2.5   OTHER TERMS USED IN THIS RESEARCH

Apart from the definition of INSET and the other terms related to it, the other concepts used in this study will be explicated. These terms are university, lecturer, High Education and quality assurance.

2.5.1 UNIVERSITY

There appears to be general agreement from the review of literature that a university's main reason for existence is the facilitation of learning and change (Ashby, 1964:98; see also, Moses, 1988:133; Dubbey, 1991:8) . Furthermore, the expertise of university lecturers remains the core resource for facilitating learning and is also pivotal to the effective functioning of a university (Wright, 1994:101). Against this background, Hasley and Trow (1971:27) define a university as:

" ... the organisational framework which is designed or has evolved to facilitate the academic role, to protect certain forms of intellectual activity and at the same time to mediate between them and external demands."

This definition is relevant in this research because, as previously indicated, a university is an open-system which is embedded within an environment which it influences or is influenced by it. Dubbey (1991:8) concurs with this view but provides a clearer explanation which is adopted in this study. He regards a university as an institution that provides a high-level of teaching and research and which does so in the context of national

development, nation building, leadership, rigorous disciplined thinking, creativity and service to the community. This conceptualisation of a university necessitates the review of literature on universities as institutions, their characteristics, their missions, roles and functions. The review sheds light on the nature and appropriateness of INSET of university lecturers.

2.5.1.1.   THE UNIVERSITY AS AN INSTITUTION

The university originated in Medieval Europe (Thompson, 1977:281). Since the establishment of the first universities, numerous articles have been written on their nature and mission. The history of universities is punctuated by periodic debates on the idea of a university and what is considered to be its proper mission. Some researchers such as Wright (1994:101) do not regard universities as institutions. However, evidence from research abounds and is conclusive that a university is most certainly an institution.

The term institution can be used in more than one sense. Sometimes it is used to denote an organisation which has a specific building or location. More commonly, in the Social Sciences it is used to refer to a generic category (Startup, 1979:1). In examining the university as an institution, consideration must be given to the character of academic activities performed in this type of educational organisation.

The university is an institution in the sense that people meet there at specific times in patterned ways, engage in teaching and learning, research and community-service. According to Startup (1979:1) underlying the collective life of the university as an

institution are rules and principles regulating what is going on. He also argues that a further aspect of institutionalisation is the existence of a system whereby political authority is exercised. He further asserts that university lecturers and students do their work within the elaborate constitutional and administrative framework. As Thompson (1977:281) aptly avers, a modern university is an institution which is embedded in a state and to a certain extent dependent on financial support from that state.

Universities evolved as institutions which encouraged communal life and which also facilitated reflection. Indeed, the communal nature of these institutions is indicated by the origin of the term university. This term is derived from *universitas* which was commonly used in the Medieval period for any association of people in their corporate capacity (Mountford, 1966:3).

Clearly, the image of the university as dedicated to the pursuit of truth and knowledge has been enhanced by radical and activist movements which acknowledge the impact of the external political, social and economic factors on universities. Moreover, in the continuing debates concerning the nature and mission of universities as institutions of High Education, it has become evident that the dominant issue governing many proposals for university reform is relevance (Graham, 1986:7-8; see also, Cannon, 1983: 18)

It can be safely concluded, therefore, that university lecturers must meet the challenge of relevance in respect of society's local, national and international needs. It can also be inferred that despite the fact that university lecturers possess a high degree of freedom, autonomy and security, they have a considerable number of constraints on their academic

activities. Although the government and the community can bring pre̶ss̶u̶r̶e̶ ̶t̶o̶ ̶b̶e̶a̶r̶ ̶o̶n̶ ̶t̶h̶e̶

universities as national institutions of High Education, in order to understand the work of

university lecturers and INSET programmes relevant to their work, one must take

cognisance not only of the official view, but also of the ideas and expectations of university

lecturers themselves.

2.5.1.2   THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE UNIVERSITY

Universities are distinctive organisations in terms of five characteristics which are directly

related to the systems theory described previously. These characteristics are their goals,

their client-serving nature, their technology, their professional staff and their vulnerability

to their environments (Cannon, 1983:14-18; see also, Moses, 1988:127-133). In order to

understand INSET of university lecturers, these characteristics are discussed because they

clearly indicate that universities are complex, heterogeneous educational organisations.

2.5.1.2.1   GOALS OF THE UNIVERSITY

This is a highly polemical issue. Perhaps the only thing that can be stated with any

measure of certainty is that the ambiguity concerning university goals persists even today

(Cannon, 1983:14). It becomes even more important to remember that in times of limited

resources the achievement of specific goals such as those of university lecturers' INSET

programmes may be promoted by some outside individuals or groups

(Moses, 1988:127).

Furthermore, although there could be a general common goal, departments or lectures in these departments may not share specific goals. Thus, those who use INSET programmes as a means of bringing about change and development at the university face a daunting challenge of addressing the values and needs which are not necessarily cherished by all groups and individuals who have a stake in the university system's operations.

2.5.1.2.2   UNIVERSITIES AS CLIENT-SERVING INSTITUTIONS

Universities share client-service with other educational institutions and other organisations such as those focusing on welfare and health. Universities are unique in that the major group of clients, namely the students, are also members of the organisation. They too form an important organisational sub-system. This distinguishes universities from other similar organisations such as schools.

2.5.1.2.3   THE TECHNOLOGY OF THE UNIVERSITY

According to Cannon (1983:15), the teaching technology of the university is problematic in that identifying and serving the needs of learners and lecturers are difficult to accomplish and evaluate. Consequently, it is difficult to show the success or failure of INSET programmes. Furthermore, the different beliefs, values and practices related to teaching, research, administration and community- service have to be taken into account by facilitators of INSET programmes for university lecturers.

