THE VALUE OF SCHOOL-INITIATED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS: A Case Study of Two Schools in Two Gauteng Districts.

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A Research Report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Education

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS ....................................................................................... 2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.................................................................................... 3
DECLARATION.................................................................................................. 4
ACRONYMS...................................................................................................... 5

ABSTRACT AND SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS..............................................6

CHAPTER ONE
Introduction........................................................................................................ 7
Aims .................................................................................................................... 8
Rationale.......................................................................................................... 9

CHAPTER TWO
Literature Review.............................................................................................11

CHAPTER THREE
Methodology....................................................................................................31

CHAPTER FOUR
Data Presentation and Analysis........................................................................37

CHAPTER FIVE
Interpretation of Findings................................................................................63

CONCLUSION....................................................................................................71

BIBLIOGRAPHY.................................................................................................73

APPENDICES

A. Written Consent Form..................................................................................76
B. Schedule of Interview Questions...............................................................77
C. Respondent ’s letter to The Teacher, April 2006.........................................80
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KEY WORDS:

Teacher Status, Professionalism, Appraisal, Accountability and Deprofessionalisation.
School-initiated Professional Development and Instructional improvement
DECLARATION

I declare that this Research Report is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the Degree of Masters in Education in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

Ellenore Dinah Ryan

15 February 2007
**ACRONYMS**

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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>DAS</td>
<td>Developmental Appraisal System</td>
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<td>ECD</td>
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<td>ELRC</td>
<td>Education Labour Relations Council</td>
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<td>Gauteng Department of Education</td>
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<td>IQMS</td>
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<td>Outcomes Based Education</td>
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<td>N.C.S.</td>
<td>Revised National Curriculum Statement</td>
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<td>SACE</td>
<td>South African Council of Educators</td>
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<td>SETA</td>
<td>Sector Education and Training Authorities</td>
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<td>SMT</td>
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Abstract

The purpose of this research report is to record and analyse the school initiation and implementation of Professional Development for teachers in South African schools. The literature review highlights a number of key terms, namely: professionalism, the status of teachers, teacher appraisal and accountability and instructional improvement. Two significant findings are 1) that teachers find that the new curriculum intensifies their work, leading to some form of de-professionalization, and 2) that teachers prefer professional development related to discipline and classroom management rather than instructional improvement.

Summary of Chapters

Chapter one introduces the topic of the research and the research questions as well as discusses the aim and rationale behind the research.

Chapter two consists of a detailed literature review. The literature review looks at current debates around the issue of teacher status, professionalism, professional development and its implementation.

Chapter three explains the qualitative nature of the research methodology and the various research instruments and analytical methods used.

Chapter four consists of the analysis process. Here the interview responses were compared and analyzed question by question in an attempt to find and understand trends, differences and similarities in the perceptions of the respondents.

Chapter five is concerned with the discussion and interpretation of the findings of the research. The discussion on an assessment and comparison of the perceptions of respondents is analyzed in terms of the literature and the disparities between the two schools. It also seeks possible reasons for these disparities and concludes on the ways in which to think and examine the effectiveness of professional development in South African schools.
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Professional development in schools has been big on the agenda of policy makers, provincial departments and schools over recent years. This is because of issues of redress and the continuous poor quality of teaching in most schools. The first attempt post-1994 to develop an appraisal system for teachers came from the South African Democratic Trade Union (SADTU) which piloted a new form of teacher appraisal based on an inclusive, collegial and transparent approach, in the hope of addressing the desperate need for teacher development and redress in most schools. This pilot led to the Development Appraisal System (DAS) approved on 22 July 1998 (Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) Resolution 4 of 1998). However, many teachers opposed its implementation on the grounds that DAS was not followed up by an effective teacher support and development programme, for which the department never designed a comprehensive national implementation plan (SADTU press releases, August and September 2002).

At the same time, the Skills Development and Skills Development Levies Acts, which were passed in 1998 and 1999 and the subsequent National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) indicated that the aim of the post-1994 government was to develop the people of South Africa in order to provide the necessary education and training for all (Steyn, 2004). The implementation of the NSDS has been undertaken by 25 Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) and the professional development of teachers falls under the specific SETA for Education, Training and Development Practices (ETDP SETA), which is responsible for the delivery of education, training and development (Steyn, 2004).

The ELRC’s (Education Labour Relations Council) 2000 Resolution 1 makes provision for 80 hours of professional development to be included in the workload for teachers; this to take place after contact time or during vacations. In order for the process of
professional development to start, government, along with the ELRC, reached the agreed Resolution 8 of 2003 that integrated the three then existing programmes on quality management in education. The Developmental Appraisal System (DAS), which came into being on 28 July 1998 (Resolution 4 of 1998), the Performance Measurement System that was agreed to on 10 April 2003 (Resolution 1 of 2003) and the 2001 Whole School Evaluation (WSE) were integrated into the now existing IQMS (Integrated Quality Management System), which was informed by Schedule 1 of the Employment of Educators Act, No. 76 of 1998.

The aim of the IQMS (IQMS Manual, undated) is to enhance and monitor the performance of the education system. The Developmental Appraisal component of the IQMS is aimed at determining the strengths and weaknesses of individual teachers in order to draw up programmes for individual development. Thus, the ultimate purpose of individual development is to contribute to the improvement and development of the school.

But, although the Act for skills development has been passed, the time for professional development has been made available and plans for the monitoring and appraisal of teachers are underway, the kind of professional development and for what exact purpose has not been as well documented. The above-mentioned policies are in place, but in order to add to our knowledge, empirical research evidence of the implementation of professional development initiatives needs to be recorded and analyzed.

This study, therefore, is based on the belief that it is important to look at professional development in schools in order to understand more fully what is happening concerning the implementation of professional development, its impact and ways in which it can be delivered more effectively.

**Aim**

The aim of this study is to look at how school-initiated professional development in
South Africa has evolved, whether provided by the state or the school. It aims to understand better professional development models and their assumptions about the status of teachers, teacher professionalism, teacher accountability and teacher appraisal.

It therefore proposes to investigate the following questions:

1. What is meant by teacher professionalism? a) globally, b) within the South African context?
2. What does the contemporary literature say about teacher professional development; its aims, its purpose, its models, etc.?
3. What do South African teachers understand about their status and role with regard to the NCS? What do teachers understand about their own professionalism?
4. What is South African teachers’ understanding of their own professional development?
5. How do South African teachers perceive the professional development needs in their schools? Apart from teacher professional development, how else can instruction be improved?
6. What do South African teachers understand and what have they experienced with on-and off-site professional development and how effective was it?

Finally, it is hoped that teachers’ voice on these issues will come through. To this end, a combination of empirical evidence and current literature around school reform and professional development initiatives will be utilized.

**Rationale**

The rationale for doing this research is that there appears to be a gap in the literature around the impact or model of implementation of professional development in South Africa. There also seems to be a lack of empirical study around the school initiatives which are already taking place on issues of professional development.

The lack of capacity and resources is one of the biggest challenges to the
implementation of effective professional development that improves school and learners’ performance. Tertiary, off-site training opportunities are time consuming and often not as effective for the development of teachers, and especially better pedagogy, as on-site initiatives are (Elmore & Burney, 1999). Therefore, exploring on-site professional development initiatives, such as mentoring, clusters, teacher leaders and HODs as teacher trainers, seems to be a good idea for many more reasons than only cost-cutting (this will become evident later on).

Finally, the hope of this study is to add meaningfully to the literature around teacher professional development in South Africa and assist in a better understanding of the current challenges around professional development in South Africa.
CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

It is important to look at the literature around teacher professional development. We will start by looking at what is understood by the term professional development and why it is important. We will then move on to a discussion on the different forms of professional development, as well as the different models, as categorized by Little (1993). Following this, we will look at the assumptions that are embedded in these different forms of professional development, concerning the status and work of teachers. Thereafter we will look at the implementation challenges for professional development in South Africa. We will end by looking at what the literature says concerning teacher appraisal and teacher accountability and how these are linked to professional development.

1. What is Professional Development and Why is it Important?

What is meant by professional development (PD) and why it is important? According to Steyn (2004) all professions require a continuous update of knowledge and skills, and teaching is no exception. Steyn (2004) cites that it is universally acknowledged that educators’ knowledge and skills are subject to deterioration and new developments in educational thinking and content render teachers’ skills and knowledge outdated and inefficient. Professional development is needed to keep teachers up to date on developments in their subjects, on pedagogy, technology, in the teachers’ code of conduct and education in general.

According to Steyn (2004), teachers will not change the way they teach unless they learn new ways to teach. Brown (1992) adds that professional development affects teachers’ behaviours and attitudes in that they become more critical, aware and have an increased tolerance level. According to Brown (1992), the literature argues that professional development affects teacher performance and has the potential to increase teacher
effectiveness and therefore learner achievements. Thus, it is evident from the literature that teacher professional development is essential for individual teachers as well as for the whole school development and improvement.

The importance of professional development is clearly evident when one considers the introduction of Outcomes Based Education in South Africa and the subsequent problems that arose due to lack of effective knowledge and training of educators. Overlooking teachers in the development phase of OBE caused major problems because, according to Greybe (1997), the new curriculum entailed a total re-conceptualisation of the nature of teaching, which implies that teachers need to do new preparation, assess continuously, and develop their subject competence. This is mainly because the new curriculum assumes that teachers are required to select their own content and deliver it differently to their classes.

The expectations and demands in education are high and on the increase in this era of economic globalisation. Learners, parents, future employers and the global market are demanding that schools deliver learners with different knowledge and skills (such as teamwork; higher order thinking) and who can effectively use new information technologies and adapt to constant challenges and changes. According to Hargreaves (2002), this calls for new teaching content and, new styles of teaching, which means that teachers are now teaching in ways that they themselves were never taught. Thus it is important that teachers undergo effective professional development to move with the times.

According to Elmore & Burney (1999), there is a growing consensus that professional development for teachers and administrators is increasingly at the centre of educational reform and instructional improvement.

**2. Different Forms and Focuses of Professional Development**

The next step is to look at the different forms of professional development to give us a
clearer picture of what it can entail. One way of categorizing different forms of professional development is the on-site e.g. mentoring programmes or off-site teacher professional development e.g. mass information workshops where large numbers of teachers are called together for the introduction of new policies. Another way is that it can be school-initiated professional development or district, or department-initiated. It can also be a once-off initiative or ongoing. Once-off initiatives might consist of a talk on classroom discipline, workshops of tips on how to improve pedagogy or even how to spot drug addictions. Ongoing, continuous initiatives may consist of mentoring, teacher collaboratives, clusters, etc.

More recently, school-initiated and school-based professional development has become strongly focused in its goal of making teachers think about and reflect together on their own practice. Teachers have been expected to become reflective about their pedagogy, about what works in their classrooms and what does not. Therefore, teachers are expected to recognize and decide about their own professional development needs.

In countries like America and England, the trend is increasingly shifting towards school-initiated and school-based professional development. Scholars, like Fullan (2003), Reitzug (2002), Elmore and Burney (1999) and Little (1993), have argued that professional development through modelling, mentoring, inter-class/school visitations and observation is an effective way forward for teacher development in their countries.

But is this the way forward for South Africa? The abovementioned scholars assume that teachers are collegial professionals, but is this the reality of South African teachers? Are South African teachers becoming autonomous and professional or are they still struggling towards it? Are South African teachers treated as professionals or still as workers, and in that case, is there space for teacher collaboration and collegiality at schools? Are teachers expected to seek instructional improvement, to consider new pedagogy and new subject knowledge? Surely this kind of change and improvement of teacher work means that teachers as professionals must take the initiative, and be encouraged to think and reflect on their changing work.
In South Africa, clusters are being encouraged where teachers from different schools within a district come together to monitor, for example, continuous assessment in the form of learners’ portfolios of work. Here, the ideal is for teachers to share, give and receive advice on how to deal with problems they experience with their portfolio work and assessment of portfolios. But problems can arise with this “sharing” of knowledge when some teachers are on the receiving end of worksheets, examination papers and advice, while others are only expected to give and receive nothing back from their counterparts in other schools. Thus, it is evidenced that the management of this team sharing process within clusters needs attention in order for the process to be effective and sustainable.

Off-site professional development initiatives include tertiary training courses, district-based once-off initiatives that are meant for many teachers, information sessions, etc. These can be generic, unspecific and time consuming.

Off-site professional development initiatives often target entry-level skills which are normally signalled by the possession of the appropriate credentials (Kelley, 1997). This form of professional development favours textbook and curriculum guides, which create a teacher-proof curriculum which in turn eliminates the need for large investments in teacher development (Kelley, 1997).

