"HOW EFFECTIVE IS IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR
TEACHERS IN RURAL SCHOOL CONTEXTS?"

By

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SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
M.PHIL. IN EDUCATION FOR COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

30 OCTOBER 2004
DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own work.

Signed……………………………………

Zamumuzi.P.Conco

2004

As supervisor, I have agreed that this dissertation may be submitted.

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Dr J.Heystek
The research was aimed at determining whether Grade Nine teachers benefited from the training in Curriculum 2005 assessment techniques that was organised by the Department of Education and whether the training contributed to meeting the intellectual and professional challenges facing South Africans in the 21st century. For this purpose a predominantly rural midlands district of the Pietermaritzburg region of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education was selected. The study followed a qualitative approach. Data was collected from three Grade Nine teachers from three rural schools who were responsible for teaching the following: languages, social sciences and mathematics.

The study found that the teachers felt that they had not been trained adequately in the above learning areas, and therefore did not understand the new procedures. The procedures could also not be implemented within the teaching time allocated to the respective learning areas. In addition, the teachers felt that the paper work involved in the implementation of the new procedures had increased their workload unnecessarily. The training failed to prepare them for Curriculum 2005 and the assessment guidelines provided by the Department. The cascading of information resulted in the misinterpretation of important information. Furthermore, trainers lacked confidence, knowledge and understanding of the management of the training process. District officials who conducted training did not understand the terminology and used teaching methods that were non-consistent with outcomes-based education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005. At the school level, there was considerable overlap in planning and no clear solutions to this problem. Finally, the teachers regarded one week as inadequate for training and the training materials as insufficient for the teacher learning.

The study concludes with recommendations for the successful implementation of Curriculum 2005 and for further research.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people for their assistance with this dissertation:

- Dr J. Heystek, my supervisor, for his patience, invaluable guidance and support.
- My wife Khetha, uMaButhelezi kaGili kaNobantu and my two sons Nkululeko and Siphiwe for the encouragement and moral support they gave me.
- My mother Nonceba kaBhelekazi for the words of encouragement and prayers.
- Mrs Ina Stahmer for language editing.
- Mrs Dorothy P. Ade for typing the dissertation.
- The teachers who participated in the study.
- The principals of the three schools for their support.
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>Ex-DET</td>
<td>Ex-Department of Education and Training</td>
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<td>Ex-DEC</td>
<td>Ex-Department of Education and Culture</td>
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<td>INSET</td>
<td>In-Service Education and Training</td>
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<td>NDoE</td>
<td>National Department of Education</td>
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<td>DOE</td>
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<td>GET</td>
<td>General Education and Training</td>
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<td>General Education Training and Certificate</td>
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<td>CTA</td>
<td>Common Task for Assessment</td>
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<td>CASS</td>
<td>Continuous Assessment</td>
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<td>OBE</td>
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<td>C2005</td>
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<td>LA</td>
<td>Learning Areas</td>
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<td>LLC</td>
<td>Language, Literacy and Communication</td>
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<td>MLMMS</td>
<td>Mathematical Literacy, Mathematics and Mathematical Sciences</td>
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<td>HSS</td>
<td>Human and Social Sciences</td>
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<td>SWOT</td>
<td>Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

1. ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

Rural teachers from selected high schools with grade nine attended one-week in-service training workshops organised by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. The workshops were about Curriculum 2005 assessment guidelines and techniques for grade nine learners. This study was aimed at determining the effectiveness of the training, that is, whether the assessment guidelines had an impact on the teaching of the selected teachers and whether they could effectively apply outcomes-based education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005 in terms of continuous assessment and common assessment tasks.

In line with the study’s aim, teachers who are teaching social sciences, mathematics and languages were interviewed. These learning areas were seen to pose serious challenges in terms of assessment and poor learner performance. The teachers attended the training programme at Indumiso College of Education. Most of the attendees were from rural schools with no library, no laboratory, 60% qualified teachers and a 60-80% pass rate every year. Superintendent education managers and subject advisors are expected to visit the schools for monitoring, follow-up and support, but there were few ward managers and few advisors to service the wide region of Pietermaritzburg where the schools selected for this study were located.

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION

The orientation, training and support of teachers towards implementing Curriculum 2005 began in 1997 amid rapid social change. The successful implementation of Curriculum 2005 depends on the proper orientation, training and support of teachers, the availability, quality and use of learning support materials, and national, provincial and district-level support for the process and
teachers. Thus this study was aimed at determining whether teachers who attended the workshops could apply OBE and the Curriculum 2005 assessment guidelines and techniques in general education and training (GET). Teachers’ impressions of the duration and quality of the training were also considered. Ultimately the results of the study could assist researchers focusing on further education and training (FET).

1.1.1 Change to outcomes-based education

The ANC, in contrast to the apartheid government, propagated a single department of education and favoured people’s education – a model based on local reconstruction. However, the six major education publications produced by the ANC between 1991 and 1996 showed a move away from people’s education towards a technocratic employment-orientated curriculum (Lemmer, 1999:117-118). In 1996 the new government published the South African Schools Act No. 84, which opened the way for the design of a new curriculum. In March 1997 the government announced plans for the introduction of Curriculum 2005, based on OBE, a system that is built on clearly defined outcomes and flexibly uses time and other critical resources to accomplish these outcomes for all learners (Lubisi, 1998:29). A curriculum framework, Curriculum 2005 is to be implemented from grades one to nine by the year 2005 and is regarded as a key project in the transformation of South African society. As OBE “is a new method of learning”, according to the Department of Education’s Curriculum Assessment Guidelines (2002:28), it is important that teachers be empowered and developed so that they can teach correctly and produce quality education.

1.1.2 Aims of Curriculum 2005

According to Gultig (2002:10), Curriculum 2005 is directed towards achieving a prosperous, truly united, democratic and critical citizenry leading productive self-fulfilled lives in a country free of violence, discrimination and prejudice. Another
aim of Curriculum 2005 is to produce learners who are effective in the workplace. Lemmer (1999:117-119) contends that teaching for Curriculum 2005 should:

- Focus on the results or outcomes that are expected at the end of each learning process.
- Integrate knowledge so that learning is relevant and related to real-life situations.
- Be learner-centred.
- Bring success to all learners, although some may take longer to achieve success than others.
- Allow teachers to act as facilitators rather than information givers.
- Involve parents, guardians and community leaders in the curriculum.
- Provide ongoing assessment of learners’ skills in critical thinking, reasoning and action.
- Result in equal opportunities and equity for all.

1.1.3 Importance of the planned teacher development

Given the historical background, current trends in the education system and the advantages and challenges of Curriculum 2005, there is a great need for teachers to undergo in-service training.

According to Flowers (2002:1), at the centre of any successful school improvement plan or reform initiative are the people who translate goals into reality. In a school, teachers are the key implementers of new programmes and practice that impact on learning. Although a well-crafted mission statement, specific improvement goals, milestones and a timeline are important, a school improvement plan must include a strategy to address teacher development. Teachers will not naturally acclimatise to a new set of goals and expectations. Nor should they be left to “speed up” on their own. A proactive approach to teacher development is required that involves a careful examination of current
skills and interests as well as an assessment of what development and training is needed. If learners are to become effective in the workplace and a democratic society, we need teachers with relevant skills and knowledge to assist learners to meet the demands emanating from these spheres of life.

1.1.4 Professional development and in-service training and education

According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (1998:1), professional development signifies any activity that develops an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher. These include personal study and reflection as well as formal courses. Development is achieved through a set of planned learning activities that are aimed at moving teachers to more responsible positions within the school system (Barker, 1996:39). In-service education and training (INSET) in South Africa used to be regarded as a form of practical training, short courses or longer formalised programmes such as the Further Diploma in Education, aimed at upgrading the skills and qualifications, and sometimes salaries, of unqualified or under-qualified teachers. However, INSET has been reconceptualised as the ongoing professional development of teaching practitioners. In terms of this scenario, a good teacher is regarded as a self-motivated learner whose professional development goes beyond traditional development to include reading, curriculum development activity, research and conference involvement. Thus INSET calls for less emphasis on the distinction between in-service and pre-service education and training of teachers. The use of media resources such library materials and developmental activities such as training exercises in the teachers’ immediate school environment are important, as is the development of the capacity for lifelong learning and professionalism (Mothata, Lemmer, Mda & Pretorius, 2000:85).
1.1.5 Rural teachers’ problems with the curriculum

Curriculum 2005 and the accompanying syllabuses draw no distinction between knowledge useful to rural and to urban teachers respectively. This has led to concern that the syllabuses are not sufficiently “rurally” orientated and is thus remote from rural life, needs and interests. Thus both rural teacher and rural learner find it difficult to apply subject content effectively in life. In addition, rural teachers are challenged at the level of individual teaching skills as well as the organisational and cultural level. The following five issues (taken from Tharp et al., 2000:12) are therefore particularly important in the rural environment:

- How to prepare learners for continuous learning, experimentation and development.
- How to prepare learners for teamwork, assisted performance and the culture of participation.
- How to introduce new ideas on the theory-practice relation to teacher education (e.g. activity settings, value-based practice, developmental transfer).
- How to introduce the new narrative model of the curriculum.
- How to use the model of cultural learning as an alternative for constructivism and problem-based learning. These five issues are relevant to rural teachers because the study was based on rural teachers and problems experienced by teachers in rural schools.

Planning (1999:1), one-tenth of respondents in their study (teachers, principals and learners) indicated that teaching time was lost due to teachers coming late, lessons starting late, learners doing nothing in class or going home early.
1.1.6 Non-curriculum problems

Rural teachers need urgent help and support. For instance, they find it difficult to attend training workshops because of their reliance on public transport (Johnson, Monk & Hodges, 2000:179,192). According to the Research Institute for Education Teachers themselves indicated that they were involved in activities other than teaching during actual teaching time, such as cultural activities, lesson preparation and study for self-development. This study also deals with rural teachers and selected schools.

1.1.7 Government initiative regarding teacher training

According to Ms Tyobeka, a member of the Education Portfolio Committee, there have been initiatives to upgrade under-qualified and unqualified teachers to meet the required level of qualification. The Department of Education has been supporting curriculum implementation systematically by training grade nine teachers as well as district and school management teams in Kwazulu-Natal at a total cost of R2,5m in the 2002/2003 financial year. In addition, a two-year reskilling programme has been instituted towards the achievement of the National Professional Development in Education (NPDE) qualification for mathematics, science and technology teachers. The training was intended for 150 teachers per province, began in 2001 and was presented by selected higher education institutions. There would be an additional 100 teachers per nodal area in 2002. The whole initiative would cost R11, 2 million for the 2002/2003 financial year. The above information indicate that the government is prepared to develop and empower teachers through staff development in curriculum 2005.

1.1.8 Training of teachers in KwaZulu-Natal

According to Potterton (1994:16-17), the Educational Renewal Strategy of the Department of Education represents the state’s policy standpoints on education. It provides a broad framework for the renewal of education in South Africa. Potterton (1994:16-17) identified the following priorities:
• Upgrading of unqualified and under-qualified teachers, especially in rural areas.
• Upgrading inappropriately qualified teacher educators and developing rural colleges of education.
• Providing properly qualified secondary teachers for science and mathematics.
• Developing the language usage of teachers in in-service courses.
• Delivering both pre-service education and training (PRESET) and in-service education and training (INSET) at universities, technikons, teacher colleges and NGOs, all of which will operate within the national qualifications framework.

According to investigator teachers attended a one-week Curriculum 2005 (OBE) course. The original plan was to train teachers and then send them back to implement Curriculum 2005. Teachers were also encouraged to network and exchange ideas with teachers in neighbouring schools or with teachers in the same school. Teachers were informed that a follow-up support programme will be in place immediately after the training programme to assist teachers who experience problems. Official were expected to visit individuals or a group of teachers per learning area. However, because the schools were far apart (about 5-10 km) and transport was insufficient, it was difficult to encourage networking. Given the above scenario, this dissertation is a study of the training programme for Curriculum 2005 assessment techniques with reference to rural teachers.

1.1.9 Purpose of in-service education and training

In-service is any vocational training acquired during employment, and undertaking to engage in such training is usually part of the appointment agreement between employer and employee. In the current situation in South African education, training is necessary to reorientate teachers to new goals and values, to prepare them to cope with curriculum change, to train them in new teaching and learning methods, and to provide them with the knowledge and
skills to teach new learning areas. The challenge is to provide effective practice-related in-service training that meets the requirements of the new curriculum and results in improved teaching and learning in the classroom (Hofmeyer, 1994:35-37).

1.1.10 Importance of in-service training

In-service training helps teachers to expand their current knowledge of a subject/phase/matter, develop new knowledge and engage with colleagues at their current school and other schools. Furthermore, it helps them to plan and develop their own work thoroughly. They may also become more conscious of strategies for change and curriculum development trends, as many teachers enter the profession without having received specific training for curriculum development (Carl, 1995:265). In addition, teachers may acquire basic skills in research and decision-making at various levels.

In-service training may form an integral part of the school’s instructional development programme, consisting of class visits by supervisors, subject meetings, workshops, staff meetings etc. Through in-service training, subject groups may also link up with inspectors/superintendents/subject advisors as well as with subject groups at other institutions so as to form subject societies for development.

1.1.11 Further development of teachers

Teachers need to be exposed to further development by introducing them to the most recent research on the instructional process and new methods and approaches to teaching. (This should also develop their own capacity to do research.) Their development will ultimately assist in developing their community, because some of the skills they acquire in the process (e.g. leadership, communication, arts and trade skills) can be applied in the broader community.
1.1.12 Inadequacy of traditional in-service training

Traditionally, teacher development was confined to in-service courses. However, a range of activities relating to both the formal and the informal school processes should be included in teacher development. Moreover, much of traditional in-service training was unsuccessful. This led to the recognition that teacher development should begin with teachers' appraisal of their own practice and the identification of their training needs. This should be followed by a comparison of their findings with what their school development programmes offer and, finally, by the identification of appropriate in-service and other staff development activities (Schofield, 1994:111-112).

1.1.13 Specific local and national courses

In-service training has many objectives and takes many forms. It includes specific local activities tailored to the development needs of teachers and schools, as well as nationwide courses funded by the Ministry of Education to equip teachers to deal with curriculum and other changes (Education Review Office, 2000:1).

1.1.14 Goal-driven learning

Current research on goal-driven learning deals with a wide range of issues, such as how and when learning goals arise and the ways in which goals influence a broad range of learning processes. The central idea underlying goal-driven learning is that because the value of learning depends on how well the learning contributes to achieving the learner's goals, the learning process should be guided by reasoning about the information that is needed to serve those goals. The effectiveness of goal-driven learning depends on being able to make good decisions about when and what to learn, on selecting appropriate strategies for achieving the desired learning, and on guiding the application of the chosen strategies (Ram & Leake, 1995:4).
Roles officially expected of teachers

The successful implementation of Curriculum 2005 depends on the training teachers received, and the availability of support materials that assist teachers to perform adequately. It is also important for teachers to know their roles and responsibilities because parents and learners expect them to carry out their roles efficiently. According to Government Gazette No. 20844 (2000:11), teachers are expected to be:

- Learning mediators.
- Interpreters and designers of learning programmes and materials.
- Leaders, administrators and managers.
- Scholars, researchers and lifelong learners.
- Community citizens and pastoral counsellors.
- Assessors and learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialists.

