, 1977; Mezirow, 2000; Yang, 2004)
- in-service programmes should model “good practice” so that teachers are able to learn through observation (Bandura, 1977)

Implications:
- macro-level
- micro-level
4.6 SUMMARY
This chapter has presented and discussed the findings of this study, which indicate that teachers at schools in impoverished areas are confronted with many challenges that are poverty related. While teachers are expected to be competent to address these challenges through learner-centred teaching so that the development is achieved for the economy as well as for social transformation, the in-service development programmes offered to teachers do not necessarily assist teachers to teach in a learner centred manner.

Even though mechanisms like the IQMS are in place so that the needs of teachers with regard to teaching and learning can be identified, teachers have expressed that the challenges they are confronted with in the classroom are not sufficiently addressed by in-service development programmes offered to them. Consequently, this impedes the achievement of the majority of learners in South Africa with far reaching consequences for the economic growth as well as for social transformation.

The next chapter concludes the study and provides some recommendations for further research and policy change.
CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION
In this concluding chapter a brief overview of the study is given, followed by a summary of the key findings. Lastly recommendations informed by the findings of the study are provided.

5.2. OVERVIEW OF STUDY
This study investigated in-service development programmes offered to teachers by the Department of Education (DoE), the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and the Western Cape Education Department (WCED). The key themes and concepts were explored in this study and are briefly mentioned below to assist with contextualising this summary chapter.

5.2.1 Sustained social and economic development
In Chapter 1 the rationale for focusing on in-service development programmes was explained by highlighting the importance of skills for the sustained social and economic development of South Africa. More specifically, this study focused on the role of in-service development in assisting with the sustained social and economic development of this country. The significance of Higher Education (HE) qualifications for employment opportunities, and the consequent potential for increase in earnings was further highlighted in chapter 1. This was illustrated by relevant statistics, and the views and findings of authors like Danziger and Ratner, (2010) who state that successful throughput of learners for access into HE and the achievement of a degree could significantly contribute to a reduction in unemployment and lead to an increase in earnings for South Africans.

5.2.2 Social transformation
Furthermore, chapters 1 and 2 highlighted that education post-1994 was transformative, and underpinned by White Paper 6 of 2001 which had as a central purpose the establishment of an inclusive education and training system for all, towards the achievement of equality and human rights for all (DoE, 2001a). Inherent in this policy is that all learners have the opportunity to pursue their learning potential to the maximum. This includes learners with barriers to learning
like socio-economic deprivation. Prinsloo (cited in Landsberg et al., 2011) emphasises that socio-economic factors like poverty, are daily realities of the South African education system. Furthermore, South Africans who live in poverty are prone to inadequate education, low wages, unemployment, malnutrition, conflict, violence, crime, and substance abuse, which all aggravate the cycle of poverty (Prinsloo cited in Landsberg et al., 2011), hampering education within schools. This commitment to an inclusive education and training system for all is reflected in the current DoE’s National Curriculum Statements (NCS) R-12, which guides teaching and learning by emphasising as its central aim learners’ acquisition and application of knowledge and skills which are meaningful for their lives and for global needs (DBE, 2011). Essentially this curriculum policy emphasises teaching and learning towards the holistic development of learners.

5.2.3 The effects of globalisation

While DoE educational policy emphasises social transformation and current curriculum policy. It also stresses the importance of learners to acquire and apply knowledge and skills meaningful for their lives, while due consideration is given to global needs. Consequently, globalisation post 1994 as discussed in chapter 2 influences educational policy. Mok (2010: 349) asserts that the resultant pressure on states to improve and maintain their competitiveness in the global market influences education reform. Free-market ideology like privatisation and marketisation is thus reflected in education. This is evident where the responsibility from the state is transferred to school governing bodies (SGBs) as stipulated in the South African Schools Act (DoE, 1996). The South African Schools Act (DoE, 1996) also makes provision for the right of enforcement of the payment of school fees by parents who are liable to pay (DoE, 1996).

Neo-liberal policies which advocate low-cost, semi-private schools, have reduced the role of the state in schools and the poverty stricken are over-represented in state run schools, negatively impacting on the ability of the poor to access quality education (Geetha & Zaka, 2010). This has increased the number of dropouts amongst this sector (Mok, 2010).

Macro-economic policy like GEAR has largely not benefitted the poor (May, 1998); has not produced sufficient growth; has failed to improve to improve income and wealth distribution,
leaving South Africa as one of the most unequal societies in the world (May, 1998; Woolard, 2002). These factors have serious implications for effective teaching and learning resulting from learners’ emotional and behavioural problems at schools, spin-offs of socio-economic deprivation (Adelman & Taylor, 1994).