2.5.1.2.4   THE PROFESSIONAL STAFFING OF UNIVERSITIES

Just as the universities have unclear or ambiguous goals, their professional staff is also fragmented. The allegiance of university lecturers is to a number of different professional groups (Moses, 1988:128). Professional staffing undercuts traditional concepts of bureaucracy, hierarchy, rules, management and administrative procedures. Cannon (1983:16) notes that at the university power is diffused and that:

> " ...leadership depends not so much on status... derived authority, but on academic credibility and skill in developing consensus in mediation and in negotiation."

Baldridge *et al.* (1978:46) support this observation as they notice that leadership at the university has to do with the ability to muster, coax and facilitate the activities of knowledgeable experts. Indeed, university lecturers enjoy a great deal of freedom and autonomy.

The autonomy of university lecturers implies that the responsibility and accountability for INSET lies with the lecturers themselves and the departments which they serve Potter (1992:848-850) elaborates extensively on the process of change and associated tensions or conflicts within university departments when outsiders or external agents try to implement change through INSET. The involvement of outsiders may be perceived by university lecturers as the violation of their rights to academic freedom and autonomy. The author debates at length the role of educational advisors or consultants and their input in

INSET. It is clear from literature that educational advisors or consultants should get the full co-operation of university lecturers themselves.

In the final analysis, however, there are increasing pressures for universities to move in the direction of greater accountability. For this to happen, the teaching, research and community-service functions of university lecturers must be evaluated. In this respect, Moses (1988:28) believes that being a university lecturer means:

> "... **constantly being exposed to scrutiny by peers within the institution and the wider international scholarly community, by students and the public alike...**"

Elton (1987:10) is also of the opinion that university lecturers must be evaluated in order to plan for INSET programmes which will enable them to perform their teaching, research, management and community-service tasks more effectively and efficiently. He further points out that universities have always been more ready to evaluate others than themselves. He predicts that:

> " **...the time may not be too far off when, if they do not maintain order in their house, others may insist on doing it for them. If this happened, the inroads that would be made into the freedom which universities rightly cherish could be incalculable.**"

Studies on university lecturers provide some findings which need to be considered when

INSET programmes are organised. Moses (1988:44 and 133; see also, ~~~~~~~~~~~~~~) present the following characteristics which are pertinent to change and INSET of university lecturers:

- The imposition of bureaucratic rules for INSET are likely to be restrictive to lecturers and consequently be rejected.

- Lecturers are used to working autonomously. They may, therefore, resist any INSET changes which can be perceived as bureaucratic intrusion.

- Lecturers feel responsible as much to their discipline as to their colleagues. They may, therefore, regard institutional demands, expectations and issues as of low salience. There may be a need to arouse their interest and support for INSET activities.

- Lecturers in different disciplines have different values, views, beliefs and attitudes. This has to be taken into account whenever INSET programmes are organised. The INSET programmes themselves have to reflect this diversity.

- Lecturers suffer the tension between institutional and own demands for research and heavy teaching loads. Any INSET activity should not be seen to be adding to this tension.

- Lecturers may shift their role emphasis during their career. INSET programmes have to cater for university lecturers at different stages of their career.

- Traditions of collegial and democratic decision making and lack of clear hierarchies for university lecturers may interfere with any centralised attempts at introducing INSET programmes and change.

- The concept of developing a professional expert is incongruous; particularly if to develop an academic is used in the active sense. It suggests that the lecturer is

lacking and incompetent in some respect. This suggestion may result in resentment which will make INSET programmes less attractive and successful than they could be. It is, therefore, important to be careful of the terminology used in professional development efforts.

Nevertheless, Hann (1993:21) claims that the benefits of academic autonomy address the more basic issues of an appropriate curriculum, teaching and assessment methods that are concurrent with syllabi, opportunities to design programmes that were difficult to implement because of restrictive funding, less red-tape bureaucracy in accessing budgets and efficient utilisation of funds. He also reports that the benefits include increased motivation, individuality and the ability to implement INSET programmes that are discipline-specific and relevant to the community they are serving.

2.5.1.2.5   THE VULNERABILITY OF THE UNIVERSITY TO THE ENVIRONMENT

According to Katz and Kahn (1978:124) educational organisations are influenced by the following five external factors: the cultural environment, the politico-legal environment, the economic environment, the information-technical environment and the natural or physical environment. Based on this view, Cannon (1983:17) concludes that the pressure for change in the tasks of lecturers also comes from outside the universities. He contends that for different universities, however, relationship between individual lecturers, departments and faculties is often more important, stronger and more active than outside these universities. He proposes that the future practice of INSET must be responsive to the external forces of change and opportunities presented by such forces. In consonance with

the systems theory described previously, Cannon(1983:17) points o~~~~ ~~~~

"The extent to which these opportunities are taken up will be reflected in the quality of professional development in the university system. Past attempts at professional development have tended towards 'closed-system' thinking, that is, to concentrate on individuals and on separate universities at the expense of considering the interrelatedness and complexities of universities as interacting parts of a much larger system of university education embracing more than just isolated institutions."

It is clear that in their interplay with the external environment universities and their lecturers are subjected to pressures and demands from various interest groups and their own constituents. Understanding this notion of universities can help researchers and practitioners to construct the theoretical and conceptual framework which have the potential to guide educational research and practices that focus on appropriate INSET of university lecturers. In addition, the missions, role and functions of universities demonstrate the complex nature of universities which needs to be taken into cognisance by those who are charged with the responsibility of facilitating INSET for university lecturers.