1.1.16 Empowering teachers to develop learners’ full potential

The challenge in teacher development is to enable all teachers to contribute their best, and to develop the school community as a whole. School managers, parents and learners need to be empowered to take control of their own lives. This could be achieved through Curriculum 2005, the tool through which the full potential of each learner as a citizen of a democratic South Africa is to be developed. It seeks to create lifelong learners who are confident and independent, literate, numerate and multi-skilled, compassionate, respectful of the environment and able to participate in society as critical and active citizens (Government Gazette No. 23406, 2002:17). This calls for a paradigm shift among teachers regarding their roles as teachers and their assessment and teaching methods, classroom management and learning content. The ultimate aim is to prepare learners to meet the demands of the global workplace and the social and political aspirations of the new South Africa.
1.1.17 Moves to restructure the national curriculum

In 1990 there was a flurry of activity on the curriculum front. The white government produced a curriculum model for education that contained some reform elements but still emphasised general education rather than vocation-oriented education. It was only after the first democratic elections in 1994 that real reform occurred in the education system, including changes in policy, resource distribution, curriculum, classroom management and teacher appraisal (Committee of Heads of Education Department, 1991:1). The new policy, Curriculum 2005 was introduced after the 1994 elections. Grade nine teachers were expected to attend INSET for training and development. Rural and urban grade nine teachers attended the Curriculum 2005 workshops and all teachers were expected to implement soon after the workshops. The needs of the rural teachers were not catered for. They were expected to implement although they have limited resources as compared to well to do urban city schools. Rural teachers experience problems of implementation from the start.

1.1.18 Teachers’ problems with the implementation of Curriculum 2005

To avoid problems with the implementation of Curriculum 2005, teachers should be given alternatives and their views should be taken into account. If not, they will probably experience the change as nothing more than new-fangled innovations imposed on them by authorities who are out of touch with the real problems and conditions in schools. This will make them averse to changes they neither understand nor support, or they may pretend to implement the changes yet continue with traditional practices (Lemmer, 1999:114). According to Khulisa et al. (1999:1), the cascading model failed to prepare either officials or school-based teachers for the complexity of Curriculum 2005. Cascading the information “watered down” and/or produced misinterpretation of crucial information; trainers lacked confidence, knowledge and understanding to manage the training process; and district officials who conducted training were criticised for not
understanding the terminology themselves and for using teaching methods that were not in line with OBE.

According to Chisholm (2000), the review report on Curriculum 2005 shows that, although there is overwhelming support for the principles of OBE and Curriculum 2005, implementation has been complicated by:

- A skewed curriculum structure and design.
- Lack of alignment between curriculum and assessment policy.
- Inadequate orientation to, training in the use of, and development of teachers’ learning support materials.
- Often unavailable and not sufficiently used resources in classrooms.
- Policy overload and limited transfer of learning to classrooms.
- Shortages of personnel and resources to implement and support Curriculum 2005 and inadequate recognition of the curriculum as the core business of education departments.

1.1.19 Teacher requirements for successful implementation of C2005

Curriculum 2005 requires a paradigm shift regarding teachers’ assessment methods, methods of teaching, classroom management and learning content. The new curriculum seeks to align what happens in schools with both the demands of the global workplace and the social and political aspirations of the new South Africa. However, the paradigm shift calls for practical information on and guidance in the teaching of Curriculum 2005 at all levels. As part of support for the implementation of the new school curriculum, the National Department of Education arranged for training workshops for teachers. The professional development of teachers is a vital component of educational reform because teachers are the most critical and expensive education resource, and the prime implementers of the new curriculum.
1.1.20 Challenges to Curriculum 2005

According to Rensburg (2000:1), the first challenge to Curriculum 2005 is the apartheid past. The curriculum should therefore overcome the stultifying legacy of apartheid education by ensuring a better knowledge, values and skills base for South Africans. Such a base will in turn provide the conditions for greater social justice, equity and development.

Global competitiveness is the second major challenge to the curriculum, according to Rensburg (2000:1). The curriculum is to provide the platform for developing knowledge, skills and competence for innovations, social development and economic growth for the 21st century. Parents and the community need to support learners and teachers. Teachers are expected to do both PRESET and INSET, to read a lot and study additional publications relevant to a learning area or subject.

Norms and standards for teachers are another challenge, as they tell us clearly the type of teacher the department expects.

1.2 STATUS OF EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS

There is poor infrastructure in rural areas, the number of teachers there has dwindled and the quality of teaching has declined. Teachers and learners travel long distances to attend school. Transport is often costly and time consuming, which contributes to school drop-out. Programmes offered are few and limited, due to a small budget and lack of resources. Recent empirical studies on classroom practice have indicated that instructional strategies are inadequate, particularly in poor schools. Learners are neither fully involved nor encouraged to ask questions, and teachers do not ask questions and, if they do, the answers require the recall of simple information. The result is pervasive rote learning.
Lessons are dominated by teacher talk and generally lack structure; activities that promote rich understanding are absent; and real-world examples, though often cited, are explored at a superficial level. Such practices stem from teachers with little grasp of their subject, ultimately causing poor learning experiences among learners because they are not led to explore issues with the teacher, voice their displeasure with their level of learning and critique ineffective practices of teachers (Taylor & Vinjefold, 1999:143).

According to Unterhalter et al. (1991:86), schools are unevenly staffed, as schools in rural areas and on farms, which comprise 73% of former Department and Education (DET) schools, have great difficulty in finding and retaining teachers. Hence there are far too many pupils per teacher. Furthermore, according to Zulu (1999:24), close to one-quarter of KwaZulu-Natal’s schools are in such a poor condition with regard to physical structure that effective teaching cannot take place in them. Moreover, although the education policy sounds good, it has not been examined for the ease or difficulty of its implementation, particularly in respect of the issue of continuous assessment.

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of the study were to

- Determine the effectiveness of the training programme on Curriculum 2005 assessment techniques for grade nine teachers organised by the Department of Education.
- Find out from the teachers themselves whether the training had an impact on their teaching; and
- Whether the teachers could apply OBE and Curriculum 2005 after the training.
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Main question:
- Did the in-service training of grade seven teachers provided by the Department of Education prepare them to teach Curriculum 2005 in the rural areas?

Sub-questions:
- Were these teachers able to implement the assessment policy correctly?
- Did the in-service training programme meet the needs of the teachers?

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS USED IN THIS DISSERTATION

1.5.1 Empowerment

The word “empowerment” is used in many different contexts and by many different organisations. For example, literature about empowerment is found in the fields of education, social work and psychology. The idea of power is at the root of the term “empowerment”. According to Williams et al. (1994), power manifests in the following:

- **Power over.** This constitutes an either/or relationship of domination/subordination, which is ultimately based on socially sanctioned threats of violence and intimidation, requires constant vigilance to maintain and invites active and passive resistance.

- **Power to.** This power relates to having decision-making authority, that is, power to solve problems. It can be creative and enabling.

- **Power with.** This involves people organising with a common purpose or common understanding to achieve collective goals.

**Power within.** This power refers to self-confidence, self-awareness and assertiveness. It relates to how individuals recognise – through analysing their
experience – how power operates in their lives, and gain the confidence to act so as to influence and change unsatisfactory conditions.

Empowerment can be a management tool in terms of which non-management employees are given the training, authority and responsibility to make decisions not covered by an organisation’s rules, without any or with very limited supervision. Decision-making authority is then delegated to the lowest appropriate level, with management setting predetermined limits for such decision-making and measuring results against specific objectives.

Chamberlin (1999) identifies the following qualities of empowerment: having decision-making power; having access to information and resources; having a range of options from which to make choices (not just yes/no, either/or); assertiveness; a feeling that the individual can make a difference (being hopeful); learning to think critically; unlearning conditioning; seeing things differently; learning to redefine who we are (speaking in our own voice); learning to redefine what we can do; learning to redefine our relationships to institutionalised power; learning about and expressing anger; not feeling alone; feeling part of a group; understanding that people have rights; effecting change in one's life and one's community; learning skills (e.g. communication) that the individual defines as important; changing others' perceptions of one's competency and capacity to act; coming out of the closet; growth and change that are never ending and self-initiated; increasing one's positive self-image; and overcoming stigma.

Czuba (1999) maintains that empowerment is a process that challenges our assumptions about the way things are and can be. It challenges our basic assumptions about power, helping, achieving and succeeding. Empowerment is the process through which employees are enabled or authorised to participate in the problem-solving, decision-making and business processes of a company. Empowerment and taking responsibility for one's decisions and actions go hand in hand.
When people are given permission to make more decisions, use more of their creative capacity and work to their full potential, are they empowered? It depends on what knowledge and skills they have. That is why this study will highlight individual change arising from a training programme, focusing on a possible link between attitudes and behaviour in the acquisition of skills.

1.5.2 Training

This is the process of changing the skills, attitudes, and knowledge of employees with the purpose of improving their level of competence. It is a planned process, usually involving a series of stages where incremental improvements can be identified. It takes two main forms. (i) On-the-job training whereby an employee receives instructions within the place of work, usually through observing the tasks, being guided through them by experts, and then practising them. (ii) Off-the-job training whereby an employee is instructed away from the place of work, either in a training on the premises (Edmund, 2001:372) This is exactly what grade seven teachers did.

1.5.3 In-service training

In-service training is South Africa used to be regarded as a form of practical training, short courses or longer formalised programmes like Further Diploma in Education, aimed at upgrading the skills and qualification, and sometimes salaries, of unqualified or under qualified teachers. However, new policy directions tend to reconceptualised INSET as an ongoing professional development of teaching practitioners (Mothatha, 2000:85) This definition links up with the training that is done outside the classroom in a form of seminars and workshops. Teachers are developed and capacitated during these workshops.

1.5.4 Development

Development is the improvement of the skills and job performance of employees through a set of planned learning activities in order for them to move to more
responsible positions within the organisation. Development is a participatory, transforming process leading to a greater dignity and self-reliance, greater vision and possibility, greater community and interdependence (Welsh, 1990:310-311). Where true development is taking place, teachers are able achieve ever greater self expression and good results at school.

1.5.5 Staff development

According to Robb (2000:2), staff development entails professional study to expand knowledge of teaching practices and how children learn. The studying includes reading, reflecting and actively applying the new knowledge in the school community. Gerrard (2000:1) contends that staff development is intended to strengthen the capability of an organisation to perform its mission more effectively and more efficiently by encouraging and providing for the growth of its human resources. Staff development affirms the ability of the individual and the organisation to grow and of each to contribute to the growth of the other. Staff development makes the most of the present potential and prepares the individual and the organisation for the future.

1.6 THE RESEARCH METHODS

A qualitative approach was followed in this study. The data were collected from three teachers from three different schools teaching grade nines. Derived from the learning areas of languages, social sciences and mathematics, the collected data were qualitatively evaluated and analysed.
According to Trochim (2002:2), qualitative research is a vast and complex methodology that can easily take up whole textbooks. One of the major reasons for doing qualitative research is to gain direct experience of a phenomenon of interest.

Qualitative research naturally yields detailed expositions of the phenomenon of interest, but in contrast to quantitative studies, the mass of data itself does not shape and limit the analysis. For example, if you collect data on the basis of a simple interval-level quantitative measure, the analyses are likely to be fairly delimited (descriptive statistics, correlation, regression or multivariate models, etc. are used). Generalisation in the quantitative mode also tends to be fairly straightforward, because some aggregate statistic such as a mean or median is computed from the same variable collected from everyone in the sample. Ultimately quantitative research reaches generalisations based on statistical projections.

Qualitative research is useful when "telling the story" from the participant's viewpoint, providing rich descriptive details that contextualise quantitative results. Some of the more common methods are discussed below.

- **Participant observation.** This method is very demanding. It requires that the researcher become a participant in the culture or context being observed. This could take months or years of intensive work because the researcher has to be accepted as a natural part of the culture (Trochim, 2002:2).

- **Direct observation.** This method is distinguished from participant observation in a number of ways. First, direct observers do not typically try to become participants in the context – they strive to be as unobtrusive as possible so as not to bias the observations. Second, direct observation suggests a more detached perspective. The researcher is watching rather than taking part. Consequently, technology is quite useful. For instance, one can videotape the
phenomenon or observe it from behind one-way mirrors. Third, direct observation tends to be more focused than participant observation. The researcher is observing certain sampled situations or people rather than trying to become immersed in the entire context. Finally, direct observation tends not to take as long as participant observation. For instance, one might observe child-mother interactions under specific circumstances in a laboratory from behind a one-way mirror, looking especially for the non-verbal cues being used (Trochim, 2002:3).

- **Semi-structured interviewing.** This method involves direct interaction between the researcher and a respondent or group of respondents. It differs from traditional structured interviewing in several important ways. First, although the researcher may have some initial guiding questions or core concepts to probe, there is no formal structured instrument or protocol. Second, the interviewer is free to move the conversation in any direction of interest that may come up. Consequently, semi-structured interviewing is particularly useful for exploring a topic broadly. However, as each interview is unique and no predetermined set of questions are asked of all respondents, it is usually difficult to analyse semi-structured interview data, especially when synthesising across respondents (Trochim, 2002:3).

- **Case study.** This method boils down to an intensive study of a specific individual or specific context. For instance, Freud developed case studies of several individuals as the basis for the theory of psychoanalysis; and Piaget did case studies of children to study developmental phases. There is no single way to conduct a case study, and a combination of methods (e.g. semi-structured interviewing, direct observation) can be used (Trochim, 2002:3).

- **Field research.** This method is aimed at extending knowledge, and as such may involve venturing into areas about which very little is known, or in which knowledge gaps exist. As this boils down to empirical
research (research that is guided by practical experience and is verifiable by observation), the results of the investigation are open to scrutiny by fellow professionals.

According to Swanepoel et al. (2000:499), the choice of methods and data sources depend partly on the nature of the problem and the purpose of the investigation. If the purpose is to assess an employee’s present job performance, the investigator must start by identifying performance deficiencies or areas where improvement is necessary.

Fisher, Schoenfelt and Shaw (1993:372) suggest the following methods of data gathering for a training needs analysis:

- Searching existing records by studying performance appraisal, performance record and training record.
- Conducting individual interviews with job incumbents.

Once the performance deficiency or training needs have been identified, the next step is to determine whether the deficiency or needs should be addressed by training or a workshop. This study followed the procedure described by Klatt (1999:123, quoted by Donald Kirkpatrick, 1975), who identified four consecutive levels of evaluating the training:

- Reaction (Did they like it?)
- Learning (Did they learn?)
- Behaviour (Did they see it?)
- Results (Did it make a difference?)
1.7 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

This dissertation is divided as follows:

- Chapter one introduces the reader to the study, states the problem, defines the chief concepts used, explains the aims of the study and describes the methodology.
- Chapter two provides a brief summary of the literature on INSET in local and international sources.
- Chapter three offers a description of the research instrument and research design.
- Chapter four comprises a detailed analysis and interpretation of the data.
- Chapter five synthesises the findings and presents the recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

2. IN-SERVICE TRAINING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a brief summary of the literature on INSET in local and international sources. International research, according to Folds (2003:1-10), reminds us that during the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s, as educational reform became a widespread phenomenon, two strands emerged in the academic literature: organisational development, and curriculum and instruction development (Hopkins, 1998). These two approaches can still be seen in contemporary research on school improvement. Thus Slavin (1998:22) focuses on the need for context-specific organisational interventions to ensure effective school reform, and Johnson, Monk and Hodges (2000) argue that in developing countries the focus of change should be systemic upgrading rather than teacher development.

In contrast, Fullan (1991), Drake, Spillane and Hufferd-Ackles (2001) and Kirk and MacDonald (2001) argue that teachers’ willingness to undertake change and their “ownership” of curricular change can only be facilitated through focusing the attention of reformers on teacher identity. Others (Proudfoot, 1998; Tabulawa, 1998) argue for the need to address teachers’ subjective meanings and understandings in order to facilitate reform, as teachers find deep epistemological changes much more difficult to make than surface behavioural changes (Spillane & Zeuli, 1999).