5.2.4 The impact of poverty on education

As described in chapter 2, there has been an increase in inequality and poverty in the post-apartheid period arising from poverty traps (Adato, et al., 2006) which stem from the legacy of apartheid. The pattern of socio-economic polarisation during this period created inequality which hampered conventional paths of upward mobility. Thus, a large proportion of South African households have no access to wage income and for those who are employed, there is a wide divergence in wages earned (Woolard, 2002).

Learners in high-poverty schools are presented with enormous challenges in the classrooms which include the lack of study facilities; the lack of parental support, and inefficient language proficiency (Kamper, 2008). These schools are challenged by socio-economic factors like violence and crime, unemployment, and lack of meaningful support from education district offices.

5.2.4.1 A dualistic school system

Chapter 2 includes a focus on the dual system of education, race being the strongest differentiating factor between the “have” and the “have-nots” almost two decades after the political transition. Schools which served predominantly white learners are functional while schools which serve predominantly black learners are dysfunctional (Spaull, 2012: 3). Learners from historically black schools constitute 80% of enrolment (van der Berg, 2008) and these schools are characterised by acute underperformance, extreme grade repetition rates, excessive dropout rates, and high teacher absenteeism (Spaull, 2012: 3). Spaull, (2012: 3) further emphasises that 90% of the South African poor are black; and are subjected to a far more inferior quality of education than the more affluent. This then gives rise to a tension: education and training as a vehicle for increased productivity and competitiveness of the South African
economy, while theoretically providing support for redress of historical imbalances (Vally, 2007: 49).

5.2.5 Challenges for teacher development
As mentioned in Chapter 1, teachers are increasingly expected to deal with learners from poor socio-economic conditions. The notions of inclusion towards the holistic development of learners as reflected in DoE policy, entails that teachers identify learners’ barriers to learning like poverty. In addition, teachers are responsible for successful throughput of learners for access into HE to ensure meaningful employment and the sustained social and economic development of South Africa. This is a tension-filled and challenging situation for teachers, making it imperative for relevant support for teachers.

South African teachers have been afforded extensive development opportunities. However figures for learner achievement reflect that these opportunities have limited impact. Even though the national pass rate of the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination has steadily increased these past years (Stats SA, 2011) it does not necessarily reflect success or improvement in the number of learners who have access into HE. This contributes to the concern over the future sustained social and economic development of South Africa. Specifically within the sphere of education, the role of effective and relevant in-service teacher development towards the successful throughput of learners into HE, necessitated further investigation.

5.3 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS
In-service development programmes offered by the DoE, the DBE and the WCED are guided by policies for teacher development. These policies highlight the importance of in-service development for the learners as well as for the economic growth of South Africa. The policies also point out that the learning potential of all learners should be met, irrespective of the barriers to learning experienced by learners, specifically in impoverished schools. The summary of the key findings of this study are categorised as: DoE policy guiding teaching and learning and in-service development; challenges in the classroom; and, in-service development programmes offered to teachers
5.3.1 DoE policy guiding teaching and learning and in-service development
Teacher education, a strategy for national development (Kwenda & Robinson, 2010), assists with educational provision and is central to achieving high standards of learner achievement. It is clear that DoE policy pertaining to development for teachers emphasises the need for the ongoing development of educators. As specified in the National Policy Framework for Teacher Development in South Africa (DoE, 2006) and the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (DoE, 2011), development for teachers is essential for meeting the social and economic needs of South Africa.

However discussions from the TDS in 2009 indicate that policy related to teacher development is fragmented due to poor communication and weak monitoring. Furthermore, communication aimed at policy implementation is not successful throughout all provinces, and provincial circulars often contradict policies and collective agreements. Policies have been developed without an outline of how they inter-relate, leading to duplication (DoE, 2012). Thus teachers in this study reported that often they are familiar with the in-service programmes offered to them. Similarly in-service development programmes have been described as “re-inventing the wheel”.

Curriculum policy which is reflected in the National Curriculum Statement Grades (NCS) R-12 emphasises the need for learners to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for their own needs as well as for global needs. Thus DoE policy reiterates the importance of the acquisition of knowledge and skills for individuals in South African society and acknowledges the value of knowledge and skills for the sustained social and economic development of South Africa within the global terrain. Simultaneously, the NCS stresses that all learners irrespective of their socio-economic background, physical ability or intellectual ability are included. It also emphasises that equal opportunities must be provided for all, and that imbalances of the past should be redressed.

The Norms and Standards for Teachers of 2000 (DoE, 2001), sets out applied competences for teachers. For example, teachers are expected to mediate learning while being sensitive to the varied needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning.
5.3.1.1 Implications for teaching, learning and in-service development

The dual purposes of DoE policies relevant for teacher development have implications for teaching, learning and in-service development programmes. Two threads that can be identified within the above policies are: education for the achievement of equality, and, education for the promotion of economic growth (Badat, 2009). If education is reduced to preparing learners for the labour market and the economy only, the wider social value and functions of education are being ignored (Badat, 2009).