2.5.1.3   THE MISSION, ROLES AND FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITIES

In the context of this research, the mission connotes the goals or objectives of the universities. These goals or objectives can be achieved through the functions or activities

that universities carry out. In keeping with their mission and functio.... ...., ...roles of universities are part of their spontaneous, original essence universities arose from agreement and consensus between lecturers and students who were united for the corporate management of universal knowledge (Cabal, 1993:22). However, as emphasised previously, the modern universities serve a variety of interest groups and there are many functions of universities. Lumsden (1973:5) concurs and makes the following observation in this regard:

> **" The functions of the university are several, the interest groups the university serves are many, the output choices of the university for all practical purposes are infinite, the prices of many of the output elements are not readily available... "**

At the second UNESCO-NGOs collective consultation on High Education, Seidel (1991:32) reported that teaching and research are the intellectual functions of the university. He also pointed out that teaching and research are related to the educational mission or educational function, comprising the cultivation of the mind and the transmission of basic ideas and concepts. In addition, the report considered service to be the social function of the university which provides the link between the intellectual and educational roles of universities on the one hand and the development of society on the other. Apart from this UNESCO report on High Education, it can be safely inferred from other studies that the following are the main functions which societies expect their universities to fulfil:

2.5.1.3.1   THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The main function of High Education institutions such as universities lies in providing education and training within a structure which combines research and teaching (Seidel, 1991:32). Though the training function of modern universities is evident, it is not new. Ever since the middle ages, the ancient universities promoted the training of the clergy and other professions such as medicine, teaching and law.

Yet more recently within the academic world, there are more skills and competences demanding special training of university lecturers (Startup, 1979:5). Due to the fact that INSET of university lecturers relates intimately to the mission, role and functions of the university itself, it is appropriate that the training of lecturers be viewed as of strategic importance because they occupy an important place in the educational life of a nation (Jelks, 2000:1; see also, Perold, 1998:31; Tleane, 1999:10).

2.5.1.3.2   IMPROVING THE RESEARCH FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

It is widely accepted that the production of research in a broad range of disciplines and acting as repository of information and data are key elements among the major functions of university lecturers (Smith and Brown, 1995:13; see also, Lumsden, 1973:6; Cabal, 1993:22; Dubbey, 1991:9; Seidel, 1991:32). Notwithstanding, lecturers experience some problems with regard to their teaching and research tasks. Research and teaching appear to be quite different activities, setting up a tension between their relative importance. This

tension consequently spills over to the resources to be shared be research (Dubbey, 1991:9). Startup(1979:6) reports that from the survey and interviews conducted among university lecturers, it emerges that there are varying conceptions of the meaning of research in different disciplines.

The other problem which surfaces from the studies of university lecturers is that there seems to be pressure to produce a string of publications in order to meet promotion criteria, even though the quality of published material was judged to be of minor importance in connection with overall satisfaction with the job. As a result, competent lecturers who perceive teaching as their key function are underrated if they do not have a series of publications to their names (Startup, 1979:76; see also, Smith and Brown, 1995:13). The problem of the relative importance of teaching and research has important implications which need to be considered when INSET of university lecturers is organised.

2.5.1.3.3   IMPROVING THE TEACHING FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

Although there is no disagreement that teaching is one of the principal functions of the university, the meaning of teaching is seen to be highly ambiguous. According to Cannon (1983:37-38; see also, Kozma et al., 1978:7), the sources of this equivocation include the manifold conceptions of teaching between disciplines and between individuals, divergence in cognitive styles among university lecturers and variations in teaching styles. This problem of ambiguity in teaching at the university has led Clark (1987:2) to characterise the academic profession as:

"...[an] oddity among professions... a loosely coupled array of disciplines and professional field, each having a history, a sense of nationhood, and a momentum that makes it a going concern in its own right."

Cannon (1983:38) records that the failure of past attempts to improve teaching at the university level can be attributed, in part, to a lack of attention to what teaching has meant to different lecturers and also to superficial attempts to understand and to provide for the diverse characteristics of university lecturers. He also avers that the problem is compounded by the fact that university lecturers, regardless of age, rank or field of teaching, report very high levels of interest in teaching.

Related to the problem of the conceptualisation of teaching is the fact that most university lecturers have had no formal training in teaching adults, whereas they mostly have had formal research training through degree work such as a Ph.D. (Katz and Henry, 1988:2; see also, Van Trotsenburg, 1979:50; Beaty, 1998:101; Gaff and Lambert, 1996:40; Elton, 1987:54). The professional knowledge which most university lecturers lack is in the area of teaching adults or andragogy. In this regard, Payne (1986:108) paints a tenebrous picture and alerts universities to the dangers of lecturers who are untrained in the field of andragogy as follows:

"We can have little hesitation then in asserting that the pretensions to be able to teach without knowing even what teaching means, without mastering its processes and methods as an art; without gaining some acquaintance with its doctrines as a science; without studying what has been said and done by its

most eminent practitioners, is an unwarrantable pretensic̶n̶ ̶w̶h̶i̶c̶h̶ ̶i̶s̶ ̶s̶o̶ ̶n̶e̶a̶r̶
akin to empiricism and quackery, that it is difficult to make the distinction."

Indeed, as Beaty (1998:101) points out, to many newly appointed university lecturers, andragogy and pedagogy are completely new disciplines. Moses (1992:11) shares this view and sadly notes that in most institutions of High Education formal qualifications expected of academics all deal with their scientific credentials. In most university systems it is possible to be appointed at all levels of the academic hierarchy without any experience of teaching in the tertiary sector.

Most university lecturers receive training for their teaching tasks on the job. This is one of the reasons why some researchers argue that most of them are not fully professional as yet. For example, Moses (1992:12-13) is adamant that teaching in High Education in contrast to research is unprofessional. He makes the following scathing remarks about teaching at most universities:

" ... there are no agreed standards, no body of knowledge ... no peer review, no accountability as yet. It is a field where the enthusiast has unlimited opportunities (though may be firmly put down to earth by departmental or institutional constraints) for experimentation, where most staff accept disciplinary or institutional conventions on teaching and assessment without critical examination, where most staff are prepared to suspend scholarly inquiry and base their practice on own experience, trial-and-error, or accidental knowledge of different teaching methods. It is rare to find

academics with a degree or diploma in education (except in education and nursing), even rarer in tertiary education."