However, Hopkins (1998) suggests that these two domains of school improvement thinking are insufficient in themselves. Much current research indicates a merging of the two strands, especially with the emergence of the concept of the “learning community” (Barth, 1990), sometimes also referred to as the “professional learning community” of teachers in the school. Mc Claughlin
(1998), in a review of the “implementation problem” since the 1970s, and Hopkins (1998), in a similar review of the school improvement literature since the 1960s, both argue that successful teacher development policies internationally focus on communities of teachers, not on individuals, and on context-specific understandings of teacher practice.

In the South African context, however, implementing such approaches poses particularly acute problems. South African schools experience huge disparities in access to curriculum resources, teacher qualifications, class sizes and learning support materials (CEPD, 2000), and for many schools the pressing issue is to attain a minimal level of effectiveness, including such basic issues as safety and non-violence (Harber & Muthukrishna, 2000). It is also recognised, predictably, that the problems posed by resources are most keenly felt in the poorest schools (Ewing & Setsubi, 1999). Township and rural teachers, with little freedom to change their practice and in greatest need of active help and support, find it difficult to attend training workshops because of a reliance on public transport (Johnson et al., 2000). The result of these resource disparities has been, for example, that during the initial implementation of Curriculum 2005 in 1998 (Vally & Spreen, 1998), about 2000 primary schools in rural or under-serviced areas failed to implement the new curriculum. This problem was at the most severe in the rural areas of the KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Free State provinces, while middle-class schools in urban areas were able to accumulate substantial curriculum resources and support materials (Naicker, 1999).

According to Callaghan (2000:9), farm schools should be the focus of special attention, as they provide education to one of the poorest learner groups in the country – rural children. Among the problems they face are the following:

- Learners at farm schools are mostly children of farm labourers. Thus farmers often expect these children to be available for additional labour, resulting in the disruption of their education.
Parents’ literacy levels are often low, which affect their participation in their children’s education.

Lack of supervision in small schools leads to lack of teacher accountability.

Teachers often have to teach five to six grades per class.

Transport problems lead to frequent absenteeism.

District officials often neglect farm schools in their planning and supervision of schools.

Change of farm ownership and worker evictions make farm schools vulnerable.

Despite these problems, farm schools are recognised as a vital but unique part of the education system. To this effect the South African Schools Act of 1996 was promulgated to transform this sector throughout the country. In addition, farm school teachers, like other teachers, are expected to improve their qualifications while on duty through part-time study.

2.2 IMPORTANCE OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

In this study, staff development is regarded as an initiative that is aimed at supporting staff in the work they do. SADTU (2000:3) suggests that there should be a professional development plan for teachers that concentrates on community outreach, notably community participation, influencing community opinions, and developmental and advocacy work. These skills ought to be useful throughout teachers’ working lives and should be taught from the moment they take up employment, as a team as well as an individual endeavour. According to Swanepoel and Erasmus (2000:496), staff development should result in the following:

- Improve the standard and performance of employees, once their training needs have been identified;
• Prepare them for future positions;
• Increase their literacy levels;
• Help the individual to make better decisions and increase job satisfaction.

Given the above outcomes, it becomes clear that staff development can raise teachers’ performance levels and prepare the individual for change in the organisation, based on new instructional approaches such as those implied in OBE, the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), Curriculum 2005 and the Developmental Appraisal System (DAS). The end result should be informed and creative teachers who promote transformation, the human rights culture and education renewal.

2.2.1 Context of South African teacher development

Singh and Manser, (2000:104-108) stress the importance of a shared vision among teachers to make the new curriculum work. However, research shows that while South African teachers overwhelmingly desire professional collaboration, they seldom achieve it because of authoritarian school cultures and inadequate physical space for teachers to work together (Abrahams, 1997:409-422). According to Jansen, (2001:242-246) there are huge demands of the profession which are leading to high levels of observed teacher stress. New teacher appraisal policies, intended to democratise teachers’ work, have, in fact, replicated managerial control (Chisholm, 1999:111-126). Moreover, teachers face larger class sizes and a much greater workload owing to the state’s fiscal austerity programmes, leading teacher unions to object to the lack of financial resources for the implementation of OBE. As for human resources, 2000 statistics demonstrate (Beard & Schindler, 2001:45) that 22% of South African teachers are unqualified or under-qualified (39% of teachers in the North West Province are under-qualified), most of them are black and 80% of them work in rural primary schools.
Studies show widespread lack of understanding among teachers of key issues such as learner-centred pedagogy and continuous assessment (CEPD, 2000:3). Major deficiencies in teachers’ English skills (Harvey, 1999) ensure that many teachers struggle to make sense of OBE terminology (Le Grange & Reddy, 2000:21-25). The result is teachers opting for the safety net of pedagogical conservatism (Jessop, 1997:34), embracing the ideological basis of Curriculum 2005 but, particularly in poorly resourced schools, finding themselves unable to translate it into appropriate classroom practice (Harber, 2001:5). Nor are teachers unaware of the problem. An extensive survey in the Free State Province (Selaledi, 1999:266-271) revealed that teachers’ estimations of their own effectiveness and performance capability are disturbingly low, calling for extensive collegial work and constructive feedback to facilitate professional growth and development.

Critics have commented (Jansen, 1998) that conditions such as these will counter the success of Curriculum 2005, as the curriculum requires a critical mass of highly qualified, motivated and professional teachers.

2.2.2 Existing South African teacher development programmes

In the context described above, teacher development associated with the new curriculum inevitably poses difficulties, and there is widespread consensus that the programmes implemented hitherto have been insufficiently effective (CEPD, 2000:3). Even the state’s evaluation of its own pilot programme (Department of Education, 1997), which is widely regarded as excessively optimistic (Fleisch, 2002:39), concludes that insufficient time has been allocated to INSET and recognises the need for more extensive support programmes for teachers and principals.

Researchers conclude that the initial programme of five-day “crash courses” simply did not work (Naicker, 1999:2). A long list of training inadequacies was consistently reported (Mkhabela, 1999:4; GICD, 2000:1; Malcolm, 2000:45) while
the curriculum was rolled out. Participating teachers complained about the inappropriate length and timing of workshops, the dubious knowledge and competence of facilitators, lack of consistency between the training and OBE methodologies, and insufficient focus on the practical application of OBE methodologies in the school and the classroom. Schlebusch (1999:1) reports that 41% of teachers rated state support inadequate in the Western Cape – including 63% of teachers in ex-DET schools – and called for more extensive and more practical training. Up to two-thirds of Gauteng teachers found the training they received unsatisfactory (Khulisa, 1999:5), calling for more practical and school-focused forms of teacher development and a slower rate of curriculum change.

The evidence is persuasive: Alternative models of teacher development are urgently required if the implementation of Curriculum 2005 is to succeed. The government’s coercive mode in education and its repressive actions during the last three years are not conducive to effective INSET. As Van den Berg (1987:25) points out, a highly sophisticated and effective system of INSET cannot easily arise from or be grafted onto an education system suffering from major weaknesses, disparities and tensions, especially if the “population group” exclusiveness of educational provision inhibits or prohibits the interchange and interaction of initiative, expertise and ideas.

Initiation into Curriculum 2005 itself also posed problems. Because of the major changes it envisages, the education Department required teachers to attend in-service training on it. Each school was expected to send one Grade Nine teacher in each of the eight learning areas, but the aims, objectives and purpose of the workshops were not disclosed in advance. Most of the attendees did not know how to develop a curriculum, did not work as a team and did not involve other teachers in their school work. Moreover, although rural and urban teachers came from vastly different backgrounds and their schools had different resources, all were expected to go back to school and implement Curriculum 2005 after the
one-week training. Follow-up programmes were promised. Appendix A contains an example of workshop programme and background information aimed at assisting teachers and school management teams to plan for the workshops on Curriculum 2005.

2.3 PLANNING FOR TRAINING

According to Sharan (2002:1) workshop planners are required to take cognisance of the following four prominent features of an effective teacher education program:

- **Experiential learning.** This includes experience (activities and exercises), reflection on experience (personal and professional), conceptualisation (professional terminology) and planning (application of experience, reflection and conceptualisation).
- **Mastery of specific skills.** This includes skills of classroom management, skills of facilitating the implementation of classroom methods, how to observe groups, orientate them to group work, lead whole class sessions after group work, intervene to help group work, develop a group work activity/lesson, teach group work and process skills and skills of analysing and evaluating implementation, and develop criteria for selecting a classroom.
- **Coordination between the training setting and the classroom.**
- **Faculty collaboration in planning and designing a programme’s goals and methods.** This includes the identification of the actual training needs and development areas among the participants, exploration of the conceptions of learning among them, up-dating knowledge and skills of training teachers in co-operative learning, development of strategies and techniques of reflection and self-analysis, and learning to use virtual learning tools for own professional development.
According to Sharan (2002), facilitators should ask the following questions:

- What kinds of activities are suitable for the beginning of the workshop?
- Should there be any particular order in the presentation of activities (exercises, structures)?
- How strictly should the facilitator stick to the types of activities planned?
- Who determines the academic content of the activity?
- Should theoretical considerations determine the choice of activities? (Activities that highlight the teacher’s role, the learners’ role, classroom management, listening skills, etc. should be considered.)
- What different ways are there to conduct a workshop?
- Is there a recommended order of activities that generate reflection?
- Should the facilitator prepare a specific list of concepts pertinent to assessment? If so, should the activities be chosen to suit the concepts and introduced in the same order?
- How should the facilitator organise the planning (application) of classroom activities?
- What are the main principles that should guide the facilitator?

### 2.4 MODELS FOR TRAINING

This section presents three models for training, i.e. the contemporary scheme model of Sarv and Voolma (1999:1), the high-impact training model of Lapidus and the model for systematic training of Swanepoel. I used the latter for the purposes of this research because it consists of three stages that are relevant to this research, namely needs assessment, training and evaluation.
2.4.1 Contemporary scheme model

According to Sarv and Voolma (1999:1), achieving a higher level of education in the narrow school processes and in the wider societal processes and throughout the individual’s life depends on changes in the education of current and future professional teacher-educators themselves. These changes can be achieved by implementing the model below, which model also points to changes in learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Progression of changes (past-present-future)</th>
<th>Learned vs. learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. System-generative thinking</td>
<td>Descriptive-discreet thinking: Parts and functions of a structure, their description.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive-discreet thinking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly develops creativity, mastery (of knowledge, skills, process), craftsmanship.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory, standardised thinking and belonging to an externally recognised trend.</td>
<td>System-generative thinking: Principles, functioning wholes, connections and development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Creative knowledge</td>
<td>Institutionised knowledge consumption: Acquisition of recognised knowledge and its reproduction. Creative knowledge: Modelling of creative knowledge through working with tested models or modelling, constructing one’s own actions and testing new actions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutionised knowledge consumption</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Wholesome self-guidance</td>
<td>External motivation and control: Actions submissive to external</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External motivation and control</td>
<td>evaluations and norms, perception of reasons for success and failure as lying in external factors. Wholesome self-guidance: Self-development as a motive, self-guidance of one’s own actions (models, procedures, thinking), self-control and acceptance of responsibility.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(The scheme was presented to the TPU Teacher Training Council as part of the document on the teacher training curriculum and study process at TPU, compiled by Sarv and Voolma 1999.)

The above model was founded on the idea that teacher training must be in harmony with the demands of the future. At the same time it must provide for practical preparation for implementing curriculum goals and principles against the background of the complexity of contemporary knowledge and organisation, the swift shifting from passive to creative knowledge acquisition, and the variety in sources and goals of learning/teaching.

2.4.2 The high-impact training model

The model covers experiential learning, mastery of specific skills, coordination between the training setting and the classroom, and faculty collaboration in planning and designing a programme’s goals and methods. Designed by Lapidus (2000:17-27), the model has the following consecutive steps that are relevant for INSET workshops for teachers:

**Step 1: Identify and partner with the customer of training**

The fundamental assumption is that participants in the training events are not necessarily the customers of the training. Thus the model is aimed at the effective transfer of knowledge (i.e. operational performance) after the customers of the training (i.e. learners who are the beneficiaries of Curriculum 2005) have been clearly identified.
**Step 2: Conduct high-impact assessment**

The step includes raising awareness among participants that training and development is a process, not a sequence of independent events, and that needs should be assessed frequently and in informal yet highly effective ways. At the heart of the high-impact training model is an increasing faith in colleagues' work and greater ability to communicate and understand their daily work life.

**Step 3: Select and source high-impact programmes**

Often well-designed programmes fail – lessons learnt are not being used and are soon forgotten. To remedy this, training programmes are selected and sourced on the basis of the outcomes to be achieved.

**Step 4: Select and orient participants**

Trainers have to select the programme participants guided by set guidelines on the number of participants, grade or job levels, and work experience. However, as participants tend to assume a passive role, they must be carefully oriented towards active participation.

**Step 5: Design high-impact training events**

Traditionally, the training event is the major focus. In contrast, the high-impact training model also includes a focus on knowledge to be gained by trainers before the training events. They should know who the customers of training are, that the right programme has been selected, that the right participants are in attendance, that the right participants have been appropriately orientated before coming to the programme and that the goals for the programme are specific, clear and measurable.

**Step 6: Facilitate mutual assessment and feedback**

This step should be carried out during the first two levels of assessment which are: Identify and partner with the customer of training and conduct high-impact assessment level. Assessment and feedback tends to be a passive activity at the end of a programme, using pre-printed forms that require quantitative information but little subjective comment.
Step 7: Design of the future

The focus is on the future, based on what was learned in the design and delivery of the programme. This step also includes the debriefing of the participants and creative and reciprocal assessment. Furthermore, the next generation of training interventions is developed and the programme itself is improved.

2.4.3 Model for systematic training

According to Swanepoel and Erasmus (2000:497), training fails in an organisation due to lack of a systematically developed training model. The organisation’s overall objectives are not clearly formulated, training programmes are not evaluated and behaviour change apparently does not form part of human resource development. A systematic approach to the development of training is essential. The three phases of Swanepoel et al. (2000) model for systematic training are shown in the table below.

### 2.4.3.1 Needs assessment (Phase 1)

This is the first phase of the model for systematic training. Successful training begins with a needs assessment to determine which employees need to be trained and what they need to be trained to do. It culminates in the formulation of a set of objectives, which clearly state the purpose of the training and the competencies required of trainees once they have completed the programme. During the first phase, the principal and staff will do a swot analysis to determine their collective and individual needs. Needs analysis requires time, money and
expertise (Swanepoel et al. 2000:497), the more so when teachers do not see the need to change.

A needs assessment is an investigation into the nature of performance problems in order to establish the underlying causes and how these can be addressed by training. In other words, a training gap between the required standard of the job (normally specified in a job description) and the performance of the incumbent (Ben et al., 2000:499) is identified, as well as a means to close the gap.

According to the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) (1991:17), the ultimate aim of needs analysis is to establish:

- What needs actually exist?
- Whether they are important.
- How the needs became apparent?
- How they were identified?
- How they may best be addressed?
- What the priorities are?

Organisations expect workshops and training programmes to result in specific changes in what people do and how they do certain things. So first you will have to know exactly what you are trying to achieve and what success will look like (Klatt, 1999:98). Below are some reasons posed by Swist (2001) for conducting a training needs assessment:

- To determine what training is relevant to the employees' jobs.
- To determine what training will improve performance.
- To determine if training will make a difference.
- To distinguish training needs from organisational problems.
- To link improved job performance with the organisation's goals and bottom line.