While teachers are responsible for the successful achievement of learners, the challenges within the surrounding communities of the vast majority of learners impact on teaching and learning. Consequently learner success for meaningful participation in the economy is hampered.

5.3.2 Challenges in the classroom

The findings from this study indicated that teachers experience a range of challenges in the classrooms. These challenges include behavioural problems, literacy, poverty and lack of parental involvement. Findings from other research indicate that the behavioural problems, aggression, low levels of literacy, lack of parental involvement, exposure to drugs and alcohol, gangsterism and cognitive difficulties, are side effects of poverty and interrelate with each other (Wadesango, et al., 2011; Mouton, et al., 2013).

Teachers reported that poverty impacted on classroom learning and teaching. Learners lack concentration span, learners do not have pens, writing books, uniforms, food, textbooks and there is a lack of learning aids. The high prevalence of poverty in the community was also emphasised by the social worker.

A range of behavioural challenges were experienced in the classrooms by teachers. This includes disrespect towards teachers, and disruptive, aggressive learners. Teachers cited the lack of seating for learners in large classes as a reason for disruption. The social worker also reported high incidents of violence and family violence in the community. A small proportion of teachers also indicated that they are confronted with drug and alcohol abuse in the classrooms.
The lack of parental involvement was also experienced as a challenge by teachers. Teachers stated that lack of parental involvement contributed to learners coming to school late and learners not doing their homework.

Learners’ lack of basic reading skills also impacts on their ability to interpret instructions. This was further exacerbated by learners’ short concentration span; poor work ethic, and lack of interest in academics. Learners are thus not able to cope with the workload and are ill-prepared for the exams.

5.3.2.1. Implications for teaching, learning and in-service development

The principles of inclusion are reflected in DoE policies like the Norms and Standards for Teachers (DoE, 1998), the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (DoE, 2011) and the NCS (DBE, 2011). For teachers of schools like the two in this case study, being confronted with the challenges as described in this study presents huge challenges.

According to The Norms and Standards for Teachers (DoE, 1998) teachers have a responsibility to assist all learners to learn, irrespective of learners’ socio-economic, physical or mental dispositions. Teachers have the responsibility of mediating learning while being sensitive to the varied needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning. Thus teachers have the responsibility of adapting their teaching to assist learners who come to school hungry, who do not have pens or textbooks, who are disruptive and disrespectful, who do not have competent reading skills, and whose parents are not involved in the activities of the school. Similarly the NCS emphasises the development of knowledge and skills for the needs of learners as well as for global needs. The NCS also stresses that all learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, physical ability or intellectual ability are included. The DoE in their endeavour and commitment to teacher development as specified in the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development thus has a responsibility to effectively support teachers and offer them guidance and tools to be able to effectively teach learners who experience the above barriers to learning.
WCED support for poor learners, as reported by the principal interviewed, and the related challenges that accompany poverty are offered in the form of learner support units, conferences and feeding schemes in schools. The district officer has however clearly stated that the onus rests on the principal to make use of the learner support units. The principal asserts that even though assistance can be sought from these learner support units, the waiting lists are long, as the number of school psychologists is just too small for all the requests from learners who need intervention. The district officer acknowledged that accessing the learner support units involves a long wait as one psychologist has to serve many learners. The reason given by both the principal and the district officer for the limited assistance available was the lack of finance, due to budgetary constraints within the WCED.

Poverty impacts seriously on teaching and learning and the challenges presented in classrooms in impoverished areas are complex, interrelated and hamper learner achievement. In-service development programmes for teachers, a prerequisite according to DoE policy, thus need to provide teachers with relevant tools so that they are effectively able to provide a learning environment that accommodates the needs of all learners. However, the findings of this study indicate that the challenges as presented by learners do not form the focal point of in-service development programmes offered to teachers. This is discussed in more detail in the next section.

5.3.3 In-service development programmes offered to teachers
5.3.3.1 The challenges presented versus the support provided

The challenges presented by learners in impoverished schools hamper effective teaching and learning. Results from this study indicate however that for the past year most of the in-service programmes attended by teachers were for curriculum training for CAPS. When comparing this to the results in the previous section, that is, the challenges presented by learners in impoverished schools, it is evident that there is a mismatch between the challenges presented by the learners and the support provided by in-service development. This indicates a serious lack of support and guidance for teachers in developing strategies for effective teaching and learning of poor learners.
5.3.3.2 Limitations of in-service development programmes

While teachers have indicated that in-service development programmes do at times equip them to teach so that learners’ needs are taken into account, teachers have also expressed the limitations of these programmes. These limitations include: the reality of full, overcrowded classes limits the practical application of the skills learnt during in-service programmes, context is often ignored; lack of resources hamper the implementation of the ideas; the content of in-service programmes are sometimes already familiar to teachers; and the real issues teachers are confronted with are not addressed.