These types of training sessions rarely touch on the difficult task of implementation or on the practice but are more targeted to inform teachers about new reforms and policies.

Thus it becomes clear that off-site initiatives are best suited when targeting basic skills and offering teachers the needed starter or basic foundation of teaching without which we would not be ready to teach or benefit from on-site teacher development. On-site professional development is useful to take teachers to the next stage.
3. Professional Development and Assumptions about Teacher Status

To understand what types of personal development suit what kind of teachers’ needs, it is important to have a discussion on the status and work of teachers. It is important to understand whether teachers are treated or perceived as workers or professionals in this country. But what is meant by a teacher as a worker or a teacher as a civil servant or a teacher as professional?

According to Kelley (1997), teachers as workers are expected to implement an essentially teacher-proof curriculum and to follow the rules. Here teachers are subjected to formalized training and credentialing for entry into specific, narrowly defined jobs (Kelley, 1997). As a result teacher development is used for, and targeted at, promotional opportunities and higher-level management positions (Kelley, 1997). Teachers as civil servants are those who, like workers, comply with rules and regulations and are not assessed in terms of what they produce, namely learners’ achievements.

Teachers as professionals are expected to fulfil tasks such as curriculum development, counselling and budget development (Kelley, 1997). These teachers are responsible for producing high levels of pupil performance, and increasingly for participating in shared decision-making for curriculum, instruction, and school management (Kelley, 1997). As a result, professional development is best provided when it moves from the district into the school and when teachers deepen their knowledge and skills through ongoing on-site professional development based on team sharing or professional collaboration over how to develop better content, pedagogy and decision making. Thus, according to the nature of the work of teachers and what is expected from them, different models of professional development will be needed.

Hargreaves (2000) discusses more fully the difference between teachers as workers or as professionals. He distinguishes four main ages of professionalism, what is understood by them and this could be useful for an understanding of where South African teachers are in relation to his categorization.
It is important to keep in mind that, in practice, Hargreaves’ categorizations often overlaps, making it difficult to slot the practices of any country’s teachers into just one category. Therefore, for example, South African teachers display attributes from two or more teacher categorizations, which indicates that teachers’ professional development needs are varied and require different forms and content of professional development. Hargreaves’ (2000) four ages of professionalism can be summarized as follows:

**a) The Pre-Professional Age**

In this era, teachers were expected to teach a curriculum that was predetermined by experts in the field, to large numbers of pupils. Teachers were expected to transmit knowledge while learners were expected to regurgitate and rote-learn. Teachers were expected to manage classroom discipline, lecture and give little or no room for questioning. In fact, not even teachers were expected to engage with what they taught, much less learners.

A teacher as a worker needs training in classroom management and discipline. Such a teacher needs to be skilled in lecturing, in transmitting knowledge; to act as a go-between between the expert and the learner so to speak. Once-off, on-site or off-site training sessions, mentoring programmes and modelling are the types of professional development opportunities such a teacher will need to be exposed to.

**b) The Age of the Autonomous Professional**

In the autonomy stage, teachers have autonomy over their classes and in some instances, the curriculum. But Hargreaves (2000) makes a distinction between what he terms professionalisation and professionalism. While this age was helpful in enhancing professionalisation (in lengthening training, extending accreditation, making the knowledge base in teaching more academic), it did little to improve professionalism (the quality of work) (Hargreaves, 2000). This professionalisation is evidenced in South Africa where teaching has become an almost graduate profession. But, unlike the teachers
in especially England and Wales (from the 1960’s onwards), teachers in South Africa do not enjoy complete autonomy over curriculum development.

In the autonomous age, the benefits of in-service training seldom became integrated into classroom practice and teachers who went on courses seldom had a chance to share their knowledge with their colleagues (Hargreaves, 2000). In South Africa, similar phenomena occur. Teachers are so overwhelmed with their large class sizes, administration and classroom management problems that they have little time to implement new and innovative teaching material and styles, much less share these with colleagues.

Thus, the autonomous age was inadequate for the improvement of professionalism, for the development of lasting changes and whole school development. Even though it benefited the individual teacher, learners were not benefiting.

Hargreaves (2000), Fullan (2003), Little (1993) and Reitzug (2002) argue that the next age, of the collegial professional, was important in effecting a change in teacher professionalism.

c) The Age of the Collegial Professionalism

The age of collegiality introduces the need for the features of “strong professional cultures of collaboration with the development of a common purpose; ability to cope with uncertainty and complexity, respond effectively to rapid change and reform, create a climate which values risk taking and continuous improvement, develop stronger senses of teacher efficacy, and create ongoing professional learning cultures for teachers that replace patterns of staff development which are individualized, episodic and weakly connected to the priorities of the school” (Hargreaves, 2000:22). According to Kelley (1997), schools in this age require a leadership of teams of teachers, rather than administrators, which mean, teachers have to be trained in decision-making and leadership as well as content, pedagogy, curriculum, etc. According to authors like Reitzug (2002), Little (1993) and Fullan (2003), the existence of teacher collegiality calls
for a new form of professional development without which school improvement cannot take place. This consists of teachers coming together continuously to share, reflect and learn from each other’s practices.

Even though a system is essentially collegial, it is very likely that such a system could include other characteristics of Hargreaves (2000) other ages as well. Thus, within Hargreaves’ categorizations, South Africa displays features of the pre-professional age, the autonomous age, as well as other features of teachers working together collegially in clusters or with other schools.

d) The Post-modern Age or Age of the Post-professional

Here Hargreaves (2000) paints a picture of the future status of the educator and raises the possibility that it can go one of two ways. Firstly, the future status of teachers can go the post-modern route. The post-modern age can be described as an era in which professionalism is broader, more flexible and more democratically inclusive of groups outside of teaching (Hargreaves, 2000). Little (1993) adds that this professionalism visualizes the teacher as a learner and a thinker. Teachers as professionals are decision makers who develop curriculum, who work together in order to make this age a reality.

Secondly, the future status of teachers can enter another form of this post-professional age, described by Hargreaves (2000) as a threat and, instead of enhanced and improved professionalism, teachers can be pushed back to the pre-professional age where they are treated as workers. Hargreaves (2000) sums up this threat as follows: “There are forces which portend a post-professional age where teacher professionalism will become diminished or abandoned. This can occur or is already occurring in many places either by returning teachers to the hands-on, intuitive, learn-as-you-go approach to their work of the pre-professional age; or by subjecting them to the detailed measurement and control of narrowly conceived competence frameworks, or both” (Hargreaves, 2000:24).

In South Africa, up to recently, we have teachers with very large amounts of learners in
classes, teaching teacher-proof syllabuses as in the pre-professional age, but the OBE curriculum requires more, as it is based on a learner-centred approach, where learners are expected to work in groups, engage with the content of the subject, aim to muster specific outcomes and develop skills. Teachers are expected to facilitate learning, with less lecturing and more initiation of discussion and engagement with subject matter and learners. Teachers are also expected to create their own worksheets and to prepare interactive, dynamic lessons.

South Africa’s OBE curriculum framework poses a challenge, because it requires teachers as professionals, or as hands-on facilitators, who think on their feet as they guide learners to discover knowledge and engage with the subject matter. Such teacher professionals will need to be developed. Their content and pedagogical knowledge base will need constantly up-dating. There are financial implications for training, developing, improving and strengthening professionals into becoming curriculum developers, thinkers, decision makers and scholars. The benefits are that these teachers will be teaching what they themselves have mustered; they will be teaching learners how to become thinkers, decision makers and problem solvers themselves. But OBE also requires teachers to do a lot of administrative work, fill in many forms, be monitored, etc. It seems that teachers are required to be both professionals and workers. Can teachers be both?

It is evident that the teachers, who in South Africa were treated like workers transmitting a teacher proof syllabus, will need significant personal development to reach the stage of being professionals, and with OBE, the ultimate aim is not solely the development of teachers, but of the school. Teachers need to develop professionally in order for them to improve instruction, customize their pedagogy to their learners and improve the school and not just for personal gains.

OBE cannot be implemented with teachers working individually, but requires teachers to work collegially and collectively. The districts have attempted to bring about this collegiality through the form of cluster meetings and grade meetings within the school.
But are teachers able to jump from the stage of pre-professionalism to collegial professionalism?

In order to gain an understanding of professionalism from a South African perspective and why teachers are at this stage, it is important to consider Harley & Parker’s (2000) findings. They use the mechanical and organic forms of solidarity onto South African society, focusing on teacher development. The old South Africa is an example of mechanical solidarity. Its features, such as a penal law system, its principles of differentiation and position were based on the lines of race. Similarly, racial groups were encouraged to form solidarity on the basis of similarities within their “own cultures” (Harley & Parker, 2000). Many South African teachers were trained and worked under the apartheid government system.

According to Harley and Parker (2000), the new South Africa reflects the features of organic solidarity by its emphasis on human rights and strong civil society. Here the strong penal code of the death penalty and corporal punishment in schools make way for emphasis on the rights and duties of the individual and their contractual relation to the state. They argue that shifting the mindset of society and teachers from one conforming to mechanical solidarity to transforming to organic solidarity has not been a process of evolution but rather one of legislation. Therefore, our current context remains a hybrid of the old and the new South Africa. Harley & Parker (2000) describe this period of adjustment as the teacher’s “role schizophrenia,” where their curriculum practices are likely to reflect tension and dissonances. This is indicated in teachers’ battle to keep control of discipline which had been, in the era of mechanical solidarity, managed with corporal punishment, but now with “hollow words about human rights, responsibilities, duties and liberties” (Harley and Parker, 2000:9).

According to Harley and Parker (2000), discipline problems are exacerbated by the fact that, in the era of mechanical solidarity, learners have been stratified in a highly structured classroom environment and now they are both differentiated and expected to develop coherence through civil interpersonal relations and this is a learning curve for
both learners and teachers. Learners have to cope with their own discipline and the desire to achieve their outcomes combined with their rights and responsibilities as learners. At the same time, teachers have to adapt from reliance on positional control (being respected because one is a teacher) to personal forms of control (enjoying authority because of one’s personal attributes) (Harley & Parker, 2000). Thus teachers and learners have to work together to achieve a common goal: achieving their outcomes. And in this new solidarity teachers and learners become jointly responsible for discipline and classroom management, because managing together will help achieve the outcomes of learning.

Harley & Parker (2000) identify other possible challenges teachers face in this era of organic solidarity: learning areas now replace subjects and this means a collapsing of the strict boundaries between subject disciplines. Teachers are therefore expected to work together collegially over the subject boundaries and promote a task orientated curriculum instead of a subject orientated one. The data collected for this study indicates that teachers at both schools are starting to work together collegially, but that they are nowhere near Hargreaves’ (2000) Age of collegial professionalism. Harley & Parker (2000) explain that South African teachers are in a transitional period, between the era of mechanical solidarity and that of organic solidarity, and that transformation is a slow process.

Other challenges teachers face, include:

- Teachers feel insecure about new ideas and practice and take long to adjust to changes.
- Teachers perceive curriculum to be the text book or the syllabus.
- Policies do not speak in the same “language” as teachers. (Harley & Parker, 2000)

4. Professional Development Models

There are different professional development models, which differ in forms and purposes. Little (1993) talks of two professional development models: on the one hand, there is the traditional training model which Little (1993) defines as “a model focused primarily on
expanding an individual repertoire of well defined and skilful classroom practice…” This model advocates skills development and introduces those aspects of reform that are technical in nature (Little, 1993), e.g. classroom management, discipline and to implement a teacher-proof syllabus (Kelley, 1997). This traditional training model can be linked to Hargreaves’ (2000) pre-professional age and Kelley’s (1997) scientific management model.

On the other hand, Little (1993) describes the intellectual model. This model calls for teachers to have opportunities to investigate, experiment, consult, or evaluate in order for teachers to reinvent teaching and schooling (Little, 1993). Here teachers are required to be in control of curriculum and instruction and to implement a challenging curriculum (Kelley, 1997). The intellectual model can be linked to Hargreaves’ (2000) age of the autonomous professional.