In completing a suitable training needs analysis, one has to gather data to answer questions such as the following:
• What are the symptoms of non-performance?
• Where is the non-performance among a group of employees?
• What are the causes of broad or group non-performance?
• Is non-performance the result of lack of knowledge and skills or improper practice?
• What training will help bridge the gap between the standards of performance and the actual performance?
• What non-performance is due to reasons other than a lack of knowledge and skills?
• What solutions can be used to remedy non-performance caused by factors other than a lack of knowledge and skills? (TNA, 2004.)

According to Fisher et al. (1993:500), the following questions may be asked in the organisational analysis portion of the needs assessment to highlight problem areas:

• What are the training implications of the organisation’s strategy?
• What will the results be if we do not train?
• How does this training programme fit in with the organisation’s future plans?
• Where in the organisation is training needed?
• Which Department should be trained first?
• Which training programmes should have priority?
• Will this training adversely affect untrained people or Departments?
• Will this training be accepted and reinforced by others in the organisation, such as trainees’ superiors, subordinates and clients?
• Individual needs analysis.
• Job task analysis needs.

The last step in the needs assessment phase is to translate the needs identified by the organisational, task and individual analyses into measurable objectives.
that can guide the training process. Behavioural training objectives state what
the person will be able to do, under what conditions, and how well the person will
be able to do so. They should focus on a behaviour component and describe in
clear terms what a learner has to do to demonstrate that he/she has learned
(Swanepoel et al. 2000:502).

2.4.3.2 Training (Phase 2)

This is the second phase of the model for systematic training. In this phase,
appropriate training methods must be selected and suitable training materials
must be developed to convey the required knowledge and impart the skills
identified in the training objectives. The following are taken into consideration:
management goals, the training needs identified, audience and content-
determined training design, skills application and on-the-job training.

**EXAMPLE OF THE TRAINING PHASE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEP</th>
<th>MANAGEMENT</th>
<th>TRAINING DEPARTMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management goals</td>
<td>Decides that it wants to reach specified target markets using radio marketing techniques.</td>
<td>No decision-making. Should actively pursue up-to-date knowledge of management direction and key goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs identified</td>
<td>Makes a decision that a segment of a new agent orientation programme should cover target markets and how to use radio marketing techniques to reach those markets.</td>
<td>Suggests and recommends ways to use training to best advantage. May identify areas that could best be learned on the job, recommend ways for line managers to support desired performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience and training content determined</td>
<td>Hires new agent. Determines training schedule. Provides key people for training Departments to interview to determine training content.</td>
<td>Conducts a content analysis using interviews and observation data. Recommends training content. Makes suggestions on the required skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training designed and delivered</td>
<td>Communicates expectations to trainees prior to the programme, including on-the-job application of</td>
<td>Provides advice on how to conduct precourse discussions with trainees. Designs and delivers a programme that</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
skills to be learned. | enables students to use radio marketing techniques to reach certain target markets.
Skills applied on the job | Gives specific assignments for new agents to use radio marketing techniques to reach certain target markets. Rewards efforts and results in this area. | Provides suggestions on how to follow through and support the skills learned in the programme.
Training outcomes evaluated | Determines if new agents are using the radio marketing techniques and if their performance shows that the techniques are helping them reach target markets. | Gathers specific data on the application of new skills. Provides feedback to management on training content, audience, precourse preparation and/or supervision for application on the job.

Source: Adapted from Fisher, Schoenfelt and Shaw (1993: 371).

2.4.3.3 Training evaluation (Phase 3)

This is the last phase of the model for systematic training. Once the training needs have been determined and behavioural objectives stated and the training programme has been running, the outcomes are evaluated. We use participants to evaluate the following: the levels, the designs, the value for the training and the feedback.

2.5 PRECONDITIONS FOR LEARNING

There are two preconditions for learning: readiness and motivation. Trainee readiness concerns the situation where trainees possess the background skills and knowledge necessary to master the material that will be presented to them in the new training programme. For example, a basic knowledge of mathematical literacy, mathematics and mathematical sciences is a prerequisite for learning statistical quality control techniques.
Trainee motivation points to a felt need to learn new skills and therefore to understand the need for training (Swanepoel et al. 2000:504-505). According to Counsellor (2002), motivation is a desire to achieve a goal, combined with the energy to work towards that goal. Students who are motivated have a desire to undertake their study and meet the requirements of their course. They will also complete the tasks set for them even when assignments or practicals are difficult, or seem uninteresting. A distinction is made between positive motivation (enjoyment and optimism about the tasks) and negative motivation (undertaking tasks because failure to do so might have undesirable outcomes).

2.5.1 Principles of the further development of teachers

Buttler (1999:6) based the need for the further development of teachers on the following premises:

- Teacher development never stops.
- We are all lifelong learners.
- There is no perfect programme.
- Each school must draw up its own programme to suit its own aims and objectives.
- In-service training on site is more successful than sending staff away for training.
- The school should do needs assessment. Different schools have different needs, and different teachers have different needs and interests.
- Involve as many people as possible in the drive to advance their own teaching and promote the application of Curriculum 2005.
- The programme should be ongoing, as it will not succeed in one or two short bursts. The programme should have specific activities, and these should bring about permanent improvement in teaching and learning at the school.
• Teachers should try to make full use of the resources at their school and offer their expertise to others. For example, one person may be able to teach library skills to colleagues; another could teach computing skills.

• Schools may cluster with other schools and share their staff development programmes and resources (expertise or facilities).

• The best staff development programmes surface in schools that see themselves as places of innovation and change. They “think big”, they think creatively, and they respond to modern challenges.

• Each programme activity should have specific stated aims, and these should be evaluated.

2.6 TEACHING METHODS

Training should culminate in learning. For example, reading up on a topic leads to talks with the boss and a workshop leads to a project. The preferred learning style of individuals also guides the selection of the most effective methods and activities. Silberman (1996:16-18) identifies ten methods to ensure participation at any time during a workshop.

1. **Open discussion**: Ask a question and open it up to the entire group without any further structuring. If you are worried that the discussion might be too lengthy, ask four or five participants to share. To encourage them to participate, ask: “How many of you have a response to the question?” Then call on a participant with a raised hand.

2. **Response cards**: Pass out index cards and request anonymous answers to your questions. Have the index cards passed around the group. Use response cards to save time or provide anonymity for personally threatening self-disclosure. Response cards also promote concise answers.

3. **Polling**: Design a short survey that is filled out and tallied on the spot, or poll participants verbally. Use polling to obtain data quickly and in a
quantifiable form. If a written survey is used, try to feed back the results to the participants as quickly as possible. If you use a verbal survey, ask for a show of hands.

4. **Sub-group discussion**: Divide participants into sub-groups of three or more to share (and record) information. Use a sub-group discussion when you have sufficient time to process questions and issues. This is one of the key methods to obtain everyone’s participation.

5. **Learning partners**: Have participants work on tasks or discuss key questions with a participant next to them. Use learning partners when you want to involve everybody but do not have enough time for a small-group discussion. A pair is good for developing a supportive relationship and/or for working on complex activities that would not lend themselves to large groups.

6. **Whips**: Go around the group and obtain short responses to key questions. Use whips when you want to obtain something quickly from each student. Sentence stems (e.g. “One change I would make is ...”) are useful in conducting whips. Invite learners to “pass” whenever they wish. To avoid repetition, ask each participant for a new contribution to the process.

7. **Panels**: Invite a small number of participants to present their views in front of the entire group. An informal panel can be created by asking for the views of a designated number of participants who remain in their seats. Use panels when time permits a focused serious response to your questions. Rotate panellists to increase participation.

8. **Fishbowl**: Ask some participants to form a discussion circle, and have the remaining participants form a listening circle around them. Bring new groups into the inner circle to continue the discussion. Use fishbowls to help bring focus to large-group discussions. Though time consuming, this is the best method for combining the virtues of large- and small-group discussion. As a variation on concentric circles, have participants remain
seated at a table and invite different table groups or some participants per table to be the discussants as the others listen.

9. **Games**: Use a fun exercise or quiz game to tap students’ ideas, knowledge or skills. TV game shows such as Jeopardy or Family Feud can be used as the basis for a game that elicits participation. Use games to spark energy and involvement. Games are also helpful to make dramatic points that participants seldom forget.

10. **Calling on the next speaker**: Ask participants to raise their hands when they want to share their views, and request the present speaker to call on the next speaker (rather than the teacher performing this role). Use this technique when you are sure there is much interest in the discussion or activity and you wish to promote participant interaction.

According to Swanepoel *et al.* (2000:507), trainers must therefore take note of the following characteristics:

- Sceptism (the extent to which the trainee exhibits a questioning attitude and demands logic, evidence and examples);
- Resistance to change (the extent to which the trainee fears the process of moving into the unknown or of the effect that this may have on him/her);
- Attention span (the length of time a trainee can pay attention before attention wanes);
- Expectation level (the quality and quantity of training that the trainee requires from the trainer);
- Topical interest (the degree to which the trainee can be expected to have personal (job-relevant) interest in the topic);
- Self-confidence (the degree to which the trainee independently and positively views him/herself);
- The results (determining the trainee’s need for feedback, reinforcement and success experiences);
• Locus of control (the degree to which the trainee perceives that he/she can implement the training successfully on the job, with or without organisational support.

Cross (1981:1) emphasises that adult learning programmes should capitalise on the experience of participants, adapt to the age-related limitations of the participants, challenge them to move to increasingly advanced stages of personal development and offer maximum flexibility in terms of availability and organisation of learning programmes.

Vella (1994:2-22) mentions the following 12 principles of effective adult learning:

• Needs assessment (participation of the learner in naming what is to be learned);
• Safe teacher-learner environment;
• Sound teacher-learner relationship;
• Careful attention to sequence of content and reinforcement;
• Praxis (action with reflection or learning by doing);
• Respect for learners as subjects of their own learning;
• Cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects (ideas, feelings, actions);
• Immediacy of the learning;
• Clear roles and role development;
• Teamwork (using small groups);
• Engagement of the learners in what they are learning;
• Accountability (roles and responsibilities will assist them to learn and know what they do not know).

2.7 HOW TO EVALUATE THE MATERIALS
According to Lewis (1987:12) you need to know what you are looking for. The following questions should produce a clear picture:

- Is the subject covered at an appropriate level – not too advanced, not too simple?
- Is the package comprehensive enough or not comprehensive enough for your purposes?
- Does the package expect too much from participants or are the rewards insufficient?

According to the American Association for the Advancement of Science (2003:1), learning materials can be evaluated as follows:

- Make a preliminary inspection of the curriculum materials to see whether they are likely to address the targeted learning goals.
- Discard materials that do not meet these initial criteria.
- Determine whether the curriculum materials match the selected learning goals.

With respect to each of the sampled learning goals, the material is examined by means of questions such as:

- Does the content of the selected material address the substance of a specific learning goal or only the learning goal's general "topic"?
- Does the content reflect the level of sophistication of the specific learning goal, or are the activities more appropriate for targeting learning goals at an earlier or later grade level?
- Does the content address all parts of a specific learning goal or only some? Analyse the curriculum materials for alignment between instruction and the selected learning goals.

2.7.1 What makes good learning material?
Good learning material is practical, relevant to the learners’ situation, based upon existing knowledge and problem centred. In addition, it is presented in a user-friendly way, that is, it uses simple language, clear expression, a logical sequence, proper page layout, relevant pictures and a proper style. Clear language is particularly important where materials are developed for use in a second language. Clarity is achieved by limiting sentence length, passive constructions, abstract ideas and jargon (Nash 1999:1).

2.7.2 Evaluation of training programme

Staff development programmes are evaluated by looking at the preparation for the programme, the planning and execution of activities and the impact of the programme on the school and individuals. Training programmes need to be viewed like any other investment, that is, do they make good business sense (Klatt 1999:122). The Department of Education invests money in teachers, by offering numerous training programmes to empower them with knowledge that will help the learners to master the subject contents. This is particularly relevant in the neglected area of rural schools, where training workshops should be assessed in terms of their impact and teachers’ ability to teach OBE and assess learners in line with national policy on the education system’s role in creating a collaborative society (Parker & Harley, 1999).

2.7.3 Reasons for evaluation

According to Rae (2000:193), planners must be aware of the reasons for evaluation so that they can ensure they are included in the total training process. Evaluation is carried out to ensure that:

- the training is seen to make a change in the working practice of the individual and the organisation;
- the cost of the training matches the value of the training;
- valid responses to challenges arising from the training are possible;
• concrete evidence of the effectiveness of the training programme is available for senior management;
• the planning and design of the training programme are assessed;
• the training programme achieves its objectives;
• learners achieve their objectives;
• learners appreciate what they have learned and know how to apply their new knowledge.

2.7.4 Evaluation model

Sweeny’s (1998:1) "best practice" model for programme evaluation has been developed over about 20 years of work in curriculum and staff development. The table below presents the model, the original ideas for it having been loosely derived from the work of Tom Gusky and Donald Kirkpatrick.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps in the process:</th>
<th>Check when done</th>
<th>Planning details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Set the goals – purpose for the evaluation</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Identify the audiences for the data</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Define the indicators of success for each audience</td>
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<td>4. Check the relevance of each indicator to programme goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Determine the scope of the evaluation process</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Organise the indicators by data type: Reactions (survey attitudes) Learning (self-assessment/test) Behaviour (observe extent of use)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
2.7.5 Levels of evaluation

According to Klatt (1999:122), we first evaluate the value of the training programme for participants and the organisation. That is, we evaluate “to what degree” the training programme has met the explicit outcomes being sought. Then we evaluate the performance of the training programme leader. Klatt (1999:123, quoting Donald Kirkpatrick, 1975) identifies four levels of evaluation:

- **Reaction** (Did they like it?)
  This level focuses on participants’ reaction to the workshop and how well they accept the process and learning material. This may be done by means of the completion of an evaluation form upon leaving the workshop or after the participants have had a chance to apply their new learning. Possible questions are: Do you feel the workshop has helped you to understand and use the computer bulletin board? Did the leader allow time for participation? Was the leader supportive of different views? Did the leader make the learning material relevant and interesting? (Klatt 1999:123, quoting Donald Kirkpatrick, 1975).
• Learning (Did they learn?)
This level determines whether participants learnt the workshop contents and whether they can demonstrate this in some way. It focuses on awareness and understanding. The following questions could be asked in an oral or a written test or a quiz or an interview: Which steps are used in teaching a new employee? How does one use the computer bulletin board? The results can also be compared to answers to these questions before participants engaged in the workshop. In respect of the workshop leader one could ask the following question: What have you learned about leadership during the workshop and what changes will you make as a result of this learning? (Klatt 1999:124, quoting Donald Kirkpatrick, 1975).

• Behaviour (Did they see it?)
Are participants doing things differently in the workshop or on the job? Are they practicing new skills effectively? Are these changes visible or in some way measurable? This level focuses on assessing change in participants’ behaviour after a workshop or training programme, for instance by observing how a participant uses a computer bulletin board. A supervisor could also complete a “description-based” performance assessment. This could be done before and after a workshop for the purposes of comparison. Workshop-leader evaluation is another option. This entails an assessment of whether the workshop leader did what was planned and acted in the way it was planned. The workshop leader could do this assessment personally or ask participants or an experienced workshop leader to do the assessment. The assessment might focus on the handling of participation, manner of workshop start-up, the use of open-ended questions, and the workshop leader’s response to challenging by the group (Klatt 1999:125, quoting Donald Kirkpatrick, 1975).

• Results (Did it make a difference?)
This level entails measuring or observing “bottom line” organisational results following a workshop or training programme. The focus is on whether behaviour change occurred among the participants and whether
this improved the business of the organisation. An example is observing a new employee who has just been trained to use a computer bulletin board or determining whether there has been a reduction in cost, time lost due to accidents and absenteeism.