Any programme of initial INSET, therefore, must address knowledge of pedagogy and andragogy as an urgent requirement. All academics must have a good understanding of how learning happens as well as the implications of their actions in their roles as university teachers. Beyond this, they must learn to create a synthesis between their knowledge of the discipline in which they are appointed to teach and their knowledge of how students learn. The importance of andragogy, according to Cabal (1993:105), is easily traceable to the development of the teaching sessions of the old schools and universities during the Medieval period. In fact, Luddeke (1998:2) argues that facilitating adult learning is among the world's oldest professions.

As already intimated, the qualities and qualifications which university lecturers are expected to possess when they are appointed are mostly not related to teaching. This is an important issue to contemplate when lecturers are appointed because those who are responsible for their appointment implicitly demonstrate what they require of a new recruit. The criteria which they employ substantially determine the qualities which the lecturers will exhibit when they first establish relationships with students. It is obvious from research conducted about academics that in most universities, the criteria that are used for appointing them as well as qualities expected of them do not benefit students in terms of the teaching-learning interaction.

It is encouraging that there seems to be unanimity from research on studies of teaching

in tertiary institutions that teaching development activities should develop an informed theory of teaching practice focussing on the enhancement of student learning. Silcock (1993:15), for example, found that good teachers are those who find ways of maximising learning time for students within their overall learning time. Startup (1979:19) also advocates student-centred teaching activities and concludes that the purpose of teaching at the university is chiefly to provide the material on which students can reflect.

However, university teaching does not seem to challenge the entrenched philosophy and perception of learning as the mere accumulation of facts 'and ideas for retrieval in assignments, tests and examinations. In this regard, Jacobs and Gravett (1998:54; see also, Apps, 1994:170) ridicule the fact that in many universities teaching is still approached as the transfer of expert knowledge to receiving students in spite of multitudinous research reports highlighting the futility of such a teaching approach. These researchers are also of the conviction that information in the form of learning material becomes personal knowledge to students only when they attach meaning to the learning material by interpreting it and actively engaging with it.

In the light of the above exposition of research on teaching and learning, university lecturers should be helped not only to focus their teaching tasks on subject content and on what they do, but also to place student learning at the centre of their efforts. INSET activities should concentrate on helping them to develop an informed theory of teaching, focussing on the role of learners and learning in relation to their teaching role. INSET activities should create opportunities for the establishment and enhancement of a partnership of dialogue between the university lecturers who are creators of intellectually

challenging learning environments and students who are constructing their own knowledge (Jacobs and Gravett, 1998:60). INSET programmes should empower university lecturers to develop from persons merely imparting knowledge to being appliers of psychological, pedagogical and andragogical principles in the teaching-learning situations. One of the major implications of this point of view is that the quality of teaching in universities will be improved not by merely increasing the amount and variety of information which university lecturers have but by creating opportunities for them to apply that information (Sarason et al.,1962: 117)

It is important to note that apart from the need for university lecturers to have theoretical pedagogic and andragogic knowledge, through experience, they tend to form a pedagogical perspective, that is, a view of the effective teaching-learning situation and certain assumptions and theories of good educational practice. Research findings support the perspective that experience has a role to play on the teaching tasks of university lecturers. For example, in the study conducted by Moses (1988:52), academics were asked to respond to the following question:

" **If you think back, what has contributed most to the standard of teaching you have achieved now ? "**

Feedback from students, experience, practice, role models, interaction with colleagues, knowledge of subject matter, attitudes to teaching, motivation, continuous effort and professional experience were cited as variables that contributed considerably to the feeling of being a good teacher. Woods (1992:535) also supports the stance that experience is

important for lecturers teaching at the university. He claims that knowl

of individual lecturers are:

" ... the richest grounds for educative inquiry and improved [teaching] practice."

Herrick (1997:181) also supports this opinion and emphasises that reflection is necessary to improve the practice of teaching. He found that through reflection, such as in keeping a journal to write about experiences over one's university teaching career, professional growth can be seen to occur and university lecturers can share their discoveries about the art and practice of teaching.

The study conducted by Tickle (1993:89-90) also found that the development of teaching practice appeared to be dependent on the development of the capacity to gauge situations and to apply professional judgment, in specific circumstances through lecturers' own experience. What seems especially significant in the study is that lecturers showed how repertoires of experience came to belong to them and how that ownership was crucial in building their individual world view of teaching. This also has implications for the kinds of competences, knowledge and skills which university lecturers perceive as useful and relevant to their teaching needs. Therefore, INSET facilitators cannot afford to ignore the experiences of lecturers because these experiences determine their receptiveness and responsiveness to ideas and proposals about what constitutes effective teaching.

Whereas much is known about INSET programmes and activities offered by universities

to assist lecturers with their teaching tasks, little is known about their effectiveness. In this regard, Cannon (1983:42) warns that the question as to whether university students benefit from the participation of their lecturers in INSET activities focussing on teaching improvement is seductive and may lead to wrong answers. He cites the following reasons for this:

- Evaluation methodologies are not sufficiently practical or powerful to discern the effects of programme activities from other contaminating effects.

- Teaching improvement activities are not geared solely to causing students to learn more effectively. Although this may be an important 'goal, other goals such as increased confidence and satisfaction for those participating in improvement activities, improved efficiency in the use of time to achieve teaching goals, increased knowledge of teaching, teaching methods, characteristics of learners and facilities are also important.