Little (1993) describes a policy dilemma between these two models of professional development. She asserts that both these models are problematic. She argues that these two models are “limited, fragmented, one-shot or short term and pre-packaged” (p.1). On the one hand, the training model is usually favoured by governments (because of resource allocation), consists of schools and districts initiating teacher development and doing “something” in the name of PD before the year ends and funds get reallocated (Little, 1993). This “something” very often turns out to be less effective, not well thought-through and piecemeal. Furthermore, Little asserts that not all the requirements for good practice can be taught in terms of skills development and asserts that some forms of teacher practice call “not for training, but for adequate opportunity to learn” (Little, 1993: 133). She asserts that the requirement in education is for the intellectual model, “the kind of structures and cultures that embody central values and principles, rather than to implement, adopt or demonstrate practices thought to be universally effective” (Little, 1993: 33).

But authors like Little (1993), Fullan (2003) and Reitzug (2002) suggest a third model;
that of the collegial professional, which corresponds or is similar to Hargreaves’ (2000) Age of Collegial Professionalism.

Reitzug (2002) goes beyond the training model and even beyond the intellectual model of Little (1993) by advocating a new form of PD in the form of networks of educators from across different schools that interact via “cross-school or cross-classroom visitations, professional institutes, critical friends groups, and electronic forms of communication” (2002:3). In other words, Reitzug (2002) suggests that teachers work together collegially; collaborating with one another; sharing, reflecting and learning from one another through on-site school-initiated professional development.

Fullan (2003) adds his own voice to this argument by addressing the policy problem with what he terms *complexity theory*, whereby professional development starts with the teachers. Fullan (2003) advocated what he calls “correlation” with teachers within a school, sharing ideas and working together. Thereafter, the sharing of ideas must develop across schools or what he calls “auto-catalysis,” or what Little (1993) calls networks or collaboratives. This PD relies on the idea of teachers working together in schools and across schools in a collaborative/collegial way.

This type of skills development (of the training model) might be what many South African teachers need today as they need to learn how to set examination papers, how to type their papers and how to make worksheets and posters, especially if they expect learners to be able to make posters, hand in typed assignments, and put together portfolios of work for all their subjects. What is argued here is that most teachers in South Africa need to be en-skilled with the basic competences needed to become professionals, especially since they have been treated and behaving as workers or civil servants.

Indeed to set the examination paper and worksheets, teachers need to be able to think professionally and engage with their subject. To set a higher grade Mathematics or English paper, teachers need to be intellectually developed enough to extract knowledge from their learners, knowing that they want to teach problem solving skills and
sophisticated and figurative thinking and then test them. This calls for both the traditional and intellectual model of PD, where teachers will be trained as thinkers and will be offered adequate opportunities to learn.

4. Implementation Challenges of Professional Development

It is evident that professional development is an essential part of any school, but can the same rules of professional development implementation apply to all schools? Johnson et al (2000) argue that northern/western ideas about teacher change and development are poorly suited to modelling practices and challenges for teachers who are historically disadvantaged. Johnson et al (2000) explain that, because Sub-Saharan countries are poor, teacher needs are different to those of first world countries and the policies concerning professional development are not easily implementable in poorer countries. In the South African case, things are complicated even further by the fact that some schools are very well equipped and teachers well qualified, while others are among the poorest in the world, with poorly qualified teachers. Thus, whereas some schools will benefit from current policies on PD implementation, according to Johnson et al (2000), for other schools, the selection of actual classroom practice is constrained by the resources at hand. As Vally (2000) points out, the vast majority of schools lack basic amenities, in some cases they have up to 70 learners per class as well as several unqualified and under-qualified teachers with a poor supply of textbooks. For example, how can learners or teachers be expected to do research via electronic media, if electricity and running water are not available.

The South African Council of Educators (SACE), established in 2000, is a professional body that aims to enhance the status of the teaching profession and promote educator development and professional conduct (SACE Information Booklet, undated).

1. The Ethical and Legal Training (ELT) Project to familiarize teachers with the legal and ethical obligations of the profession by making the relevant material available and leaving schools with the responsibility of requesting and using it.
2. The Ethics and Values in Education (EVE) Project which produced the SACE Handbook on the Code of Professional Ethics, which has been circulated in most schools so they can conduct their own workshops on ethical issues in education.

3. The Professional Development (PDP) Project which is in the form of self-study materials which educators can use to reflect critically on in their practices.

4. IQMS Performance Standard # 5 Training and Development Project which supports teachers to understand this performance standard for their PGP.

5. Continuing Professional Development (CPTD) Point System which is meant to track teachers’ professional development progress (not yet endorsed by SACE).

6. Professional Development Database and Directory Project which will provide a directory of all available professional development offered by different organizations (in the planning stage).

7. Professional Development Partnership Projects which list SACE’s partnerships with other organisations to help with the delivery of professional development opportunities to schools. (SACE, Professional Development Booklet, 2000)

Out of these seven activities, the first two have to be implemented by schools, the third is for independent study by teachers, the fifth and sixth are in the planning stages and the fourth has been implemented by SACE. The last one is a partnership project, but the data are lacking on how much professional development the partnerships have produced.

The two implications of these findings are: one, that although the plans for possible professional development activities are in progress, implementation still remains a serious challenge, and two, that of the seven activities only the third one has possible bearing on professional development for teaching and learning. It has to do with the personal development of teachers and helps teachers to reflect on their own practices. This implication raises questions about the purpose of teacher professional development. The seven activities of SACE as listed above seem to be focussed on PD for which scholars like Elmore & Burney (1999) have identified to be instructional improvement.
5. Teacher Accountability and Appraisal

It is important for professional development for instructional improvement to take place. But teachers should also be held accountable to ensure that they use their PD to progress in the quality of their teaching and their learners’ achievements. Teachers can be made accountable to different stakeholders: the public, their colleagues, the state and parents by looking at what they do, how they do it and what they produce in terms of learners’ results. Darling-Hammond (1989) distinguishes different accountabilities: bureaucratic accountability, which refers to the rules and regulations put there in order to assure the public that the legal processes of education are being adhered to; market accountability, which is aimed at the rights of parents to choose what services best meet their needs; and professional accountability, where governments may create professional bodies and structures to ensure competence and appropriate practice in occupations that serve the public. Bureaucratic accountability seems to be more relevant in the South African case, because all the paperwork teachers have to do are there to ensure teachers account to the public. Teachers prove that they have taught lessons by producing written lesson plans, and they prove their assessments by making use of marking rubrics and grids. Each learner has to submit a portfolio of work to prove that they have been assessed continuously throughout the school year. This bureaucratic form of accountability is the traditional form and is different from the performance-based accountability referred to by authors such as Elmore & Burney (1999) where schools and teachers are accountable for their learners’ results.

This raises the debate about the multi-dimensional aspects of teacher accountability. What should teachers in South Africa be accountable for? Should they account for what they teach and how they teach? Especially if the idea is to understand their strengths and weaknesses or should they account for the results of their learners (performance-based accountability) or for anything else? Can teachers be pressured to account for the results without the necessary infrastructure, resources and support (in the form of professional development)? What should come first: pressure or support and why?
To get a clear picture of exactly what is meant by high quality support and the sequencing of pressure and support, it is interesting to examine Community District #2 of New York, where a combination of intensive and high quality support and then pressure was used to get significant results in instructional improvement.

According to Elmore & Burney (1999), Community District #2 of New York teachers received strong support by being supplied with books, outside experts or given examples of best practices in other settings as demonstrations. District staff and school-based management also helped teachers design curriculum, create a supportive classroom environment and provide them with external teachers and experts to support them and their critical self-reflection on their practice. The superintendent of the district, Alvarado, and his staff monitored continuously the schools and teachers’ performance with hard evidence (Elmore & Burney, 1999). Pressure applied to teachers was undisputed and district staff was unapologetic over their control of the process. This was demonstrated when Alvarado replaced 20 of the 30 principals and about 50% of school staff (Elmore & Burney, 1999). It is clear that District #2 meant business and was willing to give support to those who could change and produce better results.

But what sequencing is best for South African teachers: pressure to account first or support first? Taylor (2002) argues that teachers need to be subjected to the authority and accountability of their superiors and the department (namely bureaucratic accountability) before any support can be given to schools and teachers. However, Shalem (2003) cautions that there is a tenuous balance between pressure and support and warns against pressure being over-exerted on teachers without the necessary support given to them in the form of professional development. Shalem (2003) asserts that, until teachers are given meaningful learning opportunities, teacher accountability is one-way from the schools to the department and is highly problematic and unfair. Shalem’s view seems to endorse what the government and the ELRC have had recently in mind with the introduction of the 2004 IQMS which is a teacher appraisal system designed to diagnose teacher development needs, give them support and then make them account for what they have produced after this period of support.
The IQMS and teacher appraisal in South Africa

The department of Education introduced in 2004 a new system of appraisal known as the IQMS. The IQMS aims are as follows: to identify the specific needs of educators, schools and districts for support and development, to provide support for continued growth, to promote accountability, to monitor an institution’s overall effectiveness and to evaluate an educator’s performance. The IQMS consists of three programmes:

- Developmental Appraisal, which is concerned with appraising educators, determining their strengths and weaknesses and drawing up programmes for their individual development,
- Performance Management, which evaluates teachers for salary progression etc, and
- Whole School Evaluation, which evaluates the overall effectiveness of a school as well as the quality of teaching and learning.

The quality of teaching and learning is mentioned under one item of the whole school evaluation and one IQMS educator performance’s standard. According to Elmore and Burney (1999) instruction should be the main focus of a school and the main reason for the importance of teacher development, monitoring and support. Incentives should be made available to teachers and schools that indicate improvements in teaching and learning, rather than doing filing and reporting misconduct. Elmore and Burney (1999) give explanations for what they terms “lack of attention to issues of curriculum and instruction” which include the fact that most jobs that have to do with managing the flow of policy “have little or nothing to do with classroom instruction but with ensuring accountability and compliance with rules and regulations” (Elmore and Burney, 1999:113)

The IQMS appraises teachers according to the 8 performance standards as listed below:
1. Creation of a positive learning environment e.g. discipline.
2. Knowledge of Curriculum and learning programs which relates directly to teaching and learning
3. Lesson planning, preparation and presentation paperwork.
4. Learner assessment and achievement paperwork.
5. Professional development and participation in professional bodies.
6. Human relations and contribution to school development.
8. Administration of Resources and Records.

It is interesting to note that one performance standard only directly addresses teaching and learning and the performance standard is treated as equal to all the others. The other seven performance standards vastly outweigh this performance standard 2. And yet, if teachers were allowed to default on one of the performance standards and still get a good result and that one happened to be performance standard 2, then that teacher would not teach at all.

The IQMS specifies the appraisal steps: first a self-evaluation of their performance, then identifying their Developmental Support Group (DSG) to verify the self-appraisal, then the development with the DSG of a Personal Growth Plan (PGP) which should lead to support and PD by the teacher’s DSG and/or the district support or PD.

The IQMS is designed as a teacher appraisal system, which requires teachers to explicitly define their professional development needs (formative evaluation or appraisal) which two of their colleagues will have to verify and endorse or change. After the support is given on these identified needs, teachers will have to be appraised again for what they produced out of this period of support. This summative evaluation is part of the performance measurement exercise of the IQMS which can lead to possible rewards. In that sense the IQMS is promoting a form of school-initiated professional development which will lead to a performance appraisal. But the question or challenge is: do the school and the district possess the capacity and resources to meet this demand for development and support by teachers?
Conceptual Framework

Professional development (PD) is important for teachers and for the improvement of teaching and learning. Thus, while effective PD depends on the role, status and developmental needs of teachers, it should always focus on what is needed to improve teaching and learning. Increasingly, western/northern scholars recommend on-site PD, in the form of mentoring and collegiality, because, it is argued, teacher collegiality and team work are the way forward for effective PD and instructional improvement. This assumes that teachers are professionals committed to improve their practices and that they learn better by reflecting together on their practices.

However, teachers are not always perceived by their government or by themselves as full professionals. Many departments have continued to treat their teachers as workers or have attempted to de-professionalize them in this era of globalization. The new education policies in South Africa, which claim to improve the professional status of teachers, have thrown new challenges for teachers in terms of their teaching role and the professional development programs they need or want. This research therefore uses the recent literature on teacher professionalism and professional development to investigate how South African teachers perceive the impact of the post-1994 education policies on their role, status and need for professional development by focussing more specifically on how teachers understand and use school-initiated development programmes to meet their new challenges.
CHAPTER 3

Methodology

1. Research Approach

This study chooses the qualitative research approach as opposed to the quantitative one. Qualitative research data are based on empirical evidence gathered to understand the how and why. (Neuman, 1997). Indeed, the research is qualitative because it was interested in the “how” question, which is explanatory or exploratory in nature. According to Yin (1994), the “how” question is asked about a contemporary set of events over which the researcher has little or no control. In fact, the aim of this study is not to seek solutions to the questions raised, or to give expert advice, but rather to explain and glean a better understanding of the issues surrounding on-site PD. This is why this study was interested in subjects, their views and reactions towards the issue of professional development rather than relying on statistics to establish what happens in professional development in schools. According to Neuman (1997), qualitative data involves documenting real events, recording what people say (with words, gestures, and tone), observing specific behaviours, studying written documents, or examining visual images.