These limitations have negative consequences for inclusive teaching and learning as specified in DoE policy. The views expressed by teachers indicate that putting the learners’ needs at the core of the teaching and learning process is challenging in full, overcrowded classes where there is a lack of resources, so that the challenges in the classrooms are left unattended. The development offered to teachers does not present them with alternatives that will work for the challenging contexts in class. Thus, teachers revert to corporal punishment and authoritarian teaching, as the embedded assumptions in teachers are not confronted (Spreen & Vally, 2010).

5.3.3.3 Consultation processes for in-service programmes

Decisions about which in-service development programmes are relevant for the needs of schools do not rest with the principal or teachers of a specific school. More than half of the teachers indicated that very seldom to never are they consulted about which in-service development programmes would be suitable for their needs. Similarly the principal also indicated that generally he was not consulted about in-service development programmes suitable for the needs of the school. Instead, as indicated by the district officer, the needs of teachers are identified from the IQMS and the School Improvement Plans (SIP). Information about the teachers’ needs are passed on from the school, to the circuit and then to the district. Based on these, in-service development programmes are then decided on by program directors at the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI). Consequently, information from the SIPs are often diluted as they move through from schools, to circuits, to districts, and then to provinces, resulting in inappropriate development (DoE, 2010).
The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (DoE, 2011) indicates that the implementation of the IQMS requires the submission of teachers’ needs in their Personal Growth Plans (PGPs). From PGPs the information is developed and collated into School Improvement Plans (SIPs). The Teacher Development Summit (TDS) in 2009 provides further insight into teacher development, specifically in relation to the IQMS.

Although the IQMS is effective in identifying areas of development for teachers, participants at the summit have identified some concerns surrounding the IQMS (DoE, 2010). In addition to inappropriate development arising from SIPs being diluted as they move through from schools, to circuits, to districts, and then to provinces, other concerns raised include: the implementation of the IQMS is not effective; the IQMS has many problems and inconsistencies; the concept of PGPs is good, however it is unreliable because teachers do not know how to draft them; the implementation time was not sufficient and there is also lack of departmental development or support within schools; the process for IQMS is time-consuming, personnel heavy with too much bureaucratic control; the amount of paperwork should be reduced; co-ordination in systems and structures are problematic; and, SIPs are diluted as they move through from schools, to circuits, to districts, and then to provinces, resulting in inappropriate development. Furthermore the participants indicated that there is a lack of co-ordination between district and provincial offices. Thus development programmes for teachers do not reflect the initial needs of the teachers (DoE, 2010).

Participants at the summit also stated that departmental officials do not clearly understand the developmental issues and that there is no prioritisation in the collation of needs. Also districts lack the commitment and capacity to support schools. Although they visit schools, it is to monitor schools and not to provide support to schools (DoE, 2010).

The discussions at the summit provide clear explanation for the views of the principal and the teachers who state that in essence they are not consulted about the in-service programmes offered by the WCED. The mechanism used to identify teachers’ needs (the IQMS) at school level is not necessarily effective as it is a complex, time-consuming process, and the contents of SIPs are
often diluted by the time it reaches district and provincial level. This results in overlapping, duplication (Deacon, 2010), and “re-inventing the wheel” leaving the initial needs of teachers at schools in impoverished areas unmet. This has far reaching consequences for teaching and learning as teachers do not receive the much needed support and guidance to effectively teach “inclusively” so that all learners’ needs are met and they are able to reach their potential towards successful throughput and access into HE. Thus, the intentions of redress and social transformation, as well as economic growth as expressed in relevant policy are not achieved.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
Acknowledgement of the limitations of this study is necessary and useful as it informs future related research and it lends a measure of credibility to this study. These limitations follow below.

This case study used a purposive sampling technique, as it was convenient for the researcher to access schools in the chosen metropole. Lack of financial resources confined the researcher to the metropole that was most convenient to access and to the schools in the area closest to where the researcher lives. In addition, the researcher’s experience as a teacher in schools within the chosen metropole, with similar socio-economic challenges as the two schools in this study, provided the interest to further explore in-service development programmes. This was motivated by the researcher’s personal experiences of the in-service development programmes offered to teachers with learners who presented similar challenges, as described in this study. This bias was of particular concern for the researcher. The mixed method approach incorporated both quantitative and qualitative data collected methods, which afforded the researcher the opportunity to check and confirm data and thus limit potential bias. In addition, through the use of questionnaires it was more possible to elicit data quantitatively, in a more objective manner.

For this study 26 out of 55 teachers responded. Thus, the findings from these questionnaires do not necessarily reflect the views and experiences, like poverty, learning and behavioural challenges, and lack of parental involvement, of all teachers in impoverished schools in the Western Cape or in South Africa.
The scope of this study was limited due to financial constraints. Teacher development is a vast area of study as it encompasses the effects of socio-economic deprivation and other relevant factors on teaching and learning. This study however limited the extent of exploration to what was possible in terms of time and resources. While there are limitations to the study, the findings are worth noting and further research, building on this research, is proposed.