- Experience shows that it may take several years for the impact of participation in an INSET activity to work its way into teaching and learning practice.

These arguments indicate the unavailability of reliable measures of teaching competence and the fact that very few systematic attempts have been made to describe university teaching. Clearly, therefore, the quality of teaching capabilities of many individual university lecturers remains unknown. Consequently, assessing the teaching needs of university lecturers with the aim of designing INSET programmes for those lecturers becomes an extremely difficult and daunting task. Nevertheless, it can be argued that the quality of teaching offered by the university teaching can be improved.

In the light of the above exposition of teaching at the university, it appears safe to conclude that the analyses of research suggests that INSET activities to improve teaching are widespread and also operate in similar ways. What is even more important is that these activities have not been shown to be unsuccessful. It is noteworthy that studies indicate that university lecturers who participated in INSET activities found them helpful, especially if such activities were seen as relevant to their perceived teaching needs. It is also remarkable that research evidence indicates that university lecturers are generally committed to improving their teaching tasks in the face of competing demands for shrinking financial resources especially with regard to the tension which concerns the relative importance between teaching and research. Silcock (1993:15) notes that researchers reviewing the entire field of effectiveness research can rightly claim that teachers, including university lecturers, do make a difference in student achievement. This is possible especially when the problem of the relationship between teaching and research is dealt with.

2.5.1.3.4 THE PROBLEM OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TEACHING AND RESEARCH FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

The question of whether the teaching and research functions of university lecturers help or hinder each other or whether there is in fact no connection between their respective strengths has generated much debate. As indicated previously, at a glance, teaching and research seem to be quite different activities, setting up a tension between their relative importance and, hence, the resources to be shared between them (Dubbey, 1991:9; see also, Smith and Brown, 1995:14; Elton, 1987:156).

Evidence regarding why the two activities should be related in a m~~utually~~ manner within the same institution is overwhelming. Dubbey (1991:9) argues that it is necessary for the teaching and research and teaching functions of university lecturers to support each other, especially at a time of knowledge explosion and rapid changes. Elton (1987:156) supports this position and calls for the introduction of the concept of scholarship which he describes as:

" ... an academic activity different from, but as legitimate as, either teaching or research : the pursuit of new and deeper interpretations of what is already known."

Research and teaching should be equally valued as complementary and reciprocally supportive activities in the work of university lecturers. This mutual support between the teaching and research functions of lecturers at universities is again well illustrated and elucidated by Dubbey (1991:9):

" Teaching at an advanced level develops a disciplined, systematic approach to the acquisition and retention of knowledge. The best way to master a difficult concept is to teach it, to discuss it, to argue about it, to answer hard questions and, through colleagues, many ideas and problems for research development will arise. Conversely, it is mainly through research that a lecturer becomes familiar with the new frontiers of his [her] subject area, obtains authority in his [her] teaching, and is therefore able to convey content

of real value to the student."

Research can also be supportive in terms of alerting newly appointed lecturers to problems that they may face in their first year of teaching. These problems include developing time management skills, dealing with organisational constraints, working with colleagues, making use of resources and planning a coherent scheme of work (Kyriacou, 1993:82). In this way, research supports teaching because the first year is an important period in which the inexperienced lecturers come to know and understand themselves and their students.

It can, therefore, be safely assumed that effective INSET activities for university lecturers are those that do not regard teaching and research as separate, mutually exclusive tasks. INSET facilitators need to be aware of the issues which affect the relationship between teaching and research. The INSET policies for university lecturers are likely to reflect the relative importance attached to these two important functions of university lecturers by those in authority.

2.5.1.3.5   IMPROVING THE COMMUNITY-SERVICE FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

In the context of this study community-service is defined as:

"Programmes linked to High Education which involve participants in activities designed to deliver social benefit to a particular community and which teach

the participants to work jointly towards the achievement of ~~...~~

Participation in community service usually involves a degree of personal

sacrifice in terms of time, remuneration and convenience."

(Perold and Omar, 1997:18)

This definition encapsulates the fact that the university has a community-service function. The community-service function of the university implies that universities play a role of responding to the development needs of societies through teaching and research. Universities are intimately involved with the local and national needs of the community by availing intellectual expertise or their infrastructure through a discrete set of activities and in changing how teaching, learning and research take place (Perold, 1998:30; see also, Dubbey, 1991:10). In a report prepared for the World Conference on Higher Education by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) it is concluded that most High Education institutions are committed to finding ways to strengthen their contribution to the needs of their community and society (UNESCO, 1998:34). The report further makes the following statement which is appropriate to one of the cardinal functions of universities:

" If High Education has a larger and more central role in society today it is foremost due to its tremendous resources, especially in the form of accumulated wisdom about ways to train and educate entire generations of young people and in the expert knowledge and deep understanding of its teachers, scholars and scientists."

(UNESCO, 1998:34)

UNESCO understands community-service as an attempt by universities to promote development that combines theory and practice. Community-service stimulates the conscience of lecturers and students to become involved in an endeavour to constructively respond to the needs of the community.

According to Cabal (1993:171), the concept of community-service began in socialist regimes and spread to developed and less- developed countries during the 1960s. Thus, universities have always been and continue to be challenged to play a leadership role in the context of national development. Universities also play an important part in regional development as well as in developing international contacts (Dubbey, 1991:11; see also, Cabal, 1993:22). In this regard, Dubbey (1991:10-11) argues that the challenges of national development give unity and direction to the different activities of the university. He also concludes that:

" All the university does is quite useless if its standards are

not recognised internationally."