All four levels should be considered to assess the overall effectiveness of the training programme (Swanepoel et al. 2000:518).

2.8 EVALUATION PHASE

The last phase in a training programme is the evaluation phase. It focuses on determining the extent to which the training activities have met the stated objectives. Evaluation of training is often done poorly or not at all. One reason for this is that it is assumed that the training will work. Another reason is fear among the initiators of the training that an objective evaluation might show up deficiencies in the training. Planning for the evaluation should coincide with planning for the training programme (Swanepoel et al., 2000:517).

For effective training and learning evaluation, the principal questions should be:

- To what extent were the identified objectives achieved by the programme?
- To what extent were the learners' objectives achieved?
- What specifically did the learners learn or were they usefully reminded of?
- What commitment did the learners make about applying the learning on their return to work?
- How successful were the trainees in implementing their action plans?
- To what extent were they supported in this by their line managers?
- To what extent did the intended action achieve a return on investment for the organisation, either in terms of meeting identified objectives or
in monetary terms? Obviously the extent of evaluation is limited by available resources. Nevertheless, good methodical evaluation produces reliable data; without it little or nothing is known about the effectiveness of the training (Rae, 2000:193).

The objects of evaluation are the programme aspects that interest decision-makers. Verduin and Clark (1991:23) distinguish the following six aspects:

- **Access.** Who is being served, both in terms of absolute numbers and numbers in special target groups, is a very important programme aspect. Access is evaluated by assessing the participation of target populations for whom programmes have been developed. The means to widen access also have to be evaluated. These include promotion through mass media and other campaigns, availability of teaching materials and study centres.

- **Relevancy to needs and expectations.** Perhaps the most critical aspect of a programme is its relevancy to needs and expectations. If needs are ignored, not much of educational value can be achieved. High application rates may indicate that needs are being met, but do not necessarily indicate potential demand. Broad and varied programmes generally meet the needs of more learners than narrowly focused programmes.

- **Quality of programme.** The quality of a programme is a function of many factors. Since distance education relies so heavily on self-study materials, the quality of these materials is very important. Ultimately, their quality is judged by the degree of success learners have in using them. (Many teachers are unfamiliar with multimedia approaches to teaching and must learn how to use them, either alone or in combination with more conventional teaching methods.) To assess overall quality, the total educational experience of participants and the impact on their lives are also important. Have participants found satisfaction and recognition in their social environments?
• **Learning outcomes.** The evaluation of learning outcomes is a major indication of success or failure, certainly in the eye of funding bodies. The numbers of participants entering and exiting a programme (input/output ratio) and the amount of time taken to complete the programme are important indicators of learning outcomes. Because distance education is aimed at adult learners, these indicators need careful interpretation. Some adult participants just want to learn more about a subject for professional or other reasons, and do not care about getting a course credit or a diploma. Also, the time taken to complete a programme can vary widely because of the large differences in the life situation and study goals of adult learners.

• **Impact.** The impact of the programme is the overall success in the society as a whole. Both monetary and non-monetary impact can be assessed, such as whether learners do well after completing the programme, whether other institutions use the programme as a model, and whether enrolment steadily climbs. The impact assessment is mainly based on the long-term effects of a programme.

• **Cost-effectiveness.** The programme must meet the needs and demands of learners and society. The cost involved in determining this is also important. Cost-effectiveness is not easily measured, because of the many variables involved: fees, dropout rates, quality of study materials, size of target populations, study progress, etc. The costs per average learner per unit of study are difficult to compare between different programmes (De Volde, 1996).

Apart from decision-makers, participants could also be asked to evaluate the programme. This evaluation could be based on the programme content, the manner in which it has been organised, the time that has been used, the venue where it was presented, the manner of presenting it and the learning points or experiences of participants. Such evaluations are usually conducted at the end of a session, but are mentioned to highlight that programmes are designed and
implemented in order to achieve certain objectives, and if these are not achieved, what could be done to set the matter right.

Staff developers are also important role players in programme evaluation. According to Emerson and Goddard (1993:117), staff developers have to perform the following tasks during evaluation: coordinating the evaluation of school-based activities, writing an evaluation report on overall staff development, and keeping records of training attended and other development activities for each member of staff. Information could be extracted from correspondence, a tick-box questionnaire, a structured free-response questionnaire, an open-ended essay-type questionnaire, letters before and after the course (responding to directives such as: “Tell me your hopes and expectations of the course and your pressing concerns at school”, followed by “Given what you said before the course, would you now comment on it in the light of the course?”), diaries, and face-to-face interviews after structured or semi-structured interviews at regular intervals before, during and after the programme.

In conclusion, there is a need for an open and supportive climate for evaluating staff development programmes (Bradley, 1991:125). Thus principals or staff development committees may have to create a conducive environment or climate in which teachers’ learning and development are not only supported, but stimulated (Emerson & Goddard, 1993:117).

2.9 DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF EDUCATORS RELATED TO IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING

This section deals with the duties and responsibilities regarding INSET of all role players directly involved in the school, as per Departmental regulations.

2.9.1 The principal
The principal is expected to do the following:

- Co-operate with universities, colleges and other agencies in relation to learners’ records and performance.
- Coordinate INSET and management development programmes.
- Participate in Departmental and professional committees, seminars and courses in order to contribute to and/or update professional views/standards (DoE, PAM, 1999:873).
- Ensure that the education of the learners is promoted in a proper manner and in accordance with approved policies.
- Provide professional leadership within the school, take responsibility for the development of school-based, school-focused and externally directed staff training programmes.
- Assist teachers, particularly new and inexperienced ones, to develop and achieve educational objectives in accordance with the needs of the school.
- Participate in agreed school/teacher appraisal processes in order to regularly review professional practice so as to improve teaching, learning and management.
- Ensure that all evaluation or assessment in the school is efficiently organised.
- Assess and record the attainment of learners.

2.9.2 The deputy principal

The deputy principal is expected to do the following:

- Take responsibility for the school curriculum and pedagogy, e.g. choice of textbooks.
- Coordinate the work of subject committees and groups.
- Oversee timetabling, INSET and developmental programmes.
• Arrange teaching practice (DoE, PAM, 1999:874).
• Assist the principal with school administration, e.g. internal and external evaluation and assessment.
• Assess and record the attainment of learners.
• Guide and supervise the work and performance of staff.
• Participate in agreed teacher development appraisal processes in order to regularly review professional practice with the aim of improving teaching, learning and management (ELRC Resolution No. 8, 1998:873-874).

2.9.3 The head of Department

The head of Department is expected to do the following:
• Participate in Departmental and professional committees, seminars and courses.
• Contribute to and/or update professional views/standards (DoE, PAM, 1999:873).
• Engage in class teaching.
• Ensure effective functioning of the Department and organise relevant/related extra-curricular activities so as to ensure that the subject, learning area or phase and the education of the learners are promoted.
• Assess and record the attainment of the learners.
• Coordinate evaluation, homework and written assignments of all the subjects in that Department.
• Provide and coordinate guidance on the latest approaches to the subjects, methods, techniques, evaluation, aids, syllabuses, schemes of work, homework, practical work and remedial work.
• Participate in agreed teacher appraisal processes in order to regularly review professional practice with the aim of improving teaching, learning and management (ELRC Resolution No. 8, 1998:875-876).
2.9.4 The teacher

The teacher participates in agreed teacher development appraisal processes in order to regularly review his/her professional practice with the aim of –

- improving teaching, learning and management;
- remaining informed of current development in educational thinking and curriculum development;
- preparing lessons that take into account orientation, regional courses, new approaches, techniques, evaluation and aids in the particular field;
- assessing professional development needs by completing questionnaires, and doing developmental appraisals;
- implement and participate in staff development programmes, to evaluate the success/problems of staff development programmes in terms of the goals of the institution/Department, and to provide support for the professional growth of teachers by means of an appraisal programme (ELRC Resolution No. 8, 1998:876-877).
- The teacher also participates in Departmental and professional committees, seminars and courses in order to contribute to and/or update professional views/standards (DoE, PAM, 1999:878).

2.9.5 The subject advisor

The subject advisor must evaluate the success/problems of staff development programmes in terms of the goals of the institution/Department (DoE, PAM, 1999:880).
2.10 THE ROLE AND FUNCTION OF THE SUBJECT ADVISOR IN THE KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The subject advisor in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education has the following duties regarding staff development:

- Implement policy.
- Monitor and evaluate policy implementation.
- Guide institutions on policy formulation and implementation.
- Maintain effective partnership between parents and school staff to promote teaching and learning.
- Facilitate workshops/training/INSET and curriculum development at institution, district, provincial and national level.
- Evaluate success/problems of staff development programmes in terms of the goals of the institution/Department.
- Promote Curriculum 2005 and assessment of its application.
- Coordinate and guide the continued professional growth of teachers through regular needs-based in-service and orientation courses.
- Identify available source materials and bring these to the teacher by means of establishing regional structures for meaningful interaction among teachers.
- Visit schools in order to provide guidance and to interact with teachers with the purpose of gleaning and sharing material and methodologies, appraising teachers’ work as an integral part of the general staff development initiative, and assisting with the induction of newly appointed teachers and heads of Department (ELRC Resolution No. 8, 1998:878-880).
2.11 BENEFITS OF A TRAINING PROGRAMME

If training programmes are properly designed, they can create an effective workforce and a sound institutional image. Teachers may improve their skills and knowledge in any of the eight learning areas, namely Literacy languages and communication (LLC), mathematical literacy, mathematics and mathematical sciences (MLMMS), natural sciences (NS), human and social sciences (HSS), arts and culture (AC), life orientation (LO), economic and management sciences (EMS), and technology (T). Training programmes can make it easier for principals to manage the teaching force, particularly where programmes are directed at national priorities.

According to Rebore (1998:169), staff development programmes may help teachers to keep abreast of developments in their respective subjects, as well as in the development of education in general. This usually depends on what staff development is intended to achieve. Apart from being agents of community development, teachers can orientate or reorientate learners with regard to what is happening today, motivating them, dealing with their problems, disciplining them in an acceptable way, and respecting democracy and the constitution without overlooking teachers’ rights and obligations. Staff development programmes can acquaint teachers with research on the instructional process and new methods of teaching. Dilts (2002:1) holds that training programmes help teachers to:

- be better able to handle difficult pupils;
- develop a greater understanding of different learning styles;
- enhance learners’ self-esteem and therefore their desire for positive reinforcement;
- manage their own frame of mind and emotional state better, resulting in reduced stress and greater job satisfaction;
- become more positive about learning, transferring this attitude to the learners;
• become more creative, imaginative and stimulating in their presentations.

2.12 BARRIERS TO A TRAINING PROGRAMME

Rebore (1998:165-167) identifies the following possible barriers to a training programme:

• Failure on the part of teachers to understand the intention with a programme.
• Resistance among teachers who feel that proposed changes are a threat to how they normally do things.
• Lack of expertise on the part of the staff development functionary, which may pose a problem in the design, delivery and evaluation of a programme.
• Refusal to attend workshops or meetings convened by people whose expertise is doubted.
• Programmes that appear to undermine teachers’ creative thinking.
• Lack of commitment on the part of the school management team and teachers.
• Lack of time allowed by the principal or school management team.
• Lack of an opportunity to implement what has been learnt in the programme.
• Fixed school timetables.
• Mismatch between identified individual and group needs and the staff development programme.
• Unavailability of appropriate resources.
• Lack of funds to initiate or attend courses, workshops, seminars and learning activities.
• A negative relationship between the staff development practitioner and teachers.
2.13 CONCLUSION

Staff development may improve the performance of individuals and organisations. Staff development objectives need to be clearly stated and coupled with the school/Department’s vision and mission. Staff development programmes have to be coordinated by designated individuals or committees. It must be an on-going exercise throughout the year. This scenario has to be realised particularly in farm and rural schools, which greatly lack infrastructure and the required number of teachers, and have over-crowded classrooms, under-qualified, under-motivated, under-paid and under-supported teachers, and insufficient books and teaching aids (Unterhalter et al., 1991: 227).

Planning for staff development and a workshop/training programme is important. Successful training begins with a needs assessment to determine which employees have to be trained and what they need to be trained to do. Several contributors to learning have been identified, including preconditions for learning, such as readiness (the required skills and knowledge) and motivation. Training programmes are an investment in teachers and through them in learners.
CHAPTER THREE

3. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH AND COLLECTION OF DATA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Swanepoel et al. (2000:499), the choice of methods of data collection and the choice of data sources depend partly on the nature of the problem and the purpose of the investigation. This study aimed at exploring whether rural teachers gained and applied the knowledge from Departmental workshops on the assessment of OBE. I opted for qualitative research and collected data by means of interviews, more particularly semi-structured interviews. After the initial sample was drawn, I personally conducted the fieldwork to collect the data, as is common practice in qualitative research.

Interviewing in qualitative research relies on the questioning and listening capabilities of qualitative researchers. These researchers are not unbiased and separated from the research process, neither is the objective and value free in their observations and interpretations. Therefore they and their sample are both part of the research and influence each other (Struwig & Stead, 2001:125). Qualitative researchers have to go "into the field" to observe the phenomenon in its natural state. They take extensive field notes and then code and analyse these in a variety of ways (Trochim, 2002:1).

The exposition below takes a closer look at the objectives and design of the research, the data sources, semi-structured interviewing and purposive sampling.

Fisher, Schoenfelt and Shaw (1993:372) suggest the following methods of data gathering for a training needs analysis:

- Searching existing records by studying performance appraisal, performance record and training record.
- Conducting individual interviews with job incumbents.
3.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research was aimed at investigating whether teachers in practice met the Departmental directives regarding OBE assessment after undergoing training, that is, at determining whether they acted professionally afterwards, could assess OBE properly and contributed to meeting the intellectual and professional challenges facing South Africans in the 21st century. (Although the purpose of this research was not to determine if the education Department achieved its objectives, some assessment to this effect will shed light on the research problem.)

I also had to determine whether the training objectives, training methods, duration of the training and follow-up were planned in line with the objectives of the education Department and whether teachers' expectations of the training were met.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is governed by the notion of “fitness for purpose” (Cohen et al. 2000:73). Research design also holds the research project together, as it shows how all the major parts of the research project, the samples or groups, measures, treatments or programmes, and methods of assignment work together to address the central research question (Trochim, 2002:1).

An adequate research design will take cognisance of the reliability and validity of the research and the triangulation of the findings.

- **Validity.** In qualitative research, validity is another word for “truth” – there is no "golden key" to it, as all analysis is based on interpretation, all data have to be analysed, including contrary/deviant cases, and the whole analytical procedure has to be documented (Silverman, 2000:175). Internal validity demonstrates that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data can be sustained by the data. The
findings must accurately describe the phenomena being researched. External validity refers to the degree to which the results can be generalised to the wider population, cases or situations (Cohen et al. 2000:104-109). According to Struwig et al. (2001:143), validity implies trustworthiness or credibility. If research lacks validity, it is worthless.

- **Triangulation** may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour. It is a technique of research to which many subscribe in principle, but which only a minority use practice such as maritime navigators and military strategies. Triangulation is a powerful way of demonstrating concurrent validity particularly in qualitative research (Cohen et al. 2000:112).

I sought to achieve validity by conducting semi-structured face-to-face interviews with individual teachers on the same topic: training on OBE assessment against the background of Curriculum 2005.

I strove to achieve internal validity by posing the same questions to all interviewees, using the same methods of interviewing and analysing the results of all interviews in a similar fashion. I took particular care to minimise bias resulting from respondent's attitudes, opinions and expectations, and bias from interviewees' misunderstanding of what was being asked (Cohen et al. 2000:120). To avoid confusion and possible problems, I arranged an information session with all teachers before the interview phase began. External validity was achieved by generalising the results to the wider population, cases or situations. As for triangulation, I combined face-to-face individual interviews with a selected group of teachers who are informants.