The categories discussed in the summary earlier in this chapter are: DoE policy guiding teaching, learning and in-service development; challenges in the classroom; and, in-service development programmes offered to educators. The recommendations presented are synergised across these categories.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations which follow stem from insights gained within the categories of the key findings of this study, as well as relevant and pertinent insights drawn from the literature.

The importance of ongoing development for teachers is reflected in DoE policies. Similarly, current curriculum policy indicates noble intentions of social and economic transformation and economic growth so that South Africa is able to compete globally. Simultaneously the curriculum policy emphasises that equal opportunities be provided for all learners to succeed. Success enables access into HE, so that the rate of unemployment is eased and that individuals’ earning potentials is increased. However, it is evident from the findings of this study, as well as from the literature, that policies pertaining to teaching, learning and teacher education (more specifically in-service development) do not always translate into effective practice. This is an indication that adaptations and changes are needed within the educational sphere, at the level of national DoE policies which then filter through to provincial and district levels. Recommendations thus encompass a focus on the following factors: the DoE’s commitment to social and economic transformation for all individuals and economic growth, so that South Africa is able to compete globally; the duplication of in-service development programmes; the dilution of teacher needs as reflected in the IQMS procedures at school level to that which is reflected in in-service development programmes provided by districts; and finally, the
subsequent mismatch between teachers’ needs and the provision of in-service development programmes.

Badat (2009: 8) states that education is the object of ideological and political contestation between different forces, giving it diverse and paradoxical functions. Thus the role of education is bound to be contradictory: preserving and reproducing elements of cultural, social and economic relations and practices, while possibly eroding and changing other aspects of these relations and practices. This is evident in the aims of education as contained in DoE policy. While it intends to redress the imbalances of the past, it simultaneously aims to focus on the economic growth of South Africa and the needs of the vast poor majority, especially poor learners are minimised.

It is clear from the findings of this study that the needs of teachers, specifically relating to the challenges of poor learners, are not supported efficiently within provincial education structures like the districts. To illustrate, with particular reference to in-service development, teachers have indicated that the in-service development programmes offered do not adequately equip them to effectively deal with the challenges they are presented with in the classrooms. This study has highlighted the high impact of poverty on teaching and learning. The effects of poverty are interrelated, ranging from behavioural problems, to learning challenges. Lack of parental support is also related to poverty, severely impacting on poor learners’ ability to develop to their maximum potential as endeavoured in DoE policies. This once again points to changes that need to be effected.

5.5.1 Recommendation 1: Systemic change

Systemic change encompassing an inter-locking range of adaptations, interventions and innovations toward a system that supports and contributes to the social, economic transformation of individuals as well as economic growth for South Africa is recommended.

Inequality, strongly based along the lines of race (May, 1998; Woolard, 2002), still exists in South African society almost twenty years after the new dispensation (de Kadt, 2010). DoE policies and subsequent education practices at all levels, while reflecting intentions to redress
through social transformation, are not able to contribute to achieving the intended social transformation on its own. Thus the much needed changes cannot only be confined to being the responsibility of educational reform. Instead broader societal change is needed so that structural inequalities are abated, and factors like poverty and the subsequent unequal resource distribution which includes lack of quality education, lack of textbooks, and lack of parental support are not able to impact on the provision of effective teaching and learning.

Educational reforms on its own have clearly not been able to ease the levels of inequality in South Africa. Education is the foundation of social development. Thus addressing the poor quality of teaching and the other challenges of teacher development must adopt an appropriate society-wide form (Deacon, 2010). Changes in teaching and learning, and effective teacher development toward successful learner achievement therefore necessitates a complex, interlocking range of adaptations, interventions and innovations toward a system that supports and contributes to the social, economic transformation of individuals as well as economic growth for South Africa to be able to compete globally.

Systemic change however is a multi-dimensional and complex process. Recommending it on its own is far too simplistic; and undervalues and undermines the value it holds for the improvement of the lives of the poor majority. Adato, et al., (2006: 245) assert that resolution of the problem of poverty alleviation require deeper structural changes that would ensure that markets work more effectively for the broader community of all South Africans. Thus an adaptation of current mechanisms and procedures, specifically in education, which best support the intentions of DoE policies, that is, social and economic transformation, and growth for individuals, as well as for the economic growth of South Africa within the global context, towards “…a number of interlocking, systemic and long-term initiatives…” (Badat, 2010: 10) is needed. However, for this to be possible it requires, inter alia: dispelling the notion that the education sphere is denied of the autonomy to effect internal changes due to constraints imposed by external, political, economic and social structures; dispelling the notion that all changes are possible and it is simply a matter of political will or lack of will; dispelling the notion that each and every desire and need can simultaneously and immediately be met, irrespective of available resources; accepting that learners and teachers should be at the centre of educational reform, and their knowledge and
resources should be drawn on so that they are in control of their own development (Badat, 2010: 11).