Given that the investigation is about the relevance of on-site PD, teachers were interviewed to learn how PD occurs, what form it takes and how this has changed their teaching practice. The qualitative approach seems therefore more appropriate. Further, the tools used in quantitative research, (such as variables, reliability, statistics, hypotheses, replication and scales) were not relevant for this study because what was needed rather was a rich detailed understanding of subjective viewpoints and perceptions of teachers involved in school-initiated PD.

2. The Case Study Method

The method of qualitative research used is the case study. Within the literature, many
definitions have been applied to case studies. Evaluative case study is concerned with a single case or collection of cases that aim to provide education actors or decision makers (administrators, teachers, parents, pupils, etc.) with information that will help them to judge the merit of policies, programmes or institutions. This was exactly what this study aimed to do and in that sense, this study places itself within the evaluative and comparative style of case study.

Case studies have been criticized because of their tendency to generalize, in the sense that, with a single case or multiple cases studied in depth, researchers use this evidence as an indication of the existence of similar cases within the broader context. The advantage of case study is its ability to give an in-depth look into all the complexities of a case within its context.

This case study is also comparative in that it aims to investigate the research topic in two schools within two districts. According to Bassey (1999), evaluative case study may involve either single or multiple cases. The idea is to take an issue or hypothesis (within the literature review: and select a “bounded system” as an instance from the class (Bassey, 1999:30).

Case studies normally contain an enormous amount of information, even when done on a smaller scale; therefore it was important to have planned analytical tools thoughtfully in order to address the issues identified in the literature review together with the data.

3. Sampling

Sampling entails taking a smaller, selective set of observations from a larger number of possible observations (Neuman, 1997). It is called theoretical sampling, because it is guided by the researcher’s interest in developing theory. We made use of a purposeful sample by selecting two schools in two different districts on the grounds that they were known to be rich in the characteristics and conditions that we wanted to test, namely the school-initiated professional development initiatives, as perceived by teachers. One high
school and one primary school were selected for study. The first one school is a township school and the other is an ex-Model C school situated in a suburban area. Schools of different locations and resources were thus chosen for the purpose of comparison of their experiences and views of PD, and to illustrate that PD can take different forms in different contexts.

4. Data Collection Techniques

The data sources for my study comprised: literature review, school documentation, interviews and observation.

**Literature Review**

This study has reviewed the relevant literature to frame the approach to the research issues and to have background knowledge on the issue of professional development to analyze and interpret in greater depth the PD set up in these schools and contribute to the knowledge development on PD in SA schools at present. In that sense, the literature review was drawn from books and articles that provides a conceptual and theoretical background to the research on Professional Development. The literature also helped in the analysis of policy documents from the Department of Education and the Education Labour Relations Council which pertains to PD. Theses and research reports on PD were also used.

**Interview**

The interview technique was utilized with a selection of teachers, heads of department as well as principals. A typical interview could be described as semi-structured around the issues of teacher professionalism, the status of the teacher, professional development (teachers’ understanding and experiences of PD). It involved asking questions, listening, expressing interest, and recording what was said (Newman, 1997).
Reliability and Validity

Reliability of research can be defined as the extent to which independent researchers could discover the same phenomena in different occasions to show that there is agreement on the description of the phenomena between the researcher and participants (Schumacher, 1993).

At the same time, it is important to acknowledge that qualitative research is personal and subjective in nature when it involves interviews and observations because no two researchers will have the same genuine responses from the respondents.

Because the researcher had been a staff member at one of the schools used for research, the social relationship of the researcher to some of the respondents posed a possible threat to the reliability of the research. To maximize reliability, it was decided to be aware of this relationship and utilize more than one method in data collection for the evidence.

To increase the reliability of the phenomena between the researcher and respondents, a tape recorder was used and interviews were transcribed. It is important to note that a tape recorder could have prevented respondents to be genuine in their answer and this could undermine the reliability of the research. However, in this case, the tape recorder did not affect the reliability and respondents seemed at ease and genuine in their responses.

Validity in research can be described as the confidence placed in a researcher’s data collection and data analysis. It refers to the ability of the research through the data collection and analysis to test what it intends to test and to represent the social world as accurately as possible (Neuman, 1997). In other words, the research questions had to be the right ones for the research topic and they had to cover adequately what was needed to understand the topic (relevance of on-site PD). To maximize the validity of the interview questions, it was ensured that the interview schedule was semi-structured, so that the researcher could go more in-depth with certain questions to ensure that the questions were the ones needed to elicit the evidence to understand the respondents’ views on PD.
To strengthen the validity of the data the following strategies were used: The lengthy data collection period which enabled continual data analysis, comparison and corroboration to refine ideas and find matches between research-based categories and participant reality (Schumacher, 1993). Qualitative research makes it possible for the researcher and respondent to understand one another’s language. For example, the researcher used the term “transformational leadership” which all respondents understood as “democratic leadership.” In other forms of research design, respondents might not have answered the question, because the language used was unfamiliar.

One of the more important considerations which represent possible threats to validity was that of “researcher effects” (Neuman, 1997). This is also referred to as ecological validity” (Neuman, 1997). A project has ecological validity when events would have occurred without a researcher’s presence (Neuman, 1997). Nonetheless, in qualitative research, data obtained from respondents is valid even though it represents a particular view or may be influenced by the researcher (Schumacher, 1993).

**Ethics**

Because the researcher is directly involved in collecting the data needed in qualitative research, many ethical dilemmas are raised and it is necessary to include a discussion on ethics. The research proposal was submitted to the School of Education Ethics Committee. For field work, the introduction of the researcher and the research to the schools was done overtly, in that the respondents were introduced to the researcher and the topic of research and the roles of the participants were clearly explained.

Normally the process of gaining access is difficult. However, access to schools was gained by getting permission from the Gauteng Department of Education. The schools visited were selected by the district office as schools rich in the type of information that was needed. Gatekeepers such as principals and district authorities were utilized to gain access to the schools.
Care was taken to keep the names of respondents confidential, although the names of the schools are revealed. No minors were interviewed; all the respondents were adult teachers ranging in age from about 23 to 60 years of age. An attempt was made to be unbiased with regards to those viewed as more powerful as opposed to those less powerful. In other words the SMT members have not been given more of a voice simply because of their status in the school but, if they have received more attention, it has been because some of them have shown more insight into the themes discussed.

A dilemma was noted about the tensions between the right of privacy and the right to know. In other words, some material might be unflattering about the respondents, but were essential to the researcher’s larger arguments. Therefore, care was taken to understand the sensitive nature of the information, but nonetheless retain the truth.

**Data Analysis**

We drew on the principles of thematic data analyses to analyze the data. The themes that this study focused on are those contained in the literature review, namely the form and relevance of on- and off-site PD, the different models of PD and how appropriate these are given the teacher status, either as worker or professional as well as looking at forms of teacher accountability as well as teacher appraisal.

This means that comparisons on different levels revealed information which gave a better understanding of what respondents really thought and why they said what they said. Therefore the following types of comparisons were made:

1. comparing the views, actions, etc. of different people.
2. comparing the data of individuals in a school.
3. comparing incidents in the two different schools.
4. comparing data with the concepts in the literature review.
5. comparing concepts with other concepts, as evidenced in the literature review (Perumal, 2005).
CHAPTER 4

Data Presentation and Analysis

This chapter consists of two parts: (1) a horizontal thematic analysis of School A and (2) a horizontal thematic analysis of School B. A horizontal thematic analysis consists of a comparison of the responses of interviewees. This tool of analysis seeks to sift through research responses in order to determine noticeable absences, similarities or differences in findings compared to existing literature around the chosen research themes.

1. Horizontal Thematic Analysis (School A)

This part consists of six sections. Sections one to three are focused on the profiles of the school and the interviewees, as well as giving an idea about the school culture and leadership. Section four is about the status of the teacher and the National Curriculum Statement (N.C.S.). Section five is about what teacher professional development is and section six is an analysis of on- and off-site professional development.

Four teachers and the principal were interviewed at School A. In order to understand their perspectives on the relevance of on-site professional development in South African schools, it was important to understand more about their teaching background and the environment in which they teach. We will start by looking at the profile of the school and the respondents.

a) School Profile

School A is an ex-Model C secondary school set in the suburb of Florida Park on the West Rand. The school has 1360 learners and 58 teachers. The learner/teacher ratio is 35/1, although this differs from subject to subject: Science is more favourable – 1/25 but
grade 8 classes have 1/38. The school’s matric pass rate varied from 90 to 96%, although they had achieved 100% in 1998.

The socio-economic background of learners differs. According to the principal of the school, most of them come from “quite difficult circumstances,” which means from a poor socio-economic background and from outside the area. Indeed, it does not mean that, because the school is situated in an affluent area, learners are as well. These learners travel by taxi, train and bus, from Soweto. Their parents are typical working class people, ranging from domestic servants to, according to the principal, “some fairly high flying office workers or executives.”

b) Respondent Profiles

All the respondents are qualified with university degrees in education, ranging from BA Ed to BA Hons. The respondents differed in years of experience, with the youngest teacher having three years of teaching experience and the principal 35 years. The other respondents have six years, thirteen years and twenty-one years of teaching experience.

Respondent 1 came to the school after relocating from Mmabatho in 1995. Her husband got a job in Florida. She was the first black teacher at the school and was hired specifically to help new black learners feel more comfortable (this school was starting racial integration as it had formerly been a whites-only school). She has 21 years of teaching experience and is currently the HOD of Mathematics.

Respondent 2 is a white teacher and teaching was not his initial choice. He started out at the school helping out because the school was short of a teacher, as a favour to his aunt, who is the deputy principal of the school. He ended up staying. He has 6 years of teaching experience and is currently the HOD of Economic and Management Sciences.
Respondent 3 is a white teacher who started teaching because she has “a passion for kids.” She had moved residence and an agency got her the job at the school. She has 3 years of teaching experience in English.

Respondent 4 is a black teacher and became a teacher because she liked teaching “then.” She had been teaching for twelve years in the Eastern Cape. Last year, she moved to Johannesburg and got a temporary post at another school. This year, she applied through the agency and got a post at the school. She has 13 years of teaching experience.

Respondent 5 is the white principal of the school. He became a teacher because it was something he had always wanted to do, to stand in front of a class and teach. He has “never really lost that desire.” School A had been his own high school (1962-1966). They knew him, he knew the school, there was a post available at the time, and he was qualified. He has been at the school ever since, because every time he looked for promotion, he managed to find it within the school. He has 35 years of teaching experience.

c) School Culture and Leadership

Although all the respondents were of the opinion that the principal uses a democratic leadership style, the evidence also indicates that teachers do not participate in all decision-making at this school. Respondent 4 indicated that all decisions are made by the SMT and gets passed down to the teachers via the HODs in the respective subject meetings. Respondent 2 explained that the management structure was strictly adhered to: principal, two deputies, HODs, senior teachers (they do the work of an HOD without the job-title) and lastly the teachers. The principal wished that decisions be made at a democratic level (his terminology) but also asserted that, when crunch time came and a decision had to be made, he was more than willing to do so, single handedly.

The principal has an open-door policy, and teachers are welcome to give suggestions. The principal gave an example of the types of suggestions he was open to, such as how to
curb the drug problem at the school. However, he gave little indication that he was open to suggestions on changes in curriculum, instruction or on managerial issues.

All respondents indicated that the teaching staff has a good working relationship, but this opinion did not include the relationship between the SMT and teachers. The SMT communicates with teachers via the HODs and vice versa. This created problems for the HODs. Respondent 1, the HOD for Mathematics, indicated that HODs were placed in the middle, and had to communicate directives to the staff and had to bear the brunt of teachers’ complaints and grievances about these directives. For example, she had to report an incident that one of the Mathematics teachers was forging marks for the learners, making him guilty of misconduct by doing this. Respondent 1 felt bad because she had to sit in on the informal hearings and this resulted in his resignation.

It was interesting to note that teachers included the HODs in the SMT, but the two HODs (Respondents 1 and 2) saw the SMT as a separate entity and its relationship between the principal and two deputies and the teachers as distant, while the two post level 1 teachers (Respondents 3 and 4) saw the relationship with the SMT (HODs, their immediate superiors) as good and described their HODs as helpful and supportive.