### 3.4 SOURCE OF DATA

I will conduct semi-structured interviews to get information from three language teachers, three mathematics teachers and three social science teachers from
three schools in the Mooi River Circuit, which falls under the Midlands District. I will collect the data in a form of transcribed notes from interviews. I will analyse and interpret the data because it does not speak for themselves. I chose teachers from rural areas who attended the C2005 workshop of the education Department to test whether the training would make a difference in schools that were the most disadvantaged and most needed intervention to prepare learners for the demands of life in the 21\textsuperscript{st} century in South Africa. The three learning areas were selected because they were characterised by poor learner performance and inadequate assessment of learner performance.

3.5 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWING

Semi-structured interviewing involves direct interaction between the researcher and a respondent or group. It differs from the traditional structured interview in several important ways. First, although I may have some initial guiding questions or core concepts, there is no formally structured questionnaire. Second, the interviewer is free to move the conversation to cover any issue of interest that may come up. He/she may ask supplementary questions not included in the schedule so as to explore general views or opinions in more detail. Cohen and Manion (2000:146) maintain that the semi-structured interview schedule is sufficiently open-ended to enable reordering, digression and expansion, exploring new issues and probing further. However, as each interview tends to be unique, it is difficult to analyse semi-structured interview data, especially when synthesising across respondents (Trochim 2002:1). If structured properly, comparison of responses is nevertheless possible.

I also opted for semi-structured interviews because they are built up of open-ended questions that allow respondents to answer in whatever way they choose. This makes them useful for investigating sensitive topics. Although interviewers have little control over semi-structured interviews, they are a means to obtain
directives as to what interviewers know and have little knowledge about (Lincoln & Guba, cited in Cohen & Manion, 2000:270).

3.6 PURPOSIVE SAMPLING AND SELECTION

The researcher applied purposive sampling, that is, the respondents were purposely selected according to certain characteristics (Bickman & Rog, 1998:510). The researcher prepared questions for semi-structured individual interviews of nine rural teachers from three schools who had attended the training programme and were teaching languages (LLC), mathematical literacy, mathematics and mathematical sciences (MLMMS), and human and social sciences (HSS) (three teachers per learning area). These learning areas were selected because they were characterised by:

- Poor learner performance.
- Inadequate assessment of learner performance.
- Posing challenges to both teachers and learners.
- Non-uniformity regarding assessment and its forms.

The aim was to evaluate the training programme relating to the above learning areas. In qualitative research, reliability can be regarded as a fit between what researchers record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched, i.e. the degree of accuracy and comprehensiveness of coverage (Cohen et al. 2001:119). The reliability and validation of the data collected from the selected teachers were enhanced by the fact that they were asked the same questions and they all attended the training.

There are two main methods of sampling, namely random sampling (or probability sampling) and purposive sampling (or non-probability sampling). In random sampling every member of the research population has an equal chance of being included in the sample, whereas in purposive sampling the researcher makes specific choices about which people to include in the sample. The researcher targets a specific group, knowing that the group does not represent
the wider population; it simply represents itself. Purposive sampling often coincides with convenience sampling, whereby the researcher chooses a sample that is easy to reach (Bertram, 2003:67-68). However, although purposive sampling is likely to yield the opinions of the target population, particular sub-groups in the population may be overweighed, as they may be more readily accessible (Trochim, 2002).

The three schools that were purposively selected for this research were all from rural areas. These schools are poor, no electricity, no laboratories and insufficient stationery. The majority of the parents cannot afford to pay school fees, and other school needs. The public transport servicing these schools is scarce and inadequate.
CHAPTER FOUR

4. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of analysing data is to find meaning, and this is done by systematically arranging and presenting the information. It has to be organised so that comparisons, contrasts and insights can be extracted and demonstrated (Burns, 2000:430). The process of data analysis involves making sense out of text and image data. This requires preparation of the data for analysis, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data (Creswell, 2003:190). As qualitative data are in the form of words, such as transcripts of interviews, words have to be read for their meaning. Hence the illumination of meaning and interpretation of events could be regarded as the main aim of qualitative data analysis (Taylor, Fittz-Gibon & Lyons, 1988:10).

4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

For this study, nine teachers were selected from the following curriculum areas:

- Human and social sciences (HSS) (three teachers (i))
- Mathematical literacy, mathematics and mathematical sciences (MLMMS) (three teachers (ii))
- Languages (LLC) (three teachers (iii))

The teachers were all qualified to teach their subjects. They had teaching diplomas, higher teacher’s diplomas and various degrees in different fields. Their teaching experience ranged between one and twenty-two years of continuous service. Below is an outline of each teacher.
Teacher A: School A (i). This teacher was teaching social sciences to Grade Nines. He had obtained a Higher Diploma in Education (HDE), which is a four-year diploma. His teaching experience ranged between six and seven years of continuous service. He was a level one teacher.

Teacher B: School B (i). This teacher was teaching social sciences to Grade Nines. She had obtained a Secondary Diploma in Education (STD), which is a three-year diploma. Her teaching experience ranged between five and six years of continuous service. She was a level one teacher.

Teacher C: School C (i). This teacher was teaching social sciences to Grade Nines. He had obtained a Senior Secondary Teacher’s Diploma (SSTD), a Bachelor of Education and a Bachelor of Education Honours. His teaching experience ranged between nine and ten years of continuous service. He was a head of Department (HOD) and a level two teacher.

Teacher A: School A (ii). This teacher was teaching mathematics to Grade Nines. He had obtained a Bachelor of Science Honours, which is a four-year degree. His teaching experience ranged between twenty-one and twenty-two years of continuous service. He was a level one teacher.

Teacher B: School B (ii). This teacher was teaching mathematics to Grade Nines. He had obtained a Secondary Teacher’s Diploma (STD), which is a three-year diploma. His teaching experience ranged between three and four years of continuous service. He was a level one teacher.

Teacher C: School C (ii). This teacher was teaching mathematics to Grade Nines. He had obtained a Bachelor of Science and Secondary Teacher’s Diploma (STD). His teaching experience ranged between sixteen and seventeen years of continuous service. He was a level one teacher.
Teacher A: School A (iii). This teacher was teaching English to Grade Nines. She had obtained a Higher Diploma in Education (HDE), which is a four-year diploma. Her teaching experience ranged between six months and one year of continuous service. She was a level one teacher.

Teacher B: School B (iii). This teacher was teaching English to Grade Nines. He had obtained a Secondary Teacher’s Diploma (STD), which is a three-year diploma. His teaching experience ranged between thirteen and fourteen years of continuous service. He was a level one teacher.

Teacher C: School C (iii). This teacher was teaching English to Grade Nines. She had obtained a Senior Secondary Teacher’s Diploma (SSTD), which is a three-year diploma. Her teaching experience ranged between two and three years of continuous service. She was a level one teacher.

The teaching experience of the teachers can be summarised as follows:

- Between 1 and 4 years: 3 teachers
- Between 5 and 9 years: 3 teachers
- Between 10 and 19 years: 2 teachers
- Between 20 and 23 years: 1 teacher

The post levels of the teachers can be summarised as follows:

- Post level one: 8 teachers
- Head of Department: 1 teacher

4.3 TRAINING PROGRAMME

The teachers received training on the assessment guidelines for Curriculum 2005 for Grade Nine. They were expected to understand and apply the assessment guidelines and techniques so as to assess their learners in line with the standards set by the government, that is assess whether their learners...
“demonstrate their achievements of the learning outcomes and the ways of demonstrating their achievement” (Government Gazette, 2002:23).

The teachers found that much of the training remained theoretical, as practical application did not occur. The use of numerous abstract terms was confusing. Planning at school level was characterised by much overlap, and no clear-cut solutions were forthcoming.

The teachers complained that the training time was too short, causing them to be ill prepared for teaching Curriculum 2005 and unable to use performance-based assessments, the latter indicating learners’ ability to use their knowledge and skills to produce presentations, write research papers, do investigation, demonstration and exhibition projects, participate in singing, athletics and speeches, and do musical presentations (Curriculum 2005 Assessment Guidelines, 2002:8).

District officials who conducted the training were criticised for not understanding the terminology and for using teaching methods that were inconsistent with outcomes-based education (OBE), e.g. formative assessment and baseline assessment. According to the teachers, some facilitators had not been trained thoroughly on the subject content, given that the facilitators’ training had lasted only one week. They could therefore not answer the teachers’ questions.

4.4 RESPONSES TO PRE-SET QUESTIONS PER YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

The teachers were aware that much was expected of the National Department of Education’s new curriculum design, Curriculum 2005, which is based on an OBE approach to teaching and learning. They believed that the introduction of OBE would cause many teachers to reconsider their approach, and shift towards much more effective teaching and learning in their classrooms.
The teachers whose experience ranged between one and four years

The following questions were asked during the interviews:

*Are you enjoying teaching OBE?*

*Briefly, how did the training programme meet your expectations?*

- Two of the three teachers said they were enjoying teaching OBE. The other one said, “I enjoy teaching OBE besides being confused.” Many of the conceptual confusion, lack of clarity on policy documents and difficulty with implementation stemmed from basic structure and design flaws in Curriculum 2005, and the complex, vague and ambiguous language used. The teachers’ problem with understanding the terminology could in part also be described to their inexperience. The more experienced teachers could apply their knowledge and experience to make sense out of the teaching.

Two of the three teachers said the training programme met their expectations because the content was informative, though it was not very helpful when practised in the classroom situation. The other teacher stated that the training programme “did not meet my expectations exactly because the workshop did not look at the revised national curriculum statement”. He nevertheless got exposed to the new assessment types and learnt how to integrate all learning areas.

The teachers also indicated that they had overcome their fear of mathematics. However, they were still unable to explain it and make it interesting to learners. They also acknowledged the benefits of group work, with "less able learners [being] easily helped by others".
The teachers whose experience ranged between five and nine years

Are you enjoying teaching OBE?

The three teachers said they were enjoying teaching OBE and it was an honour for them to be delegated participants in the training programme. Their experience helped them to better understand the workshop content.

Briefly, how did the training programme meet your expectations?

One of the three teachers said he enjoyed the training workshop because it would help transform education and showed different ways of making learning interesting and effective in school. The second said the training programme “was not up to the expected standard due to the fact that some facilitators were not clear about certain issues regarding Curriculum 2005”. The third said, “We were not asked to state our expectations; instead, we were told about Curriculum 2005 and assessment criteria.”

The teachers whose experience ranged between ten and nineteen years

Are you enjoying teaching OBE?

One of the teachers was enjoying teaching OBE, especially when the learners were engaged in activities. The other had a lot of experience in teaching, was averse to learning new assessment techniques and did not enjoy teaching OBE.

Briefly, how did the training programme meet your expectations?

The teachers’ teaching experience helped them to understand concepts and terminology. However, the more experienced teacher commented: “The workshop did not meet my expectations […] and I am still struggling to understand assessment guidelines and what to cover in the syllabus.”
The teacher whose teaching experience ranged between twenty and twenty-three years

*Are you enjoying teaching OBE?*

This teacher enjoyed teaching OBE, which can partially be ascribed to his long teaching experience.

*Briefly, how did the training programme meet your expectations?*

The teacher remarked as follows: “The expectations were not fully met, especially the various strategies of teaching multicultural classes. Assessment strategies could not be met.”

Out of all teachers, only four teachers said that their expectations had been met. The other five complained that they had wasted their time and suggested the following:

- Workshop expectations should be discussed at the beginning of the workshop.
- Expectations should be integrated in all activities during the workshop.
- Workshop expectations should guide facilitators in their planning.
- Information like starting and finishing time should be communicated to all participants.
- The workshop outline should be discussed with the participants.
- The factual content of the workshop should guide the facilitators in planning specific workshop tasks.
- Facilitators should draw from participants’ expectations and workshop outcomes to devise follow-up workshops to improve the effect of the initial training in the long term.
- Participants should be prepared mentally for the workshop and encouraged to stay focused once they engage in the workshop.
- Participants should abide by the workshop hours.
- Participants should be encouraged to co-operate in all the group work.
4.5 LEARNING

Many of the teachers were still confused and did not benefit enough from the training. More particularly, the following issues require attention:

- The problem of unequal training was compounded by redeployment policies. According to the teachers, redeployment had the effect of shifting teachers not trained in Curriculum 2005 or OBE into classrooms where they were expected to implement Curriculum 2005.
- Training provided increased levels of understanding of OBE, but there were real difficulties with what it meant in practice for ‘designing learning programmes, integration and continuous assessment’.
- Most of the teachers rely on the themes discussed at cluster meetings.
- Teachers with 10-23 years of teaching experience were unlikely to leave their comfort zones. Hence they integrated OBE and old methods of teaching.
- The weakness of the training was the perception that was created that in Curriculum 2005 ‘anything goes’. Many teachers appear to have left the training workshops not knowing what it was they ought to teach.
- “One of the main problems with the training is that it focused on teaching the terminology rather than engaging with the substance underlying the terminology.”

What is worrying is that continuous assessment was designed and managed by the very same teachers who were confused and struggling to assess learners. They were expected to use the Curriculum 2005 framework and the national assessment guidelines.

Continuous assessment should comprise a variety of assessment measures (at least five, according to the assessment guidelines) to ensure a fair and representative sample of specific outcomes per learning area. These had to be reflected in the learners’ assessment portfolios for showcasing and moderation.
purposes. Five of the teachers indicated that their assessment portfolios illustrated different forms of assessment:

- Tests, orals, assignments, performances, displays, exhibitions, field trips
- Sketch book assignments, research tasks, projects, investigations
- Interviews, questionnaires, arts processes and products using different art forms or media or methods
- Observation, journals
- Essays, scripts

The other four teachers were still relying on old forms of assessment, that is testing and orals.

With the introduction of a new curriculum to South African education, teachers are desperate for support, both in understanding and accepting the changes required of them, and in implementing these changes in their classrooms. Six of the nine teachers confirmed that they could now do assessment, design learning programmes, plan integrated activities and produce support materials, and handle large classes, research skills, co-operative learning strategies and team building. Three teachers needed to be assisted in terms of assessment.

4.5.1 Responses to pre-set questions on teaching the learning area using OBE

*Can you teach your learning area using OBE?*

**The three teachers whose experience ranged from one to four years**

The three teachers stated that they had been teaching their learning areas using OBE since its implementation. However, the following grassroots problems were still experienced:

- Teachers and learners of the old method found it difficult to apply OBE. Learners were sometimes subjected to a system they no longer understood. Teachers had to be retrained to manage the transition.
Some schools sent teachers for training in their learning areas they teach, but those teachers were not given the same learning areas to teach the following year. Instead they were given other learning areas to teach, as a result there was no continuity and follow-up and the information learnt and received from the workshop was given to another Grade Nine teacher who is new in the learning area and who has never been to Grade Nine workshops for that learning area.

The three teachers whose experience ranged from five to nine years

Can you teach your learning area using OBE?

- Teachers agreed that training helped them to teach learning areas through OBE and the training increased the levels of understanding of OBE, but there were difficulties in the designing learning programmes, integration and continuous assessment.
- The teachers relied on the themes they chose at cluster meetings.

The head of Department whose experience ranged from nine to ten years

Can you teach your learning area using OBE?

The head of Department did not differ from the other teachers because he stated that he could teach his learning area using OBE, but was concerned about the perception that in Curriculum 2005 “anything goes”, causing many teachers to leave the training workshop not knowing what it was they had to teach.