5.5.2 Recommendation 2: Monitoring and review of integration of DoE policy with DBE, provincial initiatives

It is recommended that monitoring and review processes for teacher development as set out within the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa be put in place.

The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 is a response to discussions at the TDS and a call from the Minister of Finance, Pravin Gordhan for a mechanism that offers better co-ordination and alignment between national policy imperatives and provincial budgets. This framework is an integrated plan for teacher education and development in South Africa and enhances the co-ordination and more efficient use of available funding (Deacon, 2010: 31).

Discussions at the TDS have highlighted a number of factors pertinent to this study. These include duplication of in-service development programmes; dilution of in-service development programmes, resulting in the needs of teachers not being met by these programmes offered to teachers; fragmented policy relating to teacher development; unsuccessful policy implementation across all provinces; and, lack of commitment or capacity of districts to support schools. In addition to this, in the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, teacher development for effective teaching and learning of poor learners is only referred to peripherally and as an extended role that could happen in the future.

Given that the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 is a long term framework spanning across more than twenty years it is imperative that teacher development, specifically in relation to support for teachers of poor learners, is periodically monitored and reviewed so that effective teaching and learning is possible.
Both recommendations above tie into the objectives of this study. The first recommendation relates to the challenges experienced by teachers, presented by learners in impoverished schools as per the findings of this study. This quest for a systemic change, implying that education on its own is not able to transform the current impoverished condition of the majority poor, acknowledges that it is a complex process. The working together of a number of inter-locking, systemic adaptations, changes and innovations in other spheres of state is a long-term process. Thus it requires an acknowledgement that the education sphere is able to effect necessary internal changes; all changes are not possible; every need and desire cannot immediately and simultaneously be met; and lastly, learners and teachers should be at the centre of educational reform (Badat, 2010).

DoE policy for teacher development however needs to be integrated, and it also needs to effectively filter through to provincial levels. The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 provides an integrated framework for teacher development. It is hoped that through this framework funding procedures for teacher development will be uniformed, and that reporting and monitoring mechanisms will be speedily complied so that effective teacher development for effective teaching learning is not duplicated or diluted, and that sufficient funds are available for relevant interventions. While the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 is clearly supported by declaration statements supportive of teacher development, reference to teacher support for teaching learners with barriers to learning like poverty is peripheral and may be dealt with in the undisclosed future.

5.6 POSSIBLE AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The recommendations discussed above suggest possible areas for further research. While factors related to poverty, like mechanisms to improve parental support at schools within impoverished communities is useful, equally useful is exploration at the macro-level of the educational sphere. Thus further research proposed is pitched at this level of organisational and decision-making processes.
Badat (2009) suggests a number of inter-locking systems that would aid the educational sphere to successfully achieve education and ensure the social and economic transformation of individuals. Simultaneously these systems should secure the economic growth of South Africa so that it is able to compete globally. This suggestion presents an opportunity for further research. It is evident that education on its own is not sufficient for the development of individuals and the South African society. Instead other sources of assistance like other governmental departmental faculties, for example health and social development, as well as NGOs and other community based organisations, could serve usefully to alleviate the challenges presented to the education department.

A second possible area for research is the monitoring and review of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, as suggested in the recommendations made above. While this framework presents an integrated plan for teacher development, references made to teacher development and support which will accomplish the DoE’s commitment to an inclusive education and training system for all as reflected in the current DoE’s National Curriculum Statements (NCS) R-12 (DBE, 2011) is limited.

This curriculum policy emphasises that all learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, physical ability or intellectual ability, be given the opportunity to achieve their learning potential and acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for their own needs as well as for global needs. Evidently, teachers are therefore expected to create a learning environment that is conducive for, and ensures successful learner throughput. Thus, it is imperative that particularly teachers of learners at impoverished schools (and who present the challenges which interrelates with poverty), are adequately and effectively supported by mechanisms and processes set out in the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, necessitating the periodic review and monitoring of this long term, integrated plan for teacher development.

5.7 CONCLUSION
This mixed method study explored in-service development programmes offered by the DBE and the WCED. It particularly focused on the support offered to teachers at schools for effective
teaching and learning and the holistic development of learners. At the core of this study teachers, a principal and a district officer were asked whether district offices of the WCED and the national DBE offered relevant and meaningful support so that the holistic development of learners is possible; and if teacher in-service programmes provide guidance for the context of learners and teachers. Possibilities towards the enhancement of teacher in-service development which supports the holistic development of learners were also explored.