This difference could indicate that the teachers as well as the senior members of the SMT are unaware of the strain placed on the HODs, and that the SMT has little first-hand knowledge of what teachers really think and do. All the staff, SMT included, teach, so that the SMT is aware of some of the staff frustrations.

Concerning the issue of collegiality, teachers work collegially within their subject groups, but this collaboration does not extend to teaching and instruction. Teachers still work on their own in their classrooms.
d) Understanding the Status of Teachers and their Role under the National Curriculum Statement (N.C.S.)

Respondent 2 commented that success in teaching is producing good results, making a difference in the lives of learners, achieving the goals within your department, having a happy staff and job-satisfaction, recognition from the SMT and appreciation from parents.

Respondent 1 viewed successful teaching as punctuality, dedication, enthusiasm, honesty, giving all, being a teacher outside of the classroom, teaching being a life you are living and being who you are. Other respondents agreed.

On the question of the new curriculum and its impact on the status of teaching in South Africa, Respondent 2 felt strongly that teaching has become a joke, easy and wishy-washy. He felt that the introduction of the new curriculum in the FET-phase is unnecessary – too much administration and record-keeping, and also feels that the whole idea of the teacher as facilitator is a problem, because learners still need to be taught. He argued that teachers need to be imparters of knowledge and not facilitators of knowledge (which he understands to be the core of the N.C.S.), meaning that the building blocks and rudiments of certain subjects have to be taught and that learners cannot be expected to know what they have not been taught.

Respondent 1 felt that the new curriculum (the N.C.S.) has changed the status of teaching, because the amount of work has increased (for teachers). She meant that this new way of teaching, (i.e. learner centred) is not bad, but that there is staff negativity towards it because of the increase in workload. This respondent said boldly that “this change will be accepted with time, because it is a good thing.” But one has to ask what the consequences of this acceptance will be and what price will have to be paid, and by whom?
Respondent 3 (the younger teacher) felt that the status of teaching has changed with the N.C.S. and many older teachers don’t want to comply, thereby affecting learners. Older teachers’ negativity towards the N.C.S. de-motivates learners and breaks down learners’ commitment. In her opinion, older teachers don’t like younger teachers, who understand the new curriculum and know what is going on.

In a few more years, the teaching profession will be dominated by a younger generation of teachers who may be more willing to accept the new curriculum, but South Africa and other countries see a drop in people studying to be teachers, so the teaching profession is faced with a likely shortage of teachers in the future. Therefore, it is important to work with the existing teachers and impress “older” teachers that it is important to reflect on their own practices, be flexible and embrace the new curriculum which, if well implemented, can enhance not only the teaching and learning process but also the professional collegiality required by the N.C.S. because the latter assumes that teachers work and plan together. This is easier said than done, because most teachers do not have time to reflect on their practices and work collegially, partly because of their heavy workload, discipline and classroom management problems, but also because of the school culture.

The five respondents were of the opinion that teachers should be treated as professionals, but for differing reasons. Respondent 2 believed that education is the key to the success of both individual’s future as well as that of the country and that education can solve socio-economic problems. Teachers should be seen as professionals, because they are the educators that facilitate the whole process of formal learning in young children.

Respondent 1 asserted that the individual’s and country’s success are in the hands of teachers, that all academics and other professionals came through the hands of teachers. Therefore, because teachers build the country and make the future what it is, they should be seen as professionals.
Respondent 3 felt that teachers should go through a selection process in order to establish their suitability for teaching. Some teachers are born and some people become teachers because they feel that they have no other option and teaching is something “easy” to get into. Respondent 3 believed that part of being a professional is being born with the suitable qualities needed for teaching.

The principal argued that professionals are people who have made an “oath” to serve in their professions and in the same way as nurses and doctors get criticized for toyi-toying, as it is unethical for teachers to toyi-toyi and shirking their duty towards learners.

Thus, in this school, the staff’s understanding of teacher professionalism seems contested. According to the literature, teachers as professionals are people who can reflect on their own practices and are flexible to change their practices in order to accommodate the needs of their learners, but the respondents do not see it in the same way. According to them, what makes teachers professionals is the enormous responsibility of getting learners to a point where they can be trained and educated to reach the top fields and professions. Some argued that forsaking this “calling” in order to toyi-toyi for extra remuneration somehow demeans the nobility of teaching.

At the moment in South Africa, few young people study to be teachers partly because the low salary and status of teaching in the community seems to bother them, unlike in the past when teaching was a respected profession. Is it perhaps that teaching is now perceived by many as a civil servant’s job, accessible to many as long as they have the required professional qualifications but not leading to good salaries and respect in the community and with the government, which does not involve them as equals in its school reforms?

Respondent 2 believed that he should be treated as a professional, although his responses indicated ambivalence. He felt that he is accountable to the principal for fulfilling his job-description, and meeting the requirements, as set out by the SMT and Department. He argued that it is his responsibility and the requirement to get paid for this work. In that
sense, he seemed to see teachers as workers having to do a job and not being responsible for the development or achievements of learners.

Respondent 1, in contrast, felt that she is accountable to her employer or principal, her learners and their parents. She felt that the reason for her employment is to account to these people by improving the achievements of learners. She does this by reporting to parents, and by being prepared to teach learners well. She also discusses learners with parents and is a good grade coordinator.

Thus, these teachers do not mention many of the features mentioned by Hargreaves (2002), Little (1993), Fullan (2003) and others, when describing teachers as collegial or even individual professionals. These teachers seemed to be rather at an early stage of “the autonomous professional era” and nowhere near the age of collegial professionalism. It may be because many of those interviewed were older teachers. It will take a new generation of teachers (whose aim and purpose is to subject themselves to teacher accountability) to ensure teachers feel ownership for their schools and for the outcomes of their teaching and learning.

e) Understanding Professional Development

Two respondents felt that professional development was there as part of the whole school development. They argued that “professional development for personal benefit can only take you so far, because there is not much room for promotion in education.” Respondent 1 also felt that PD is for whole school development, because it includes everyone to do with school.

The teachers, HODs and principal all understand their professional development to be of assistance for discipline, classroom management, to get parents more involved and to instill in learners a culture of learning. None of them mentioned professional development to improve their work, approach and results. This information was surprising because the main reason for resources to be spent on PD is for the
improvement of instruction and for whole school development. However, in this school, teachers do not see a PD need for content or pedagogical knowledge, because they see the problems in school performance as the result of learners’ attitudes and parents’ commitment which are what their PD must focus on so that the teachers can change learners and parents’ attitudes.

Possible reasons for teachers thinking in this way might be that this is what the state desires of them. According to Little (1993), state and policymakers seem disposed to appeals by the state for professionalisation as opposed to professionalism. Professionalisation can be seen to develop and sustain a well-prepared and stable teacher workforce. When initiatives, like the IQMS, promise professionalisation of teaching by expanding opportunities and rewards in exchange for certain increased obligations from teachers, the state is disposed this (Little, 1993). These initiatives which promote professionalisation also aim at a major systemic transformation. (Little, 1993). This is designed to deal with system-wide problems which require more effective teachers through better teacher development, monitoring and support. Because the state develops initiatives that can be applied fairly to a large workforce, these tend to promote professionalisation, instead of professionalism.

So when the DoE introduces reforms like DAS, WSE policy and more recently the IQMS, it is argued here that it is promoting professionalisation rather than professionalism. Thus, it is questionable what DAS, WSE and the IQMS can do when stipulating the roles and responsibilities of educators and specifying their performance standards.

The views of the respondents about the introduction of the IQMS indicated that some teachers regarded it as more paperwork and something that was being forced on them rather than a system which will assist them. Even though the IQMS document does not make use of threatening language, some teachers found it nevertheless threatening and controlling. This seems to derive from the way in which the IQMS was introduced to them and/or whether teachers read fully the manual themselves.
There also seemed to be ambivalence in the respondents’ answers. On the one hand, they were complaining about the paperwork, but, on the other hand, they were also aware of the benefits of the IQMS for them. Respondent 1 said that the IQMS would *force* teachers to justify their assessments of learners (specifically the marks that they give learners). This response was linked to the fact that she resented the incident where she had to report the teacher who had tampered with the learners’ marks. This shows that this respondent identified the IQMS as a tool for monitoring teachers, and perhaps also as an opportunity for HODs to support their teachers in their duties. Respondent 4 said that the IQMS is helpful for *forcing* her to attend to her weaknesses, which were mainly about bad filing skills. She felt *pressurized* by the IQMS and this made her improve. Respondents 1 and 4 used words (in cursive) that indicate a monitoring function of the IQMS.

The risk with the IQMS is that it is not understood and accepted by teachers as an attempt to make them realize they need to develop further. Teachers seemed more concerned to comply in a tokenistic manner with the rules and regulations of the IQMS and improve their “technical/administrative” (as opposed to professional) abilities than attending to their teaching and learning situation which they kept on the back-burner. A possible reason is that teachers do not believe that teaching and learning is the most important focus for schools, districts and/or the GDE. The unions have often stated that the department wants to blame too much on schools and teachers and that there are other problems that need urgent focus, such as scarce resources and infrastructure, poor and disadvantaged communities, etc.

As a result, the IQMS seems to send a message, not about professional development, but about inspection linked to rewards and sanctions and that is why it is feared by some teachers. Many teachers believed that the IQMS is there to monitor them on whether or not they conform to what the department expects from them with the possible threat to their salary increases.

Respondent 1 said that the IQMS will affect her salary raise and she feared that if there is a problem between her and her superior, it might affect her salary negatively. Respondent
4 mentioned the importance of the 1% salary increase, but she also focused much more on the empowerment she would receive with the IQMS. She said that the IQMS encourages teachers to join a union, to attend workshops and thus become empowered. She did not view the scoring as negative, but as an incentive for improvement. Thus some teachers see the dual function of the IQMS, that of monitoring and support.

f) Experiences of On- and Off-Site Professional Development

Respondents generally understood on-site PD to be for the benefit of the individual school, while off-site PD is more generic and for more than one school under a district or even a province.

At this school, on-site professional development is preferred and viewed by the respondents in a very positive manner, while off-site professional development is viewed as mandatory, unwanted and a waste of time. Teachers battled to understand the new policies that are introduced in these off-site workshops and are not helpful for policy implementation. However, Respondent 4 singled out the New Protocol for Assessment, introduced by the District through workshops as a good off-site PD which will help in getting parents more involved with their children’s homework. It is interesting to note that this respondent mentioned how the workshop helped in involving parents and not for the purpose for which it was meant, namely to make teachers reflect on their assessment practices and improve their practices. When Respondent 4 was asked to give an example of off-site PD that she had experienced, she could not think of any, but when she was asked about the PD needs of the school, she then mentioned the New Protocol for Assessment. So she seemed to say that there is nothing wrong with her assessment methods, but that the teaching and learning and poor assessment results are influenced by a lack of parental support and that the New Protocol for Assessment will assist in getting parents more involved. If this is reflecting other teachers’ perspectives, then it seemed that the contents of the policy are not well understood and misused by teachers.
Respondent 2 described all off-site PD as “…mostly waffle.”, such as the one from SACE and from Boyz’ Town. In contrast, on-site PD at this school is much more appreciated by teachers. Examples of the types of on-site PD offered at the school on a regular basis are: Assertive Discipline Course, Dealing with difficult Learners in the Classroom, Leadership Styles (was intended for the SMT only). These courses were facilitated by outsiders. The New Teachers’ Orientation is offered once a year to new teachers, and is facilitated by the principal and the SMT. The New Teacher’s Orientation consists of guidelines for classroom management, how to do the register, teachers’ conduct towards the learners and classroom discipline. Teachers felt that this empowered them so that they had some control over their classes from the outset. The Assertive Discipline Course gave teachers methods on how to exert discipline by using their body language, facial expressions and tone of voice in order to assert their authority over difficult learners.

Respondent 4 mentioned a letter that she wrote to the editor of The Teacher (see Appendix C) in which she voices her praise and thanks to the school for orientating her, for giving her the (on-site) PD exposure she needed and for the ongoing support that not only she, but all teachers, get from the school.

It is important to note that School A was addressing one of the main concerns of teachers, namely classroom management and discipline. It is clear from this school that these initiatives are ongoing and that new teachers need orientation into the methods followed at the school. Classroom management and discipline issues seem to take up quite a large amount of effort and time. One could argue that this time on management issues should not obfuscate the need for time on professional development, which is also needed for instructional improvement and learner development.