According to Perold and Omar (1997:100), participation in the community-service programmes provides university lecturers with opportunities to make their work relevant to a transforming curriculum and assists them to generate new knowledge. Perold (1998:7) reports that the introduction of community-service into High Education curricula provides opportunities among university lecturers for experiential learning. He further states that the research findings indicate that the university departments involved with community-service activities are seeking to develop socially responsive orientation to their teaching

programmes in order to meet the challenges which derive from the application of their disciplines in poor communities. Cabal (1993:22) supports this view and adds that universities have a social function in fostering the intellectual development of society.

The most widely held view of one of the most important functions of the university is that of capital creation. For instance, Lumsden (1973:6) records that universities contribute towards the economic development of a country by providing prospective employers information about job candidates of different abilities and to these job candidates the necessary information about their relative abilities to perform different tasks.

It also surfaces from research that community-outreach programmes offer new opportunities to university lecturers for research and consultancy, both of which may attract funding from new sources. This ultimately benefits the universities financially. Institutions of higher learning are often called upon to be locally responsive and globally competitive and to operationalise their teaching, research and community-service goals within an environment which focuses on the underprivileged communities. In this connection, Subotzky (1998:12) writes that in developing countries such as South Africa, for example, the task of High Education institutions is seen by government as contributing to economic performance and enhancing global competitiveness. In fact, apart from earning an income through community-service, developed and developing countries have used community-outreach programmes for repaying loans (Perold, 1998: 9).

However, the notion of community-service function of the university is not without its own problems. Attention must be given not just to the community-service activities themselves

but also to the orientation of the university lecturers towards them. For instance, Lumsden (1973:7) sounds a stern warning in this respect:

> "One could hypothesize other functions of a university, such as serving local or national pride or providing a ' baby-sitting ',perhaps more accurately ' adolescent-sitting ' service to parents and so forth, but such functions are less seriously claimed [by university lecturers]... "

It is critical, therefore, that university lecturers should feel that it is their duty to be active outside their own institutions and that they are not merely responding to financial inducement. It is important that they should feel that the various community-service activities are integral to their tasks. INSET organisers have to take these concerns into consideration.

Universities also need to guard against losing sight of their civic responsibilities in favour of too narrowly serving the human resource development market. In this regard Mattson and Shea (1997:12) make this observation:

> " ... as universities strive to meet demands placed on them they increasingly see their social obligations through the eyes of the market. Professional competence and career development take precedence over attempts to prepare young people for their roles as informed, active participants in public life."

Whereas there is no disagreement as to the ways in which universities could serve the communities, the pressing question is whether small and young universities are capable and have the resources to follow these ways. If these universities do not have the capacity to serve the communities, the failed attempts may lead to disillusionment and frustration. For example, the objectives of community-service may be generally acceptable but the reality of funding may impose its own constraints. In this regard, Wandira (1977:54) comments that:

> " ... the poorest countries of Africa find that they cannot afford the university they need for their development. In turn, poor universities are unable to make as significant a contribution to the development of their countries as they would like."

Nevertheless, studies on the involvement of university lecturers in community-service indicate that some of the challenges highlighted above can be overcome. The findings from research conducted by Startup (1979:89-92) are relevant to the conceptual and theoretical framework of this particular research as they throw light on the attitudes of university lecturers towards the community-service function of the university. These findings are presented below:

- University lecturers felt that it was their duty to advance the widespread understanding of their disciplines and that this went beyond their teaching and research duties.

- University lecturers felt that they ought to extend the use made of their disciplines.

- University lecturers tended to feel an obligation to further the ideals of the university and this included helping in the general functioning of universities. This went beyond the obligation to sustain the functioning of their own departments.

- University lecturers felt that if they were assisted by specific people in the performance of their tasks, they should in turn assist them.

- Although it was the senior academics who were most active in community-outreach activities, disciplines do not lend themselves equally to that purpose. For example, university lecturers working in the disciplines of Geography History and Sociology found interest and inspiration in local and material social conditions whereas this was not the case with the pure Natural Scientists such as Mathematicians.

Perold and Omar (1997:6) report that in South Africa, community-outreach activities are seen as directly related to the mission statements of High Education in terms of a commitment to quality teaching, scholarship and research which are responsive to the development needs of society. They believe that this approach contrasts sharply with the one that regards community-service as a distinctive, third leg of High Education's mission, along with teaching and research. They further warn about the consequences of the approach that views community-service as a distinctive aspect of High Education by stating that responsiveness to societal needs can become an add-on activity, peripheral to the main functions of teaching and research.

In the final analysis, the effectiveness of community-service programmes depends as much on management and administration issues as it does on the availability of funds. The report of the study conducted in South Africa on community-service and High Education

institutions concludes that the benefits yielded by community-outreach programmes in universities depends on the following administrative factors:

- The articulation between programmes and the curricula with which they are associated.

- The orientation of the leadership in the High Education institutions towards being more socially responsive through teaching and research.

- The extent to which the programmes provide a site for the realisation of specific teaching and research goals as well as programme design and management. (Perold, 1998:8)

It is imperative for personnel charged with the responsibility of facilitating INSET programmes for university lecturers to fully comprehend how community-service is conceptualised by different individuals and groups who are stakeholders in order for such programmes to attain the objectives for which they were designed. Of utmost importance is that they need to take into consideration the internal and external environmental change factors which affect the university system in general and lecturers in particular. Facilitators of INSET programmes must have a theoretical background of issues that pertain to community-service as one of the major functions of the university if these programmes are to be effective.

This exposition of the concept university and related considerations is deemed critical to this study. In addition, it is also vital to briefly analyse the concept which is closely related to it, namely, High Education as a constituent undergirding this sector of education in South Africa.