The teachers whose experience ranged from ten to nineteen years

Can you teach your learning area using OBE?
The teachers were not sure whether they were teaching OBE or subject content. They seem to have been mixing old and new methods due to their extended teaching experience and the fact that the training focused on teaching the terminology rather than the presentation of the substance underlying the terminology.

The teacher whose experience ranged from twenty-one to twenty-two years

Can you teach your learning area using OBE?

This teacher stated emphatically that he found it hard to change his style of teaching, resulting in learners receiving information from the teacher without actively participating in the lesson.

4.5.2 Learning materials

It became evident that the learning materials were of variable quality and often unavailable, the latter problem afflicting rural schools the most. The materials were sometimes also unusable for teaching Curriculum 2005. The variable quality was a result of design flaws in Curriculum 2005 and the unreliability of the evaluation process. There was an overall low use of textbooks, and pencils, exercise books and photocopiers were in short supply, particularly in rural schools. Furthermore, most of the teachers did not have the time, resources or skill to develop their own materials.

4.5.3 Methods of teaching

Most of the facilitators used lectures and group work or group discussions because of the large audiences at the workshops.

Lecture method

The lecture method was used to introduce subjects, but the facilitators failed to ensure that the teachers had the necessary background to learn the subject. This
problem was complicated by the fact that the lecture hall was full to capacity and teachers who had lost concentration began talking to one another while the lecture was going on.

The teachers felt that the lecture method limited their participation. The lecture method was also inadequate for teaching hands-on skills and was unable to maintain the teachers’ interest.

**Group work or group discussions**

Other facilitators used group work to encourage discussion among the teachers and in this way developed social skills useful in the professional environment, particularly as far as speaking in front of a class were concerned. Group work also encouraged the teachers to exchange ideas, although the following problems were obvious:

- The groups were large, noisy and uncontrollable.
- The tasks to be performed were not clearly stated in most of the groups.
- Most of the teachers were not prepared to learn from others.
- Life experiences, beliefs, values and emotional responses to situations varied.
- Most groups eventually fell apart, causing report back to fall away.
- It was difficult to grade individual input.
- Some teachers were unwilling or unable to put their ideas across to the whole group.
- The urban teachers often monopolised the floor, while rural teachers were silent because of their limited exposure.

The teachers finally agreed that the lecture and group work/discussions could be put to good effect if employed by a person who knew the subject matter.

The teachers suggested that, in future, facilitators should come prepared and do the following:
• Divide teachers into small groups. Large groups (eight and more members) compromised project management and allowed some members to "disappear".

• Allocate teachers to groups rather than allowing them to pick groups themselves.

• Ensure that there is a mix of gender, age and culture in each group to elicit a representative discussion.

• Allow and encourage group members to play different roles, and ensure that all group members are sure what their roles in the group are. Possible roles include note taking, chairing the group, reporting back and exercising discipline.

• Regroup the whole group from time to time to give shy teachers a chance to participate.

4.5.4 Training material

The workshop training material was relevant for the forms of assessment for Curriculum 2005, e.g. assessment policy, portfolios, guidelines on recording format, reports and hand-outs. However, the number of copies of the material was not enough for the number of teachers and some terms were left unexplained. The teachers made the following suggestions:

• Oral: Focus on cultural activities of a specific group.

• Assignment: Concentrate on a popular cultural expression, e.g. Kwaito music, Zulu paintings or, as follow-up to a field trip or investigation, the development of a specific piece of art.

• Performance: Include the setting up of the stage.

• Standard sketchbook for visual art: Show the development of two- and three-dimensional works.

• Exhibition: Produce two- and three-dimensional art works over six months.

• Field trip: Consider an art gallery, theatre or any other place where learners can learn about any form of art.
• Research or investigation: Include any form of art that relates to a specific theme.

• Project on dance, drama, music or visual arts: Make use of individual and group work.

• Interviews: Record the opinions of all cultural groups in a community.

• Questionnaires: Gather information about the cultural activities of all cultural groups and record the findings regarding the responses.

• Portfolio: Include five good products, each reflecting an art discipline, e.g. visual art, drama, dance and the process of art making.

• Essay: Write about any form of art based on observations.

4.5.5 Achieving the aims of the workshop

Only two teachers stated that the workshop had helped them to understand and use different forms of assessment for Curriculum 2005, namely alternative assessment, summative assessment and diagnostic assessment. This means that the workshop did not achieve what was intended. This can be ascribed to the following factors:

• Although most of the facilitators employed group work, most of the groups were too large, which discouraged teacher participation.

• The facilitators were unable to attend to and support the different views of the participants due to lack of time, the large number of participants and the shortage of training material.

• The teachers were using old forms of assessment in their schools, such as recording learner achievement by means of a one-to-five-point scale. Most of the facilitators were unable to support the teachers to set this matter right because they were in a hurry to finish the training. The teachers seemed to be trying to set matters right regardless of lack of support.

• The training environment was non-conducive to learning, as the teachers were crammed into a small lecture hall and tended to form groups with
teachers of their own schools. They were also asked to brainstorm all types of assessment, though some were irrelevant to their particular learning areas.

- Rural teachers received no follow-up support from the Department of Education in respect of assessment and OBE. Moreover, the nine rural schools were lacking resources such as textbooks and other supporting materials relevant to OBE and Curriculum 2005.
- Old teachers were comfortable in their old methods of teaching and were averse to changing and adopting the transformation.
- Young teachers were prepared to learn about and explore the new education environment.

4.5.6 Transport problems

The teachers supported the idea of attending training workshops at venues removed from their immediate environment, reporting back to other members of staff and attending follow-up programmes. However, some indicated that transport problems could be sidestepped by on-site training workshops. They also suggested that teachers of the same school draw up a programme to assist one another or invite experts to assist them at their school.

Networking through cluster groups was regarded as another (partial) solution to transport problems. Cluster members could meet at a central point where the necessary resources were available. Prescribed activities (such as assessment) could then be performed jointly at this point. Learners could afterwards be given descriptive feedback to help them improve on their performance, or individual achievement charts could be put up in classrooms to encourage learners to work hard throughout the year. Improvising learning materials could also be done jointly, so as to maximise the use of time. Such joint endeavours would however be more difficult to engage in for rural teachers because of poor road infrastructure in outlying areas.
4.6 BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

The investigation revealed that six of the teachers (those who had one to nine years’ teaching experience) changed their behaviour in that they gave their Grade Nines classes tasks as part of assessment. Tasks such as tests, role-plays, projects, case studies and oral questions were common to them. Most of the teachers also divided learners into groups and assigned group tasks, indicating that they had learned something at the workshop. Most of the teachers could differentiate between continuous assessment (CASS) (internal assessment designed by teachers) and common tasks for assessment (CTA) (assessment designed by the Department of Education).

Seven of the teachers were unable to remember tasks that had been given to them during the workshop. This indicates that the facilitators were ill prepared to teach, or their lessons were uninteresting, preventing the teachers from learning how to handle assessment issues. It can also mean that the teachers did not have the ability to learn or they were not motivated to learn. This might have an implication for the selection of teachers for future training: Selection must be based on willingness to attend, proper motivation and ability to learn from the training and convey to other teachers at the school what has been learned. The two teachers who could remember the tasks they had been given fell in the 10-19 and 20-23 range of years of experience. They cited the following tasks: creating a rubric for the assessment of a topic, the task consisting of group discussions and a plenary; co-operative learning relevant to the teachers’ background and experience; and a task about electricity.

The teachers believed that subject teachers and heads of Department should identify assessment problems and suggest solutions. Most of them admitted that they needed more workshops on assessment and Curriculum 2005 because the workshop had been too theoretical (practical application of theoretical issues was overlooked).
4.7 REACTION ON THE TRAINING

This section deals with reaction of teachers on the training. The teachers views with regards to the training are as follows:

The workshop somehow failed to prepare either officials or school-based educators for the complexity of Curriculum 2005 assessment strategies. Teachers complained that the time was too short, and therefore maybe not all teachers are prepared to teach Curriculum 2005, but I am prepared, the workshop prepared me and I enjoyed it.

Some facilitators were also unclear about certain issues. However, the head of Department commented as follows: The workshop did succeed as it clarified OBE as policy, the specific outcomes and the integration of learning areas.

Some teachers felt that the numerous unfamiliar terms used confused them. At school level there was a lot of overlap in planning and no clear-cut solutions. The various strategies of teaching multicultural classes also posed problems. Furthermore, the assessment strategies could not be applied fully. Nevertheless, one teacher mentioned that he/she had been exposed to new types of assessment and could afterwards integrate all learning areas. Some teachers were trying to implement the assessment types specified by the policy. For example, they used questionnaires, mind maps, practical demonstrations, sing-songs, tests and performance-based tasks such as interviews, assignments and projects.

The teachers were given information about Curriculum 2005 and its assessment. The training was found to be relevant to their jobs and to have improved their teaching performance. Most of the teachers could teach their learning areas using OBE and they were trying to meet the outcomes. Some teachers contended that the training material was not enough for all teachers and only partially relevant. Learners are trying to pass tests and assignments although
books and visual materials are in short supply. There are neither public nor school libraries where learners would search information regarding their assignments and projects. Parents and learners were informed through letters and meetings about the pass requirements for learners to be promoted to the next grade. The teachers were encouraged to network with other teachers in their own school and formed clusters to cross-pollinate ideas and exchange views.

According to one teacher, “District officials who conducted training were criticised for not understanding the terminology themselves and for using teaching methodologies that were not in line with outcomes-based education, e.g. formative assessment and baseline assessment.”

Some facilitators were not trained thoroughly; I think all my questions would have been answered there and then.

This indicates that most of the educators were not satisfied with the training but there are critical issues that need attention to ensure that the training is more effective. The idea of the workshop was to give people training in teaching methods that are relevant to their situation. The onus was on "getting teachers to enjoy their teaching and give them a deeper understanding of outcomes-based education [OBE] - different from the level of those who just go to OBE training." Judging by feedback from teachers, the workshop did not succeed in inspiring educators to embrace change and make OBE work in their classrooms. The workshop was about changing educators to do away with the 'jug and mug' methods, the primitive ways of teaching.

Even in our schools and communities we are change agents. All important is the effect of the training on classroom practise, and those on the receiving end of it - the learners.
4.8 SUMMARY

The Department of Education believes in investing in teachers. However, this did not happen as planned in the training workshops that were investigated for the purpose of this study because of the following:

- Failure on the part of the teachers to understand the intention with the training.
- Resistance among the teachers to the proposed changes.
- Lack of expertise on the part of the programme developers.
- Doubt among the teachers about the expertise of the facilitators.
- Lack of commitment in the school management team and among the teachers.
- Insufficient time provided for staff development by principals and school management teams.
- Teachers’ lack of opportunity to implement what they have learned.
- Fixed school timetables.
- Lack of relevant or sufficient resources.
- Lack of a match between the training programme and resources on the one hand, and individual and group needs on the other hand.
- Insufficient funds to initiate or attend courses, workshops, seminars and learning activities.
- No funds allocated for staff development, and non-imbursement of teachers for expenses incurred at seminars, workshops or refresher courses.
- Bad roads, long distances from one school to another and lack of transport, which made networking difficult.
- Circuit inspectors hardly ever visited rural schools.
- Subject advisors failed to do follow-up, because there were too few of them to cover the vast Pietermaritzburg region.
- Cramming the training programme on a new curriculum into one week.
The teachers made the following recommendations:

- Those similar training workshops are held in future so as to build upon the foundation laid by the initial workshop.
- That study material is prepared well in advance (before the invitation letters are sent to schools).
- That the programme be run during school holidays to avoid encroaching upon teaching time.
- That the workshops be conducted in phases and at different times.
- That more emphasis be placed on the learning areas as such.
- That facilitators conduct live classes so teachers can observe and comment.
- That the venue be spacious and in a friendly environment.

To conclude, the teachers felt officials often did not value their work and that the Department of Education and the school management team provided far too little support. Provincial and district ability to implement Curriculum 2005 and provide support to teachers was hampered by problems in the organisation of curriculum support structures, inadequate experience among personnel and lack of financial and other resources for supporting Curriculum 2005. Time frames were unmanageable and unrealistic, and the teachers felt that implementation had been rushed. Curriculum 2005 was implemented prematurely, and without a solid foundation and well-versed facilitators to guide the teachers to teach their learning areas effectively and support their learners.
CHAPTER FIVE

5. THE FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will focus on the research findings and make recommendations towards the improvement of the training programme on Curriculum 2005 assessment techniques run by the Department of Education for Grade Nine teachers in rural KwaZulu-Natal. In order to do this, the research set the following aims:

- Determine the effectiveness of the training programme on Curriculum 2005 assessment techniques for Grade Nine teachers organised by the Department of Education.
- Find out from the teachers themselves whether the training had an impact on their teaching; and
- Determine whether the teachers could apply OBE and Curriculum 2005 after the training.

5.2 BACKGROUND

The in-service training programme on Curriculum 2005 for teachers consisted of an advocacy phase to prepare them for implementing Curriculum 2005 and its assessment strategies, and distributing policy documents, illustrative learning programmes and learner support materials. The Department of Education initially commissioned the Media in Education Trust (MiET), a non-governmental organisation, to provide 20 officials per province with a basic understanding of Curriculum 2005. In turn, these “master trainers” were to “cascade” the knowledge and understanding to district officials. District officials would in turn cascade the information to teachers in their respective districts. The cascade model became the primary means of preparing the majority of teachers for Curriculum 2005 implementation (CEPD, 2000).
5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher acknowledges that, at the time of the study, he was a teacher supervising and implementing Curriculum 2005, particularly the assessment guidelines for Grade Nines. Thus he may have been biased in the interpretation of the findings. He was also limited to nine interviewees as a source of information for the research. Furthermore, the interviewees could answer whichever way they pleased and could offer any preconceived ideas. In addition, some teachers felt offended about the field note-taking during the interviews. They preferred me to write everything after the interviews. Later, after the explanation, teachers agreed and we continued with the interviews.

5.4 FINDINGS

The section below groups the findings under teacher training, implementation of Curriculum 2005, quality of training and follow-up in-school support.

5.4.1 Teacher training

The successful implementation of Curriculum 2005 depends on the orientation, training and support of teachers, quality and use of learning support materials, and district-level support for the process. In this respect the interviewed teachers proposed that schools form clusters to continue dialogue on Curriculum 2005 and develop learning activities and support materials that will enhance the training. The teachers felt that the time set aside for training and classroom support was insufficient. There was also no follow-up after the training. The lack of a paradigm shift among principals and school management teams and the consequent lack of support from these quarters impacted negatively on teacher training.

5.4.2 Implementation of Curriculum 2005

The teachers were having great difficulty with the implementation of the new assessment, recording and reporting procedures. They felt that they had not
been trained adequately in these areas, resulting in their lack of understanding of
the new procedures. The major complaint was that the procedures were too time-
consuming and that they could not be implemented within the allocated teaching
time of the respective learning areas. The teachers also felt there was too much
paper work involved in the implementation of the new procedures and that that
was increasing their workload. The training failed to prepare them for Curriculum
2005 and the accompanying assessment of learners. The cascading of
information resulted in the misinterpretation of important information. Trainers
lacked confidence, knowledge and understanding to manage the training
process. District officials who conducted training did not understand the
prescribed terms and used teaching methods that were inconsistent with
outcomes-based education and Curriculum 2005. At school level there was a lot
of planning overlap and no clear-cut solutions for this problem. Given the above
scenario, few teachers were able to do the new performance-based
assessments. One week was not enough for the training and the materials
issued were not enough for the number of participants.