Another positive outcome of the on-site initiatives is that it helps in promoting some uniformity of procedures to be followed by teachers in the classroom situation, because all teachers get orientated into these practices when they join the school. This opens
possibilities for teachers to support one another for a deeper sense of collegiality, even if it is not yet for the direct purposes of instructional improvement.

2. Horizontal Thematic Analysis (School B)

Section one, two and three are focused on the profiles of the school and the interviewees, as well as on the school culture and leadership. Section four is about the status of the teacher and the National Curriculum Statement (N.C.S.). Section five is all about what interviewees understand about teacher professional development and finally section six is an analysis of on- and off-site professional development. In order to get perspectives on the relevance of on-site professional development in schools, we interviewed four teachers as well as the principal of the school.

a) School Profile

School B is a primary school situated in Eldorado Park, a township area. The socio-economic circumstances of the families represented by the learners are very poor, with about 50%-60% of parents being unemployed. This applies to learners from the direct surrounding areas and informal settlements. About 30%-40% of learners travel in from Soweto. These learners are better-off, because their parents are professionals, e.g. nurses and teachers, and transport their children to the school.

There are 1100 learners to 27 teachers or a teacher /learner ratio of 40/1, but in reality it is more because the principal and deputy principal do not teach, as they concentrate on administrative duties. So it is evident that some classes have more than 40 learners. For example, one respondent teaches a class of 48 learners. This is significant because it leaves no time for the teacher to give individual attention to learners or make attempts at group work.
b) Respondent Profiles

The four respondents were identified by the principal as teachers interested and with exposure and interest in professional development issues. The principal was the fifth respondent.

Respondent A has a Junior Teacher’s Diploma. Her job description is a grade 1 teacher and acting HOD as well as grade tutor for Grade 1. She has 6 years teaching experience. It is interesting to note that, while she has junior teacher qualifications and a few years’ experience, she has a great amount of responsibility and seniority placed on her.

Respondent B has a teacher’s diploma and B Ed Hons and 11 years of teaching experience. She chose teaching because of job security. She came to this school because of location; she lives in the area. Although she has double the amount of teaching experience and higher qualifications than respondent A, she does not serve on the SMT or have management responsibilities. She applied for the post occupied by Respondent D, but was not successful, as he got the post.

Respondent C is a “teacher by profession.” She is a specialist in ECD (Early Childhood Development) and a registered assessor with the SETA. She has 25 years of teaching experience. She came to teach at the school because she was asked by the principal to come and start the pre-school. The condition of employment was that she had to produce the results that were expected, namely, to feed her children into the primary school, which she did well in the past six years. She also won the National Teacher’s Award for Best Practices at ECD while she was working at the school.

It is interesting to note that this respondent and Respondent A indicated that they are followers more than leaders, even though they occupy management positions with certain responsibilities. These respondents also indicated that they preferred to go with the flow and rarely questioned expectations and directives, yet they are managers, expected to make decisions and question.
Respondent D has a Teachers’ Diploma, 4 year Diploma, B Ed Hons and is currently doing his Masters degree (specializing in Mathematics). He has 12 years teaching experience. He always wanted to be a teacher and had developed a passion for teaching when he was in Grade 10. He liked the idea of community service and working with children, and felt that, if he could not reach the masses, he could at least reach children. He came to teach at this school because he applied for a promotion post, and got the appointment. He is a HOD. Respondent B had applied for the same post, but lost to Respondent D.

Respondent E has a diploma in Education (specializing in the Foundation Phase), a Higher Diploma (specializing in pre-Primary Education), a BA and B Ed degree (specializing in School Management). She has twenty years teaching experience and is also the principal at the school. She became principal because she always saw herself as someone who could make a difference. “Principal was the next natural step to making that difference.” She came to this school as an HOD of the Foundation Phase.

While Respondents A, D and E are all serving on the SMT, there was a clear difference between the responses of Respondent A and those of Respondents D and E. Respondent A tended to respond in a similar manner to respondent C and both had very different responses to those of Respondent B. For example, it transpired that Respondents A and C found it important to cooperate with their superiors and with district directives and this was indicated by very “positive” responses to questions on the N.C.S.. Although Respondent B’s responses were nearly always “negative”, I found them more balanced and thought provoking, because her comments indicated that she questioned new policies and showed critical awareness of educational issues.

Respondent B showed an undercurrent of unhappiness and bitterness linked to the promotion post she failed to obtain. Respondent B was always careful to emphasize that what she had to say was her opinion only, which she kept reaffirming as if she wanted to protect herself. She wanted me to understand that she was entitled to her opinions, and wanted to protect this right.
Respondents D and E seemed freer to voice their opinions and were neither guarded nor afraid to do so. These respondents added new dimensions and independent thought and ideas, as will be indicated later on.

c) School Culture and Leadership

Teachers interviewed agreed that the working relationship between the SMT and the teachers was to a larger extent good.

Respondent B felt that, because the SMT behaves as an entity on its own, its relationship with the teachers is not as free-flowing and unrestricted as the relationship among teachers.

Respondent D (on the SMT) differentiated between the leadership styles of the SMT as a body and that of the principal. He argued that some SMT members thought that they knew it all, but that there are some quite knowledgeable teachers on the staff. He said that the principal needed to be commended on being more participative and transparent, “She’s open and asks and allows for input and advice. She taps into your expertise. There’s a teacher she taps into to write letters, because of his exceptional writing and vocabulary skills.” But he felt that “the SMT is still a bit closed. I feel we can open it up a little more. It is transparent to a certain degree, there are certain decisions that they have to make [alone] and others [that] can be made on a more democratic level.”

Respondents A and C described the main leadership style of the SMT as “democratic”. Respondent C argued that “the SMT does not control the meeting; all opinions are heard and there is sharing.” Respondent A added that teachers have “room to air views, your talents are nurtured, developed and exposed by the SMT.” Respondent C described the SMT’s leadership as adopting “an open-door policy”, but added that there were rules to be strictly adhered to, because “without these rules the school cannot function.” This respondent used the example of traffic rules that had to be obeyed and said that “we have
to meet each other halfway. The idea is that you can be heard if something is worrying you.”

The principal described the leadership style as participative, collaborative and eclectic but explained that it depended on what was needed or discussed, “…sometimes you have to balance it out with what is needed according to situations.”

On the school culture, Respondent C explained that teachers relate to one another and help one another. They have formal discussions on teaching methods and socialize. The principal felt that the new curriculum did not give teachers a choice, “teachers have to work together professionally whether they agree on a social level or not.” She argued that teachers’ social relationships were of consequence, but were not essential to the smooth running of the school.

Respondent B described the working relationship as “fair” and she was not entirely happy. She said there was a lack of socializing among teachers which created a lack of warmth and happiness among staff. She was of the opinion that the school as work place, is not just about work, but should be a place where friendships are fostered. It was interesting to note that the word “socialize” was raised by three respondents. It is because there had been previous complaints about the lack of socializing and friendship among teachers.

Teachers at the school work well together. Staff meetings are where they discuss those issues that are pertinent to the school in general and where they also discuss new reforms e.g. the Protocol for assessment. These discussions are led by the principal. Respondent D said teachers were very collegial when it came to finding easier ways to implementing new reforms. The reason they work together was to prevent teachers from feeling isolated in dealing with the new reforms and doing their own thing and covering their tracks.

According to Respondent C, there was teacher accountability along the traditional bureaucratic line. Teachers do a quarterly report on how things are going in their class.
This is submitted to the HODs who draw up quarterly reports on the specific grade or phase, which is eventually submitted to the principal and then to the district.

The school has a SIP (School Improvement Plan) which includes the teachers’ PD needs as teachers are asked to identify their own developmental needs to organize on-site, or district workshops.

Thus, there seems to be a combination of instructional and transformational leadership at the school and staff work relations are generally good, although there is some strain between staff and the SMT

d) Understanding the Status of Teachers and their role in the Revised National Curriculum Statement

At this school, it was not easy to understand the status of teachers. All respondents felt that they were professionals. Respondent D showed an interest in professional collaboration as Hargreaves (2000) and Kelly (1997) defined it. Respondent D had an interesting definition of professionalism, implying that professionals do not need bureaucratic accountability: “being able to make your own, informed decisions. I don’t need someone to lead me and check up on me. If you need that, then you are not a professional, then you are working for someone.”

Respondent A said that teachers decided on how to implement the new curriculum, adding that, although teachers went for workshops for the new curriculum, they needed to use their own discretion and judgement to implement it, while observing the G.D.E’s directives. However, respondent B felt that there was not much input teachers could give when it came to curriculum. “We go on training and are told what to do,…” but she agreed that there were minor changes teachers could make that would be more appropriate to the environment in which they taught and the child’s needs. She added that, “We have input in themes, but not the broad outline of the curriculum, which is top-down, from the GDE” (actually DoE, our emphasis)
The principal responded by saying that the staff generally followed the GDE’s directives with regards to the new curriculum, “because none of their requests are really unreasonable.” She added that the only problem was that the GDE wanted everything done with “impossible haste.” She contrasted the haste of the present government with the old department “doing everything in its stride, gradually.” She added that it was difficult to comply well when things had to be done speedily.

Thus, Respondent A and C agreed that the National Curriculum Statement (N.C.S.) has changed the status of teaching in that teaching is now learner-centred; parents have to get involved in helping learners with homework, research and projects. It should be noted that Respondent C is not saying that the N.C.S. has given teachers more autonomy or that teachers have now to reflect on their practice, like professionals. This respondent said that the NCS is learner-centred and the parent has to supervise the learner.

While all agreed that they saw themselves as professionals, they believed that the N.C.S. did not allow for teachers to exercise their professionalism even though in reality the N.C.S. allows for greater teacher autonomy in deciding on the curriculum and what is taught, thus teachers at this school don’t agree that this is what the N.C.S. promotes. Respondent B argued that the N.C.S. has meant a loss of joy in teaching and less enjoyment of learning and education, because teaching has become bogged-down with paper work. Respondent B feels bombarded with new reforms and ideas and when teachers start getting the idea of things, these get changed again.

So these respondents believe that teachers are now responsible for greater administration, discipline and classroom management. According to Kelly (1997), these responsibilities can be those of teachers perceived as workers who do not have much autonomy, yet these respondents insist that they are professionals. Respondents believe that they have subject and pedagogical knowledge, but they are not the priority. Could it be an indication that these teachers believe that the N.C.S. represents the threat identified by Hargreaves’ (2000) in the age of the post-professional, where he warns that certain forces can lead to the diminishing or undermining of teacher professionalism.
Thus, the autonomy professed to be at the basis of the N.C.S. curriculum is not perceived as real by these respondents. Hargreaves (2000) warns that, under the “Post-professional Age”, teachers are subjected to detailed measurement and control by using narrowly defined frameworks. While the N.C.S. is presented as giving teachers more curriculum autonomy, in reality teachers at this school experience it as control.

Respondent D, concerned about teachers’ lack of professionalism, said that teachers should be given a framework for what professionalism is meant to be. At the moment teachers are confused by all the mixed messages on this issue of professionalism. They are required to be professionals at times, but are also treated as workers. He explains that a professional is not supposed to have a set amount of working hours, and that they are supposed to be on duty 24/7, with extra-mural activities, parents’ evenings and weekends and having to give up their private time. Yet, teachers can’t claim remuneration for this extra time. It is interesting to note that this teacher’s idea of professionalism is different to what Hargreaves (2000) refers to as professionalism, namely, a commitment to the learning and teaching process and an accountability and ownership of the learners’ results which cannot be blamed on someone else.

Even though the Department of Education does define what professionalism is (in its Norms and Standards for Educators), teachers like Respondent D seem to lack clarity on what teacher professionalism means and what is expected of educators who describe themselves as professionals.

e) Understanding Professional Development:

Teachers’ responses to their professional development needs were interesting as they failed to mention the need to improve their practice and subject knowledge but rather their administration and management issues such as “Stress Management” and “Leave Documents” and the “New Assessment Protocol,” as well as greater parental involvement.
According to the literature, for the worker teacher, PD is just about how to improve their transmission of the syllabus, as they are not in charge of pedagogical knowledge. The worker just does as he/she is told. However, as teachers become more professional, they have to think about the content and the way they impart it, with an eye at the same time on how to stay flexible to meet the needs of the learners. PD for the professional teachers is therefore about reflecting on your practice and changing practice in the light of the increasingly difficult context.