2.5.2 HIGHER EDUCATION

The term High Education is closely related to the concept of a university. The review of literature shows that this concept is not understood and used in the same way by all people in all countries. Consequently, this has caused a crisis in certain quarters concerning the connotation and the fundamental principles with respect to the traditional conceptualisation of High Education (Barnett, 1990:3). In the South African context, High Education is defined as :

> **" ...all organised learning activities which take place in colleges, technikons and universities or under their academic supervision."**
>
> (African National Congress, 1995:127)

In line with the systems theory described earlier, the present majority party in the South African parliament, the African National Congress (ANC), describes its vision of a High Education system as a well-planned and integrated education whose students and staff are increasingly representative of South African society (African National Congress, 1995:128). The ANC further declares that the High Education system would:

> **" ... be linked to human resource development and the production of scientific and other knowledge to service the economic, environmental, political, cultural and intellectual development of our communities and nation."**
>
> (African National Congress, 1995:128)

Clearly, according to this notion of High Education, universities are expected to have goals and objectives that are linked to sustainable national development. Given the fact that historical factors necessitate that the High Education system in South Africa should be changed, university lecturers need to participate in INSET programmes in order for their institutions to achieve the goals of contributing towards reconstruction and development of the South African society.

However, not all university lecturers agree that it is their task to contribute towards assisting the state to achieve its economic, political and cultural aims. In this respect, Barnett (1990:201) notes that the academic community is fragmented and that it is misleading to talk of a single academic community. He explains that at the heart of the fragmentation is the belief that such aims are functionalist and instrumentalist. He further describes the functionalism or instrumentalism that prevails in public debates about High Education as follows:

> " [The functionalist view] which includes the tendency to understand higher education in terms of the values and goals of the wider society , and the drive to evaluate the effectiveness of High Education in terms of its demonstrable impact on the wealth-generating High Education and its contribution to the economy through supplying qualified personnel come to the fore ... issues of this type exercise a disproportionate influence in two senses. First, even as reflecting the interests of the wider society, they reflect a narrow set of interests ...Secondly, and more significantly, the functionalist approach neglects the intrinsic character of High Education."

Finally, the complex , ambiguous and collegial nature of universities ~~and their goals will~~ always present certain challenges with regard to High Education and, *ipso facto*, for the INSET of university lecturers. Above all, as Duke (1992:8) correctly points out, it should always be borne in mind that as long as universities rely on the public exchequer for a large part of their income the influence of Treasury and ultimately the cabinet is decisively important.

In addition, change, especially for continuing High Education, sometimes inevitably requires a real push from environmental, social, political and economic factors which are outside the university system itself. Consequently, the academic autonomy of universities will continue to be affected because pressures and tensions from the environment outside the universities are likely to determine the policies which govern the overall running of these institutions as well as their general direction in relation to development strategies.

With regard to the influence of the goals of society on High Education, the ANC's Framework for Education and Training (African National Congress, 1995:132) proposes a tight rope to be walked:

> " **High Education institutions must have a high degree of autonomy in determining their affairs, balanced with the need for monitoring, evaluation and public accountability, especially in relation to the redress of inequalities, quality of provision and the efficient utilisation of resources.**"

It is also important to note that policy framework for education and training advocated by the ANC also underscores INSET programmes which are needed in High Education for the purpose of developing human resources and helping universities in changing their staff

profiles in terms of race and gender. To this end, universities will be encouraged through appropriate funding mechanisms (African National Congress, 1995:131).

At this juncture we now need to discuss the concept of university lecturers. This is important to prevent any possible confusion regarding the meaning of this concept which is central to this investigation.

2.5.3 UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

Throughout this thesis, the phrase university lecturers is frequently used as an alternative to other terms such as academic staff, university teachers, university faculty and academics. Due to the fact that even different universities within the same country use a variety of designations to refer to this category of university personnel, it becomes necessary to clarify the meaning of the concept.

Traditionally, university teachers have been called lecturers. The problem with this word is that it may be so narrowly conceptualised that its meaning may have specific implications regarding the dominant method of teaching. The other example of how the term lecturer can be narrowly defined and as a result, vaguely understood is the following:

> **" A person, lower in rank than a professor, who gives lectures, especially at a college or university."**
>
> (Hornby, 1974:481)

It is remarkable that this definition excludes other university personnel who have been

employed to teach, research and do community-service . Examples of the personnel who are left out of this definition are senior lecturers, associate or assistant professors, professors and senior professors.

Furthermore, in the South African context, one could be elected or appointed as head of department or dean (including deputy or assistant dean) whereas during the same period one may be charged with the responsibilities of teaching, doing research and engaging in community-service programmes. There are many instances where academic staff who are lower in rank than professors are appointed or elected to these positions. This definition excludes this category of personnel.

The definition is also silent about people employed in the positions which are below the rank of a lecturer but who also do the teaching, research and community-service duties, namely, tutors, graduate assistants, junior lecturers and so forth. In many South African universities such people are not considered to be lecturers in terms of their rank. Above everything else, the narrow and superficial conceptualisation of this term can easily create the false impression that the role-function of lecturers is confined to teaching and that they use only the lecturer-method to impart knowledge and skills to their students.

Elton (1987:10) states that the term lecturer has come to convey the full range of academic activities, that is, teaching, research, community-service and administration. This view is compatible with the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study which assumes teaching, research and community-service to be the main functions of the universities. Therefore, in this study lecturers include tutors, lecturers, senior lecturers, associate

professors, professors, senior professors, heads of departments, depu~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~ or any other university personnel whose job includes teaching, research and community-service.

There are few matters of greater significance to the universities than the quality, dedication, motivation and productivity of lecturers (OECD, 1987 (a): 77). Consequently, it becomes incumbent to briefly review such issues as the skills, knowledge and competences needed for academic work.

Over the years, universities all over the world have been in a state of rapid change. This is especially evident in the developing countries where the societies in which they are embedded and which they are expected to serve have themselves undergone radical changes. The problems which these universities have to grapple with include large student numbers, the language used in teaching and textbooks, diversity in the ability and background of students, maintenance of academic standards, academic freedom and relevance to the communities which they are expected to serve.