The rationale for the holistic development of learners was highlighted by emphasising the importance of the sustained economic growth of South Africa for the individuals in this society as well as for the country to be able to meet global demands. Furthermore, by analysing key DoE and DBE documents pertaining to teacher education, especially for in-service teachers, two central thrusts were identified: education for social transformation towards redress and equity; and education for the attainment of knowledge and skills for economic growth for individuals as well as South Africa.

The findings of this study reveal that this two-fold nature of educational policy is tension-filled and pose a tremendous challenge for the DoE, specifically for teaching and learning of the majority, poor learners. Teachers of these learners are confronted with a range of challenges in the classrooms, which seriously impact on successful throughput of learners. While DoE policy reflect a commitment to support for teachers, findings of this study indicate that there is a general mismatch between the needs of teachers and the in-service development programmes offered to them. However, teachers have indicated that the in-service development programmes offered to them do at times offer valuable guidance and ideas for successful teaching and learning towards the holistic development of learners, still constraints due to poverty hamper the implementation of these.

The findings of this study have also revealed possible reasons for the mismatch between the needs of the teachers and the challenges presented by the learners in classrooms. These mostly point to shortcomings within the IQMS which is intended to identify the needs of teachers. Findings however indicate that the needs of the teachers are often diluted during the procedural
channels filtering through from the IQMS at schools, to circuits and then to districts, often resulting in duplication of in-service programmes or a mismatch between needs and support.

Acknowledgement of these shortcomings and recommendations to address these, as stipulated in the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025, provide some hope for future in-service programmes that are relevant for the needs of teachers of poor learners.

However, while improved mechanisms of support for these teachers are indeed necessary and emphatically suggested, it is strongly argued that long-term measures incorporating systemic change and which addresses poverty are needed. Meanwhile the periodic monitoring and review of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 is recommended, so that the needs of poor learners in large classes are best met by teachers who are sufficiently and relevantly supported as much as presently possible.
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Cape Times, 5 December 2011.*


* For purposes of anonymity the names of authors are not revealed.


Mail & Guardian, 1 April 2011.*


*For purposes of anonymity the names of authors are not revealed.*


Weekend Argus, 7 January, 2012.*

Weekend Argus, 3 Nov 2012.*


Zaianal, Z. (2007) Case study as a research method Jurnal Kemanusiaan bil.9, Jun 2007 Zaidah Zainalm-zaidah@utm.myFaculty of Management

* For purposes of anonymity the names of authors are not revealed.
## APPENDIX A: COGNITIVE AND METACOGNITIVE FACTORS

**Principle 1:** *Nature of the learning process*

The learning of complex subject matter is most effective when it is an intentional process of constructing meaning from information and experience.

**Principle 2:** *Goals of the learning process*

The successful learner, over time and with support and instructional guidance, can create meaningful, coherent representations of knowledge.

**Principle 3:** *Construction of knowledge*

The successful learner can link new information with existing knowledge in meaningful ways.

**Principle 4:** *Strategic thinking*

The successful learner can create and use a repertoire of thinking and reasoning strategies to achieve complex learning goals.

**Principle 5:** *Thinking about thinking*

Higher order strategies for selecting and monitoring mental operations facilitate creative and critical thinking.

**Principle 6:** *Context of learning*

Learning is influenced by environmental factors, including culture, technology, and instructional practices.

## MOTIVATIONAL AND AFFECTIVE FACTORS

**Principle 7:** *Motivational and emotional influences on learning*

What and how much is learned is influenced by the learner's motivation. Motivation to learn, in turn, is influenced by the individual's emotional states, beliefs, interests and goals, and habits of thinking.

**Principle 8:** *Intrinsic motivation to learn*

The learner's creativity, higher order thinking, and natural curiosity all contribute to motivation to learn. Intrinsic motivation is stimulated by tasks of optimal novelty and difficulty, relevant to personal interests, and providing for personal choice and control.

**Principle 9:** *Effects of motivation on effort*

Acquisition of complex knowledge and skills requires extended learner effort and guided practice. Without learners' motivation to learn, the willingness to exert this effort is unlikely without coercion.

## DEVELOPMENTAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS

**Principle 10:** *Developmental influence on learning*

As individuals develop, they encounter different opportunities and experience different constraints for learning. Learning is most effective when differential development within and across physical, intellectual, emotional, and social domains is taken into account.

**Principle 11:** *Social influences on learning*

Learning is influenced by social interactions, interpersonal relations, and communication with others.

## INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES FACTORS

**Principle 12:** *Individual differences in learning*

Learners have different strategies, approaches, and capabilities for learning that are a function of prior experience and heredity.

**Principle 13:** *Learning and diversity*

Learning is most effective when differences in learners' linguistic, cultural, and social backgrounds are taken into account.