Thus, Elmore & Burney (1999) identified PD for teachers as a way to improve instruction but it is clear that respondents at this school did not think that they had a PD need regarding content knowledge and teaching ability, but believed that the problem with learners’ progress and poor literacy achievements came from other issues such as:

1. Time to do more paperwork and administration work with the N.C.S.
2. Time to improve classroom management and discipline
3. The serious and problematic lack of parental involvement

It is interesting that teachers indirectly associated their poor learner achievement with the difficulty to manage and administer their paperwork and classes. While recognizing the literacy problem, teachers believed that parental involvement can be one of the solutions to this problem. It seemed as if they were saying that they did not need PD on instructional improvement, but that learners would be helped in their literacy achievements if parents got involved. They argued that township schools, unlike Ex-Model C schools and private schools, suffered from a lack of parental involvement and, as a result, their learners had a poor literacy level. Teachers seemed to be passing the buck when they said, “Give us parents who want to be involved.” But, they should also have been asking “How do we get parents involved?” Although teachers wanted parents involved, they did not want the responsibility of getting parents involved because, according to Respondent B, they were already overloaded with work. Another influencing factor was the learners’ culture of no reading. Respondent A explained that there was an extra-problem as the majority of learners were second language speakers and the school used English as the medium of instruction.
Thus, the respondents seemed to feel de-professionalized by the administration work and classroom management difficulties and they could not handle their responsibility in improving the learning of learners. They felt that they were good teachers, knew the material and could adapt to an extent the curriculum to the learners, but they did not want to take on that there was a big change in the nature of the learners they got, which needed them to re-think radically what instructional aspects they needed to change with learners learning in a second language and with little parental support. In this sense, teachers did not adapt to their new learners and their challenges. They did not reflect on how they had to use more flexibility to adapt to the changing learner reality and context.

Respondent E suggested teacher assistants were needed and Respondent D said that experts should go and train them on how to deal with the learners with their new and challenging problems. These suggestions endorsed what took place at Community District #2 of New York, where mere exhortations to change their practice were not enough to inspire teachers to improve their teaching practices, but it was necessary to bring in experts and assistants to mentor teachers and make them work collegially in order for instruction to improve.

As Hargreaves (2000) argues, with the demands education makes in this new era of globalisation, teachers will have to start teaching in ways they themselves were never taught. But this comment refers to Britain. In South Africa the new curriculum requires a lot of administration and management in a context of bad resources and big class sizes. Under these conditions, teachers can’t really give what they have, because they spend their time managing their classrooms. Respondent D said there had been a change of expectation in their work. The reform shift in the US was not gradual, as Kelly (1997) explains in her article. According to Respondent E, very little resource and very little support, input and development went into this new curriculum. This ended up demoralizing teachers, even though the curriculum was giving them more professional autonomy as they could teach whatever they wanted, any way they wanted to, as opposed to the teacher proof syllabus of the past. Instead of experiencing and enjoying this
autonomy, their implementation context was such that it ended up being an intensification of work.

What emerged was that some teachers, like Respondent A and E, were interested in growing and they noticed that OBE was a way of giving them more professional growth, but they could not get there because they experienced OBE as an intensification of work which led to a de-professionalisation of teachers. Teachers are de-professionalized when, instead of teaching, they are made to do paperwork checks in the form of: assessment rubrics per individual learner per assignment, lesson plans, outcomes recorded per lesson, assessment standards recorded per lesson and per assignment and test. So, teachers like Respondent B, were not thinking about OBE making them more professional, they were thinking about all the slave work they had to do.

As noted by the ELRC: “Finally, it was clear from discussion with teachers, and from observation that the amount of paperwork and administration is onerous. Much of the paperwork that teachers are required to do is designed to ensure that teaching and assessment occurs regularly, including requiring that teachers indicate the completion of certain assessment standards, the specification of which outcomes have been addressed, and the detail recording of marks. Ironically, it is precisely the policy which attempts to guarantee that instruction and assessment takes place that serves to undermine instructional time. This happened in particular when used class time to complete administration tasks.” (Chisholm et al, 2005: 9)

On the IQMS, respondents were generally positive and seemed to have made it their own. After having received the circular about the IQMS, the principal and the staff studied it and tried to grapple with it, in order to make sense out of it.

Respondent A said that the IQMS could affect her positively because the development she was going to receive would benefit her and her learners in different ways. That was the first time that a respondent mentioned that teacher PD would for the direct benefit of learners.
Respondent B said that it would provide her with the opportunity to reflect on her own development needs. She saw it as an opportunity for self-reflection, where teachers would start thinking of their strengths and weaknesses and possibly get the PD they needed for improvement. Thus, the IQMS could make teachers reflect on their practices and consider their developmental needs for the benefit of their learners.

Respondent C had a more objective view and said that the IQMS could affect teachers either negatively or positively and that the ball was in the teachers’ court. She explained that teachers would have to bear the consequences of their decisions, because the IQMS could be used as an opportunity for development, promotion and better remuneration or could be boycotted and then teachers would have to face the consequences of demotion and/or no increment.

Respondent E saw the IQMS only for his benefit and increment and was concerned about the possibility of demotion.

Respondent A mentioned that compliance to the IQMS was compulsory for teachers, but that it should also be compulsory for all schools and districts as this would make teachers feel less isolated. Respondent E also argues that the broader PD needs identified by many teachers would be addressed, but was concerned that more specialized PD, identified by only a few teachers, would be considered last.

Respondent B mentioned that, as with all policy, the IQMS was top-down. She questioned the scoring process, particularly the self-evaluation, and wanted to know, “who (of the teachers) would score themselves negatively?”

Respondent C concluded that the IQMS and its salary incentives encouraged PD as a goal that could help and that could be achieved if teachers became more self-driven, with an initiative of their own for PD.
Respondent B felt that the only constraint was time. Spending time with her DSG would take her out of her classroom. She felt that that defeated the purpose to an extent because the IQMS would take away valuable teaching time.

Thus, it was interesting to see that the IQMS and its incentives have made these teachers aware of the advantages of PD but the question was to know how they would diagnose their strengths and weaknesses and what area of their work they would need PD for, even though the IQMS guided the areas to look at by specifying seven performance standards for them.

f) Experience of On-Site/Off-Site Professional Development

On-site PD was identified by Respondent B “for the specific school, educators and learners,” whereas, according to Respondent E, off-site PD was mainly organized by the district for a larger number of schools within a district or even nationally. The off-site PD was important as it made teachers feel that the district was concerned about them, and that they were not left on their own.

Respondents B and D saw no difference and could not distinguish between on- or off-site PD because PD was PD. On-site school-initiated PD was received more positively, because the school uses on-site staff development time to clarify policies. The other aspect of what they were doing on-site was clarification of the off-site PD which introduced new reforms to them. As a staff, they unpacked the whole thing from their district workshop in staff meetings where there was an open discussion or forum. Certain people on the staff (e.g. Respondent D and the principal) were readers (and they read all the circulars) and they then led discussions on how to implement the reforms, e.g. the New Protocol for Assessment.

Off- and on-site PD reinforced each other at this school. Elmore & Burney (1999), discussing American teachers, mention that they share and reflect on their own practice, but in SA, teacher collaboration and sharing is rather on how to implement the many policies targeted for schools, which shows that the areas to support teachers in terms of
PD must be understood in context and in terms of these reforms. Teachers have to find ways of dealing with and implementing these reforms, and finding the best possible way forward given the implementation challenges of South Africa’s unique reforms. Thus, the on-site PD that Elmore & Burney (1999) are talking about (i.e. reflecting on your practice), is not yet a major issue in South African schools, partly because there’s so much more to deal with first and also because many South African teachers might not all be able to recognize good and bad practices.
CHAPTER 5

Interpretation of Findings

Section one of this chapter consists of a comparison and contrast between the findings of the two schools; section two is an attempt to develop an argument from the research findings (and especially the unexpected findings) around the research question to show that many of the findings do not support or go against arguments in the Northern literature.

1. Comparing Schools A and B

The two schools have some similarities and differences. The first difference is that School A is a high school situated in a suburban area, while school B is a primary school situated in the township. A similarity is that teachers have a reasonably good working relationship and tend to work together on the new curriculum. Their teachers felt that they should not be held accountable for the learners’ progress and achievements on the ground that they are not the main reasons for the learners’ slow development since many of these learners are often not supported by their parents and home resources. Both schools are pro-active when it comes to understanding the new curriculum and to identifying issues for teacher professional development, although School B uses on-site and off-site PD to reinforce each other, while School A separate the two completely. They privilege PD for issues of discipline, classroom management, administration and parental involvement but they do not identify their own teaching practices as problematic nor do they feel a need to improve their pedagogy or subject knowledge, indicating that the major challenges were not about instructional improvement but mainly about how to deal with new and different types of learners and how to implement problematic policies in the classroom. It is only School B which has indicated a need for instructional improvement, given the literacy problem of its learners. This may be a reflection of the primary learners of that school and their growing impediment to learning.
Finally school A is already testing and implementing the new strategies learnt on-site on classroom management and discipline, while School B is still at the stage of identifying these needs.

These main similar findings about the PD agenda in these schools are interesting as they indicate that there could reflect a trend or new priorities in many schools under the pressure of implementing so many new reforms: namely the challenge in adapting to the new schooling realities produced by reforms which led to new types of learners in schools (because of the choice given to parents for their children’s schools) and new administrative demands from the new curriculum. This shows, as mentioned earlier, that the issue about the PD focus (of the teachers’ work), form (on-site versus off-site) and approach (who initiated and how is it carried out) have to be contextualized and trends at a particular moment in time are difficult to generalize across countries or time.

2. Interpretation of the Findings

The research study aimed at investigating the value of school-initiated on-site PD in two South African schools. The main arguments of the literature and the data findings from the two schools do not match tightly, and lead to interesting perspectives on PD in South African schools.

The aim of this study was to look at how school-initiated on-site PD works and evolves in the new education dispensation, especially since the new education dispensation, and its curriculum reforms in particular, have impacted and changed teachers’ status, their challenges around collegiality and professional peer support. This was investigated by eliciting the teachers’ voices concerning their reaction to the reforms and what it meant in terms of their status, PD needs, relevant PD forms and focus as well as their experiences of effective PD.

In trying to formulate a conceptual framework for this research investigation, we based our research on some premises or assumptions derived from the literature which analyzed
new trends around teacher professionalism and teacher professional development. Authors, such as Hargreaves, Kelly and Elmore & Burney are keen to argue that the status of teachers as professionals and the appropriate forms of PD must be aligned and focus on instructional improvement and whole school development. This is because their premise (see Elmore and Burney, 1999) is that teachers, as professionals, are mainly concerned about improving their practices and feel that they should be accountable for their results (measured by learners’ achievements). Increasingly, teachers in these countries find that, by sharing and reflecting on their teaching practices together, they have more chance of achieving professional change and improvement. Added to this, teachers will seek ways in which they can be flexible in their practices to suit the school context and new needs of their learners.

The findings indicated that the new reforms (and especially the more equitable access of learners to schools as well as the curriculum reforms) have substantially impacted on teachers’ work and challenges. One of the most significant findings of the ELRC’s (2005) report on educator workload in South Africa indicates that educators use 41% of the total time they spend on school related work on teaching. The rest of the time is spent on planning and preparation, assessment, evaluation, management and supervision, professional development, etc. Teaching represents 16 hours per week out of a possible 22½-27½ hours. The remaining time is spent on administration and other activities, which crowd out teaching time (ELRC, 2005). It was also found that school size and class size matter, because they demand more administration and therefore take more time away from teaching.

The new curriculum reforms give some autonomy to teachers when they construct their curriculum for their learners but, at the same time, they feel that the curriculum does burden them with administrative work. They also indicated (with one or two exceptions) that they cannot be held accountable for the learners’ achievements because of the changing realities and burdens they face in their classrooms. As a result, the kind of PD needs was not what the researcher expected to find, as the respondents did not see PD as the main vehicle to whole school development, or to instructional improvement. Teachers
felt that the new reforms impacted so seriously on issues of classroom discipline, management and overall teacher administrative work that they felt that they needed, above all, support systems and resources to help with these new issues of discipline, classroom management and administration. They therefore identified PD as a means to help them with these issues rather than the classical focus of PD, which the literature focuses on, on the improvement of instruction.

Because these teachers are so focused on the need for discipline, administration and classroom management, they do not seem to have the time or inclination to reflect on their teaching practices and how PD could improve those. Thus, the issue of promoting collegiality and professional peer support for the sake of instructional improvement, as noted in US, Canadian and UK classrooms by Elmore and Burney (1999), were not a consideration for these South African teachers who did not see the improvement of their teaching practices as a key to assist them with their changed schooling realities.