5.4.3 Quality of training

Most of the teachers felt that they had gained some understanding of Curriculum
2005. However, they found the training too abstract, as practical application of
theory was seldom attended to. Many of the teachers said the training period was
too short. They also found it difficult to design learning programmes, handle the
integration of learning areas and do continuous assessment. Many teachers left
the training workshops not knowing what it was they ought to teach. In addition,
the training focused on teaching the terminology rather than engaging with the
substance underlying the terminology. The complexity of the terminology barred
the teachers from coming to grips with the basic implications of Curriculum 2005
and the accompanying assessment guidelines for Grade Nines, although they
were doing their best to follow the assessment guidelines when assessing
learners.
5.4.4 Follow-up in-school support

There was virtually no ongoing support and development when teachers returned to their schools. A single subject advisor for a district had to attend to about 170 schools, which number normally required six people, and this impacted negatively on service delivery. The teachers felt that, after the training, they were left to “sink or swim”. There were no support structures to help them deal with the pressures of classroom implementation. Moreover, transport and other infrastructure were in short supply.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Given inadequate transport and long distances that had to be travelled in the rural areas, the interviewees proposed that teachers of the same school draw up a programme and assist one another or invite an expert to assist at their school. In addition, different clusters for different learning areas could be formed. Cluster members could meet at a central point with the necessary resources. Prescribed activities could then be performed at this central point. The teachers could propose the following:

- That training takes place on weekdays after school or during weekends or holidays, to avoid the disruption of teaching.
- That follow-up training and support be given.
- That training concentrates on substance rather than form or terminology.
- That teachers be invited to comment on what is being done in the workshops rather than being discouraged from asking questions.
- That training is given on the integration of learning areas, learning programme design and assessment methods.
- Those trainers should be trained extensively and do thorough planning.
- That trainers and material be prepared well in advance and the venue is conducive to learning.
• That rural teachers and their schools are given the same treatment as urban teachers and their schools receive resources and help from the Department. That the Department of Education budget for and employ more subject advisors for the vast Pietermaritzburg region.
• That more attention is given to social science, mathematics and language teachers, as their learning areas are core subjects.
• That principals and school management teams be given more training on how to supervise and support teachers in respect of Curriculum 2005.
• That assessment, recording and reporting strategies be revised to reduce teacher workload.
• That teachers be re-trained during ongoing in-service training on the practical application of assessment, recording and reporting strategies in the classroom.

5.6 ISSUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the recommendations in section 5.5, an in-depth study into the underlying causes of the teachers’ problems would be useful. Furthermore, given the work overload of district officials and subject advisors, the impact of human resources on service delivery could be fruitfully investigated. In addition, as teachers sometimes receive no help from school management teams because they themselves had received no training from the Department, a study focusing on the role of school management teams in building the culture of learning at school could pave the way to rectify the situation.

5.7 CONCLUSION

Orientation and training for Curriculum 2005 in the form of a one-week course appears to have reached a large number of teachers. However, the duration of the training was too short and the trainers inefficient. Training tended to focus on
terminology rather than on how and what to teach within an outcomes-based framework. As a result, classroom practice appears to have benefited little from the training in rural KwaZulu-Natal. Follow-up training and support have not been forthcoming. Although there is evidence that training improved with time and experience, the results of this study suggest that much more attention should be paid to:

• Strengthening and adapting the model/s of training and lengthening the duration of training.
• Addressing trainer efficiency and training materials.
• Improving content quality and training methods.
• Providing for follow-up in-class support.
• Encouraged the under qualified to further studies as part of professional development.
• Encouraged teachers to network and share ideas with other teachers.

The development of the new curriculum framework for General and Further Education and Training in South Africa is a long but rewarding exercise. The process up to this point has been characterised by wide participation of role-players and stakeholders, a balance between representation and the involvement of specialists, and a serious attempt to create a shift from the traditional input-based approach to an outcomes based approach.
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Appendix A

EXAMPLES OF INTERVIEWEE PERSONAL PARTICULARS

A.  (a) NAME OF INTERVIEWEE: MR X
    (b) TYPE OF SCHOOL & NAME: RURAL: School A
    (c) LEARNING AREA TAUGHT: LANGUAGE LITERACY AND COMMUNICATION
    (d) GRADES TAUGHT: 9 A & B
    (e) TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN YEARS: 17
    (f) QUALIFICATIONS: B.A. SECONDARY TEACHERS DIPLOMA

B.  (a) NAME OF INVESTIGATOR : MR X.
    (b) NAME OF THE COURSE: MPHIL: EDUCATION FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (MINI-LONG ESSAY)
    (c) NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. J. HEYSTEK
    (d) UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
    (e) ACCADEMIC YEAR: 2003

C.  Date: 15 May 2003, Venue: Mr X’s Office, Time: 9:30 Were are you going to do the interviews? Why in your office or is this just an example? I would preferable be in a room at the specific teacher’s school where you can do the interview undisturbed.

1. REACTION.
   (a) Are you enjoying teaching OBE?
   (b) Briefly, how did the training program meet your expectations?
   (c) Can you teach your learning area using OBE?
   (d) Do learners understand OBE?
1. **LEARNING**

(a) Presently, are you applying the new knowledge to create assessment for your learners?

(b) Did facilitators use various methods in presenting the subject matter? Can you name some of the methods used at the training program?

(c) Are you networking with teachers in your own school or neighbouring schools? How? / Why not?

(d) Was the material relevant for the forms of assessment for curriculum 2005?

(e) Do you feel the training program has helped you to understand and use different forms of assessment for curriculum 2005? What are those forms of assessment?

(f) Did the facilitator allow time for individual or group participation?

(g) Was the facilitator able to attend and support different views from the participants? How did he/she handle the views?

(h) Did the training program help you to improve? How?

(i) Did the training program focus on the real life issues? How?

(j) Was the learning material relevant and interesting?

(k) Were you given an opportunity to discuss old forms of assessments methods in relation to the new forms of assessments methods in the curriculum 2005?

(l) Do you have the assessment policy in your own learning area?

(m) Who moderates and assesses your projects?

(n) How do you record learner achievement and how do you inform learner his / her results?

(o) Was the facilitator able to support you during the sessions?

(p) How was the facilitator able to support you during the training sessions?

(q) Were you motivated to achieve, learn, and grow in order to improve? How? / Why?

(r) Was the environment supportive and challenging for learning?

(s) Were you asked to brainstorm different types of assessments relevant to different learning areas?
(t) Were you free to participate in your groups? How did you feel being part of the group?
(u) Do rural teachers receive support from the Department for assessment and OBE? Yes / No / How?
(v) Do you support the idea of sending teachers away to attend training workshop on new teaching methods? Yes / No / Why?
(w) Do you think it will be a good idea for teachers to visit other schools to share resources, ideas, assessment and practice OBE?
(x) If No, Why? / Yes / How can that be done in rural schools? Were you divided into groups to practical exercises? Did you see the value? Do you have achievement chart in your classroom?

3. BEHAVIOR
(a) Name 5 types of tasks you can give to your grade 9 and how will you do them
(b) What is difference between CASS and CTA?
(c) Can you remember one task that was given to you?
(d) Who should identify assessment problems and how these problems should be solved?
(e) How can you encourage your learners to be active in class?
(f) Can you do assessment correctly in your own learning area?

4. RESULTS
(a) How did training program help you to assess grade 9? Was the training program relevant for grade 9 material? How? / Why?
(b) Did you receive any support from the following personnel soon after the training was conducted?
Teacher Yes / No
Colleague Yes / No / How
Teacher from other school Yes / No / How
Fellow teacher Yes / No / How
Circuit inspector      Yes / No / How
Subject Advisor / Facilitator      Yes / No / How
Please comment about time allocation under the following subheadings
(c) Duration of the training program.
(d) Was one week enough to cover grade 9 work?
(e) Will you recommend that similar training program be held in future? Why or why not?
(f) What could they have done differently or how can they improve?

My conclusion will read as follows:
I have come to the end of our interview.
Any comment or suggestion you would like to make. Thank you for your co-operation.
Appendix B

To Whom It May Concern

This letter serves to confirm that I, Zamumuzi Paulos Conco, currently studying for an M.Phil: Education for Community Development from the University of Pretoria. The title of my topic is: “How effective is In-Service Training for Teachers in Rural School Context?”

Part of my research work is to conduct interviews in order to gather information that will assist me to work towards the findings at the end research work. My interviewing questions have no choices from which you can choose. My questions are open-ended. The questions require you to state your opinions, and suggestions. There are no right or wrong answers. You may be requested to briefly elaborate or explain as you respond to questions.

Concerning ethical issues, please be assured that the data collected from you will be used for research purposes only. Neither the school, nor the teacher will be named individually as sources of information. and your information will appear on the final research document and will be anonymous. In the beginning of this year 2003, all Grade Nine teachers in the Pietermaritzburg Region, were requested to attend one week training at Indumiso College of Education on Curriculum 2005: Continuous Assessment (CASS) & Common Tasks for Assessment (CTA) as part of Outcomes Based Education (OBE). Kindly respond to the questions that follow.

Thank you for your time and willing to assist me. Thank you.
Zamumuzi Paulos Conco
M.Phil: Student
University of Pretoria
Appendix C

Evaluation Program Name: Assessment in Curriculum 2005

Project Director: Mr XX (Superintended Education Manager)
Beginning Date: 10 June 2001
Ending Date: 14 June 2004

Preface: The development and implementation of a new assessment system within the General Education and Training phase in South Africa presents our nation with exciting opportunities to reconstruct and develop our current education and training systems into a system that reflects an integrated approach which addresses the learner's and nation's needs.

Program Goals, Objectives

- Implementation of assessment policy.
- Create and implement a focused professional development plan to address emerging needs of the individual and the Curriculum/Instruction team.
- Implement key strategic priorities for assessment.
- Enhance and establish new partnerships
- Provide professional development opportunities for teachers.
- Provide leadership and assistance to schools in the implementation of core academic standards and essential learning.
- Provide technical assistance for the curriculum standards in the core academic areas.
- Establish networking.
- Provide assistance to schools for the implementation of curriculum frameworks in all curricular areas represented by the team.

Program Mission, Vision, Values

Mission - Provide leadership and excellent service delivery that promotes quality teaching and education
Vision - All teachers will be provided the opportunity to participate in a quality educational program that prepares them assessment.

Values/Beliefs - The students of today are our leaders of tomorrow. Therefore, we believe that:

a) Quality education must be available to all. All schools should offer an essential curriculum with emphasis on Standards in Reading/Writing, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies/History, and Languages, and Career and Technical Education.

b) Instruction must be of the highest quality to enable all students to achieve their maximum potential.

Aims: It aims to assist each school to develop sound school-based assessment practices, which will improve students' learning, as well as the quality of learning programs.

Outcomes-Based Assessment

From the beginning of schooling (Grade R) and ABET level 1 to the end of the General Education & Training Phase (Grade 9 and ABET level 4), outcomes-based assessment must be an integral part of the teaching and learning process, administered within the guidelines of the provincial education Departments, which complies with national education policy.

The Purpose of Assessment

The primary purpose of assessment should be to maximise learners' access to the knowledge, skills and attitudes as defined in the national Curriculum 2005 Policy Documents for the Foundation, Intermediate and Senior Phase. Directly connected to assessment is the issue of Quality Assurance (i.e. maintaining standards) together with the national requirement of equity, access and redress. It should therefore, for example, advance race, gender, ELSEN, opportunities in a culture-fair and anti-bias manner.
What is being assessed?
The learner’s performance as they progress towards achieving the outcomes as stated in the national Curriculum 2005 Policy Documents for the Foundation, Intermediate and Senior Phase.

Who is involved?
The teacher/practitioner should have overall responsibility for the assessment. However, the decision of who should be involved will be determined partly by the actual form of assessment undertaken. At its best it involves a partnership between teacher, learner and parents and other school support teams e.g. occupational therapists, speech therapists, psychologists etc. In this partnership the rights to confidentiality should be borne in mind. In order to achieve a balance, some assessment reflections should rely mainly on the teacher/practitioner insight, some on the learner, some on the learners' peers or parents and some on the school support teams.

Types of Assessment
Some assessments should be based on working independently, some on working in pairs and some in groups or teams.

Continuous/Formative Assessment
From the beginning of Schooling (Grade R) and ABET Level 1 to the end of the General Education & Training Phase (Grade 9) and ABET Level 4, continuous/formative assessment must be an integral part of the teaching and learning process administered within the guidelines of the provincial education Department, which complies with national education policy.

Summative Assessment
In summative assessment carried out either at the end of a term or at the end of a grade, assessors should include information about a learner’s progress drawn mainly from continuous/formative assessments made throughout the learning process.

Techniques of assessment
A wide variety of techniques suitable for assessing the performance of learners should be incorporated into the continuous assessment practice. These should
be employed to ascertain mastery of what is required, as fairly and as transparently as possible, according to publicly agreed criteria.

**Reporting Achievement**

The assessment of learners must be transparent; must acknowledge the rights to confidentiality, the rights of learners and their parents to be an integral part of any assessment process and must ensure their understanding of and right of access to all assessment results and reports. Formal reporting on learner assessment should be carried out once a term within the guidelines of the provincial education Department.

**Internal Assessment**

From the beginning of schooling (Grade R) and ABET level 1 to the end of the General Education & Training Phase (Grade 9 and ABET level 4), there will be internal continuous assessment which is administered and marked by teachers/facilitators and moderated externally, (for example other schools, advisory services, outside agencies) within the guidelines of the provincial education Department, which comply with national education policy. A system should be in place to ensure external reference points for internal assessment decisions. System moderation is essential.

**External Assessment**

At the end of the General Education & Training Phase (Grade 9 and ABET level 4), there will be external assessment designed, set, marked and moderated by a body/provincial Department, which is separate from the school/organisation/institution, which delivers learning.

**Promotion and Progression within Phases**

From the beginning of the General Education & Training phase (Grade R to Grade 9) learners will progress with their age cohort. Should the learner, according to his/her assessment profile as developed during the course of the year, display a lack of progress in achieving the outcomes and in a case where teachers/facilitators/schools/support services provide adequate information or evidence of interventions and support given to the learner, the parents/guardian and/or institution/provincial Department could use their discretion by allowing
such a learner to spend more time on task on those areas where difficulties are experienced. As a guideline no learner should stay in the same phase for longer than four years.

**Senior Phase Assessment**
Continuous and formative assessment, as well as summative assessment for the Senior Phase, from grade 7 to 9, will be internal and external, set and marked by the teachers and moderated externally within guidelines of the Provincial Education Departments. Grade 6 summative assessments will form part of the national systemic evaluation.

**Recognition of Prior Learning**
It must be considered a priority to develop policy, to set up mechanisms and provide access to a formal system of RPL, leading to credits and qualifications registered on the NQF. The national Department, in collaboration with provincial Departments, should initiate this process.

**Role of Education Support Personnel**
Direct involvement by education support personnel in routine assessment of individual learners should be de-emphasised. They should rather play a role in supporting educators and parents in assessment and developing appropriate interventions, developing preventative and promotive program, and only addressing individual problems when other centre-based interventions have not proved effective.

**Standardised Tests**
Learners should only be assessed by means of standardised tests, which have proven usefulness in identifying barriers to learning and development. The routine administration of group tests of intelligence should be discontinued.

**Early identification**
The early identification and assessment of children who are likely to experience barriers to learning and development, as well as the principles of early intervention, should be a national priority.

**Systemic Evaluation**
Systemic Evaluation should play an integral part in ensuring that all learners derive maximum benefit from the system of education. Systemic Evaluation includes the evaluation of all aspects of the sites of learning and learning program. Systemic Evaluation will take place at grades 3, 6 and 9. This evaluation will not be done annually. It is important to state that not all learners and learning sites will be evaluated. A nationally representative sample of learners and learning sites will be evaluation. (DoE, 1996)