**Principle 14:** *Standards and assessment*

Setting appropriately high and challenging standards and assessing the learner and learning progress—including diagnostic, process, and assessment—are integral parts of the learning outcome process.


Source: McCombs, 2000
January 2013

Director: Research Services

WCED

Private Bag X9114
Cape Town
8000

Dear Dr Wyngaard

Re: Permission for a Masters student to do interviews with the District Officer, School Principal and teachers in selected schools in the Western Cape

I hereby request permission for a Masters student in Development and Educational studies to gain access to the WCED schools she has selected for her research study. We appreciate the access granted by the Department of Education in the past.

The student, Jennifer Martin, needs to conduct her study in selected schools during terms 1 to 3 this year. This conducting interviews with a District Officer, a School Principal and teachers of theseschools. Her research looks at how teacher in-service development programmes can assist with the performance of learners in less advantaged urban communities in the Western Cape.

She will not go into classrooms but will schedule individual appointments with the District Officer and the School Principal. Teachers will be asked to answer a questionnaire. She will also be attending teacher in-service development sessions. A list of typical questions is attached for your perusal.

Ms Martin’s proposal has been accepted at UWC. She will adhere to strict ethical procedures which will include informed consent. Participants have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. Anonymity and confidentiality is also ensured.

We understand that no one will be under any obligation to work with the student on her project. The student will not interfere with the normal work of the educators at the schools. We intend to submit a copy of the thesis to your office on its completion.

I appreciate your assistance in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

_________________

Prof. Lorna Holtman

Director Postgraduate Studies

Study supervisor for the Masters
Dear Ms Jennifer Martin

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: WCED TEACHER IN-SERVICE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES WITH THE EMPHASIS ON TEACHING AND LEARNING AND THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNERS

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Approval for projects should be conveyed to the District Director of the schools where the project will be conducted.
5. Educators’ programmes are not to be interrupted.
6. The Study is to be conducted from **11 February 2013 till 30 September 2013**
7. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
9. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
10. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
11. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
12. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

   **The Director: Research Services**

   Western Cape Education Department
   Private Bag X9114
   CAPE TOWN
   8000

   We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
for: **HEAD: EDUCATION**
**DATE:** 12 February 2013
### APPENDIX D: Questionnaire

**PLEASE NOTE:** Respondents’ identities will remain anonymous. Please fill in relevant information below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age:</th>
<th>Gender (✓):</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Number of years teaching experience:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications:</td>
<td>Post level:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic group(✓):</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. List the challenges (if any) presented by learners in the classroom and briefly describe each:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Brief description</th>
<th>N/A (✓)</th>
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</table>

2. List the in-service programmes attended this year and provide a brief description of each:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-service programmes attended</th>
<th>Brief description</th>
<th>N/A (✓)</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

3. Indicate your views regarding each of the statements by ticking (✓) against the box that best reflects your opinion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Mostly</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. In service programmes offered by the Western Cape Education Department assists me to effectively teach the learners in my class. <em>Add relevant comments in the space below:</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>ii. I am consulted by the WCED about what in-service programmes would assist me to teach effectively. <em>Add relevant comments in the space below:</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>iii. The in-service programmes are relevant for my needs as a teacher. <em>Add relevant comments in the space below:</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>iv. The in-service programmes equip me to teach in a learner-centred manner so that the needs of each learner are met. <em>Add relevant comments in the space below:</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>v. The quality of the in-service programmes is excellent. <em>Add relevant comments in the space below:</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>vi. What recommendations can you make so that learners’ holistic development is ensured?</td>
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**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!**

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**APPENDIX D: Questionnaire**

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</table>

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!**
## APPENDIX E: GUIDELINES FOR INTERVIEWS WITH PRINCIPAL AND DISTRICT OFFICER

### SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW: PRINCIPAL

*The researcher will note the following based on what is observed (tick in relevant box):*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender:</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Demographic group:</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Other (specify):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. List the in-service programmes offered by the Western Cape Education Department for the school.

2. What was helpful about these in-service programmes?

3. Are these in-service programmes relevant for the needs of the school?

4. Do these programmes assist with effective teaching at the school?

5. Do you think these programmes assist staff and management to deal effectively with learners’ socio-economic challenges toward the holistic development of learners?

6. What type of input into or control over these in-service programmes do you have?

7. What would you recommend for future in-service programmes?

### SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW: DISTRICT OFFICER

*The researcher will note the following based on what is observed (tick in relevant box):*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender:</th>
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<th>Demographic group:</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Other (specify):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. How do the in-service programmes for staff at schools get decided on?

2. Do these programmes assist with effective teaching and management of the school?

3. Do these programmes assist teachers to effectively deal with learners’ socio-economic challenges?

4. Are the staff and management at schools consulted about which in-service programmes would be relevant and useful?

5. What future plans does the WCED have for staff at schools to assist with the holistic development of learners with socio-economic challenges?