The data collected from these two schools don’t support these premises or assumptions, showing that reproducing this kind of research in South African schools is important, as it might reveal an interesting different trend, which reflects the different context and different issues confronting more urgently teachers.

With regards to the premise about teacher’s professional status and work, it is worth repeating what the literature says. Elmore & Burney (1999) mention that teachers as professionals, who are expected to make decisions on curriculum, must reflect on their own practices and seek ways to improve and change their practice and maximize their learners’ achievements in the context of the school, as they are expected to account somehow for their learners’ results.

The South African teacher respondents explained that they were professionals although their definition was a very specific and narrow one of producing the lawyers and doctors and other professionals. Other teachers answered that professionals are supposed to be on duty 24/7 (professionals like doctors are), determine their own salaries and are seen as
experts in their field; i.e. in the subjects they teach. It was clear that some teachers had not given much thought to the meaning of professionalism and what it means in terms of how they do their work and what they account for.

Thus, the literature’s meaning of teacher professionalism is very different from the narrow conception of professionalism, understood by many South African teachers, a reflection of how their professional association, SACE, has not managed to get a deep debate around these issues of professionalism.

In order to gain a better understanding of the status of teachers in South African schools, it is essential to get an historical background on the role of teachers’ organizations in shaping that status over the years. The main teacher organizations in South Africa are NAPTOSA (The National Association for Professional Teachers Associations) and SADTU (The South African Democratic Teachers Union). NAPTOSA is a federation of teachers of different race groups, which has its roots in the apartheid education system and SADTU, which began in the 1980s, was linked to oppositional movements and showed racially exclusive forms of organization (Chisholm, 1999).

One of the differences between these two teachers’ organizations is around the discourse that emerged around whether teachers are “workers” or “professionals” (Chisholm, 1999). On the one hand, NAPTOSA, which had different racially divided associations of teachers, bound by common values, promoted the view of teachers as “professionals,” while SADTU and its younger more radical teachers of the 1980s described themselves as educational “workers,” who saw education and politics as “inseparably linked” and therefore the need to use your worker power to challenge the state policies (Chisholm, 1999).

The assertion of teachers as workers went with a model of the school as an industry and enabled them and SADTU to forge links with COSATU (The Congress of South African Trade Unions) (Chisholm, 1999). “The ‘teachers as workers’ identity led [the union] to
the [predominant] focus on workplace issues, amenable to collective action and bargaining.”

This explains why the terms teachers as “professionals” and teachers as “workers” have taken on a uniquely South African definition, as “symbolic markers of political difference” (Chisholm, 1999), whereas Northern authors, like Hargreaves (2000), define these terms differently and solely in terms of educational work and performance.

To understand why teachers understand differently their status from one another, it is important to understand the racially different character of schools under Apartheid, which was based on the participation and representation of whites at the exclusion of blacks (Chisholm, 1999). White teachers were afforded this participation and representation and aimed at developing their professionalism whereas blacks were excluded through the use of bureaucracy and racially discriminatory measures, which treated them and made them respond as workers (Chisholm, 1999). This meant that white teachers as professionals were represented in policy making at state levels, were allowed to negotiate, consult and participate, and enjoy a certain degree of autonomy and properly resourced schools along with professional support, while black teachers were controlled by bureaucracy, hierarchy and authoritarianism “control over curriculum and assessment was bureaucratically determined rather than teacher-driven” (Chisholm, 1999).

When the new reforms, such as OBE, were introduced, they assumed a certain basic level of professionalism which did not exist everywhere, especially in poor black schools. As a result, black teachers battled to cope with the transition from the old discriminatory bureaucratic systems of control to now having the opportunity to decide on curriculum issues. As Harley and Parker (2000) argue, teachers had to cope with the transition from the “old” to the “new” which changed their identity from workers who regurgitated teacher-proof syllabi to a learner-centred curriculum which asks them to adapt their curriculum to the learners’ context. This represented a huge shift for teachers, not made easier by the lack of support capacity and resources in the bureaucracy as well as other reforms which led to teacher redeployment. According to Chisholm (1999), the teacher
redeployment of 1995-1997 was one of the main causes of “larger classes, increased volumes of work and discipline problems”. At the same time OBE was introduced, with all its paperwork, which added a lot of administrative monitoring work to teachers who felt overload with this extra work. Thus, the majority of South African teachers were struggling to move into a mode which required them to become more professional.

The second premise of the northern literature, that teacher PD should be directed at instructional improvement is based on the assumption that professional teachers account for their learners’ results. This was not confirmed in this research because these teachers challenged the idea that they should account for learners’ results as there were many conditions over which they did not have control.

It is important to understand why South African teachers think the way they do about their professional development needs, but it is also “difficult to talk about South African teachers in universal terms [given their wide disparities]” (Harley & Parker, 2000). Teachers, indeed, argued that the new reforms were difficult to implement and created new problems in the classrooms. So the teachers of this research identified their PD needs in the area of discipline, classroom management and administrative or paperwork duties. They also identified the need for parental involvement as a key challenge and component which would assist in improving the achievements of their children, since they felt that their instruction was professional and not in need of improvement as such. In other words, teachers saw little problems with their own teaching practices. For example, teachers at School B identified a serious literacy problem at the school, which they blamed on parents who needed to help learners at home. So, teachers wanted to improve their learners’ results by finding ways to get parents more involved and supportive at home.

As a result, these teachers do not think about reflecting on what they were doing in the classroom to deal with the learners’ literacy problem, as they were not prepared to accept responsibility for this problem. Yet, according to Elmore & Burney (1999), teachers as professionals should accept some responsibility for their learner’s learning problems and
work on ways to solve the problem by reflecting, sharing and changing and improving their own practices, etc. Little (1993) also pushes the definition of a teacher professional as an intellectual who does not adopt practices that are thought to be universally effective, but who is flexible and adapts his/her practice to meet their learners at the point where they are, irrespective of their out-of-school circumstances.

Teachers who only seek help with discipline, filing and classroom management are, according to Little (1993), merely technicians or workers who transmit knowledge to the learners, and who pass the buck to others when faced with a crisis or learners’ poor literacy. To work on such problems as learners’ literacy, teachers have to accept the need to collaborate and work harder with their colleagues. Authors like Hargreaves (2000), Reitzug (2002), Fullan (2003), Little (1993), etc. all suggest that collegiality and on-site teacher work collaboration are among the most effective ways for instructional improvement, which they understand to mean how teachers can impact more effectively on learners.

To sum up, although these arguments in the northern literature seem pertinent, they are pre-mature for the majority of teachers. This is because they have to face the implementation challenges of new sophisticated curriculum policies without much departmental support and they also have to be given space and support to become professional in the true sense of the word. This notion is not widespread in South Africa as the majority was so discriminated against and poorly treated that they did not have the space nor could access the support and professional development to transform them into true professionals.

Harley & Parker (2000), in trying to understand curriculum and teacher development in OBE in South Africa, use Durkheim’s (1964) two conceptual forms of social solidarity, namely mechanical, and organic solidarity.

The stronger emphasis within a society that conforms to mechanical solidarity is in its propensity to hierarchy in family, clan, tribe, church, race, language, gender, etc (Harley
& Parker, 2000) whereas organic solidarity suggests interdependence among individuals. In this case, society is no longer segmental, but (in the case of teachers) has a need for working collegially, on a more horizontal scale as opposed to a vertical, hierarchical scale. This is obviously not yet the case in South African schooling.

**Conclusion**

Thus, this research investigates the implementation of professional development initiatives in South African schools and how teachers understood their status as teachers and how this affected their understanding of professional development, and in particular on-site PD, which the literature argues is the best form of PD today for teachers.

The findings were unexpected and yet made sense. Many South African teachers are unlikely to be fully aware of the meaning of professionalism and development of teachers as professionals. They are not aware of the importance of the main purpose for professional development, namely instructional improvement in their practices and support.

The possible reasons for the above is that many South African teachers have not had the opportunity of teachers in other countries to move gradually from being workers, transmitting a teacher-proof curriculum, to becoming professionals, deciding on their curriculum and professional development to improve their learners’ results. They were not given time and support to reflect on these issues, and they have not been conscientized or motivated to engage with professional challenges. Rather, many South African teachers feel over-whelmed by the many new educational policies since 1996 such as the new N.C.S., Assessment Protocols and IQMS. These policies have led to many implementation challenges which burden them and at times make them feel “de-professionalized” (Hargreaves, 2002), bitter about their non-involvement in these reforms as well as over-burdened to the point that they don’t want to reflect on their practices to improve the teaching and learning experience in their schools.
The result is that many teachers want to be treated as professionals in an attempt to redress the injustices of the past but they do understand the full meaning of professionalism and do not understand that they should improve their instruction and its impact on learners’ results, for which they should be accountable.

The suggested way forward is to educate and support South African teachers to move and work gradually towards a stronger status as professionals, to guard against forces that seek to de-professionalize teachers and to ensure that instructional practices are improving through genuine support and opportunities to learn afforded to teachers.
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APPENDIX A

WRITTEN CONSENT FORM

To the participants in this research:

I am an M Ed student at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I am doing research for a research report. The topic for the research is:


In order to do this research I need the participation of teachers in an interview that will take more or less one hour of your time. The interviews are conducted one on one.

The interviews will be recorded on an audio tape and I may make some notes while we are speaking.

The data from these interviews will be used in my research report, combined with the related literature that I have read and studied.

Your name will not be mentioned in my research report. I will refer to you as Respondent A, etc. The name of the school will be mentioned.

Please sign this letter to indicate that you agree to participate in the interview and that you agree to the conditions in this letter.

Signature: _________________________ Date: ________
APPENDIX B

SCHEDULE OF INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview Questions: (Qualitative and Semi-structured)

Profile of interviewee
1. What are your Academic/Professional qualifications?
2. How many years of teaching experience do you have?
3. Why did you become a teacher?
4. How did you come to teach at this school?
5. Describe the working relationship among the teachers in this school.
6. Describe the working relationship between the teachers and the SMT/principal.
7. When/where are you expected to work individually/collegially?
8. When/how do you work best as a school staff? (collegially, individually)

Profile of the school

1. What is the teacher/learner ratio at the school? How many teachers and learners are there?
2. What is the matric pass rate?
3. Describe the socio-economic background of the learners. What jobs do their parents do?
4. Describe the main leadership style practiced by the principal and by the SMT.
5. What are they good at: instructional issues, managerial issues, or transformational issues?
6. What is the participation of teachers in the structures dealing with the following:
   - school decision-making?
   - instructional/curriculum issues?
   - professional development issues?
   - others? Specify
Status of teachers/teaching

1. Describe what successful teaching is to you?
2. Do you think the introduction of the new curriculum has changed the status of teaching in SA schools? And explain how?
3. Do you think teachers should be seen as professionals and why?
4. To what extent do you think professional development should be directed more at motivating individual teacher or more at developing the school as a whole?
5. How do you define your role at school? To whom do you account, how and why?
6. How does the SMT or your HOD see your role at school?

Understanding professional development

1. What do you think the school-initiated PD is good or bad for and what the district-initiated PD is good or bad for?
2. What kind of skills and knowledge should PD focus urgently on in your school?
3. What is your best recent experience of PD not initiated by the schools? Explain its aims, approach, providers and impact of this PD on your practice?
4. What is your worst recent experience of PD not initiated by the schools? Explain its aims, approach and the providers of this training?
5. With the introduction of the IQMS in schools, do you think professional development will change and in what ways?
6. How did the SMT introduce and motivate for the implementation of the IQMS?
7. How do you think the IQMS will affect you?

Experiences of School-initiated professional development

Select two most productive recent school-initiated professional development initiatives and answer the following questions:
1. What was its aim?
2. How long did it last?
3. Where was it and what PD approach (individual/mentor, collective or..) did it use?
4. Who initiated this professional development?
5. What was its specific focus and expected outcomes?
6. How was it relevant/beneficial/important to you? What did you learn and how did it impact on your practice?
7. What suggestions would you give for the improvement of school-initiated PD for your school?
APPENDIX C

Respondent 4’s Letter to The Teacher, April 2006

Respondent 4 is one of the respondents from Florida Park High School. She wrote this letter to The Teacher after undergoing on-site professional development at the school. She had only been employed at the school since January 2006, and already the PD she received there prompted her to write this letter.

Respondent 4’s letter to The Teacher, April 2006