Clearly, universities have to deal with three major forms of change which often make competing demands on them : the present needs of the country, the traditions of the country and the international academic tradition. In order to meet these challenges, university lecturers can no longer rely on the experience of the past alone but have to employ new approaches to their problems. This is where the need for INSET arises.

It becomes apparent that it may be difficult for university lecturers to employ new

approaches to their teaching, research and community-service role. they have

received education and training relevant to their tasks. Therefore, INSET programmes of

university lecturers in research, teaching and community-service are important means of

meeting the problems faced by their institutions. It was previously stated that community-

service is directly connected to the teaching and research functions of the university.

Consequently, in the discussion that follows attention will be limited to the notion of the

academic career and the preparation of lecturers for the teaching and research aspects

of the career. This obviously has important implications for INSET of university lecturers.

2.5.4 THE NATURE OF THE ACADEMIC CAREER

The systems theory described earlier presupposes that the activities and behaviour of

university lecturers are directed to the achievement of certain organisational goals. These

goals may be regarded as outputs from the university, the most important of which is the

production of competent students. University lecturers play a crucial role in contributing

towards the achievement of organisational goals as reflected by research, teaching and

community-service outputs. In this context, the concept of role refers to:

"... the behaviour expected of people belonging to an identifiable category."
(Startup, 1979: viii)

The category that has been identified for the purpose of the present study is university

lecturers. In terms of the university system, lecturers are expected to perform their teaching

and research roles in particular ways because they are subject to the values of the university. Due to the specific roles that lecturers are expected to perform in the university, they occupy a distinctive position in the hierarchy of its offices (Startup, 1979: viii). Despite the dilemmas they face between their own perceived needs and the conflicting demands made on the university in a changing society, literature is conclusive that they remain an essential component or sub-system of the entire university system.

As it was previously noted, academic work is often simplistically dichotomized as teaching and research. Of course, teaching and research make conflicting demands on the time of lecturers and fostering both often creates organisational and administrative difficulties (Cannon, 1983:33). For example, Moses (1988:43) observes that the allocation of time at the university does not reflect personal preferences or competences of lecturers. He also notes that lecturers, especially those on probation, have to adjust to the demands of the universities by demonstrating capacity for and productivity in research as well as satisfactory teaching, regardless of whether personal preferences are for teaching or research. Consequently, it can be concluded that there are personal and professional differences in values and attitudes which influence the work of university lecturers. Therefore, organisers of INSET programmes must recognise these differences.

However, it is also worth mentioning that teaching and research are not the only dimensions of the university lecturers' work (Startup, 1979:vii; see also, Cannon, 1983:33). Shils (1977:9) supports the view that the university lecturers' occupation is multi-faceted in that:

" The work within universities and departments must be kep[...] are in many different ways indispensable to teaching and research. Students must be admitted and supervised; their course of study and syllabuses must be organised and repeatedly revised; the students must be examined. Resources must be acquired and administered; buildings and grounds, libraries and laboratories must be built, furnished and maintained, books and equipment must be procured. All these are different from research and teaching but they are necessary conditions."

It is necessary and important, therefore, to examine several areas of activities carried out in and outside the university as well as relationships in which lecturers are involved before INSET programmes can be organised for them. For example, the involvement of university lecturers in all aspects of INSET becomes even more important given the fact that they, like other professionals, can or do demand large scale autonomy in their academic work. For this reason, Moses (1988 : xiii) characterised academics as people who have:

" ... a strong sense of autonomy and responsibility appropriate to those active at or near the frontiers of knowledge, a justifiable pride in intellectual achievement and the confidence that accompanies intellectual leadership."

This characterisation suggests that university lecturers legitimately perceive themselves as professionals. It includes certain features which have been recognised in Western society as conferring certain obligations to professionals.

One of the main obligations of professionals is the possession of elaborate knowledge which can be assured in the first instance by systematic study. Academic work has been justified on the grounds that the possession of knowledge by university lecturers improves the lives of others. Shils (1977:7) points out that such possession of knowledge contributes to the realisation of an ideal of social justice and also provides opportunities for those who are talented to develop their mental powers. He observes that as members of society, university lecturers also have additional responsibility from their accumulation of knowledge. He notes that even within universities, lecturers are generally deemed to know more than their students. He further reports that although there are exceptions to this pattern of apparent superiority, by and large, this pattern exists in many countries. According to Moses (1988:38) this phenomenon is further reinforced by the fact that most academic administrators are recruited from academic staff in general.

However, this pattern of so-called superiority of the knowledge of academic lecturers, *vis-a-vis*, their students, poses certain challenges. Notably, Shils (1977:17) describes the problem of superiority as follows:

> " In law, an academic is entitled to tell as many half-truths and falsehoods as any lay politician or agitator. He [she] is legally entitled to be as demagogic and misleading as any unscrupulous journalist or politician."

Moses (1988:xiii) shares the same sentiments and observes that university lecturers, like politicians:

" ... are apt to exhibit arrogance, self-righteousness and a........ ......
the possibility that they might be mistaken."

How the abuse of cognitive superiority by university lecturers can be controlled or prevented and thus guaranteeing that they scrupulously adhere to the truth is a gnawing problem affecting the nature of the academic career. Consequently, competences that university lecturers require to perform their tasks as expected by society become an issue which those who are responsible for organising INSET have to cautiously deal with.

Nevertheless, the calls for universities to have high standards of teaching and quality of research, to be relevant and accountable, indicate that the claimed professionalism by university lecturers is disputed or redefined. University lecturers' performance of their teaching duties are increasingly becoming open to the scrutiny of their peers and students. For instance, apart from students being given an opportunity to evaluate the teaching performance of their lecturers, the results obtained by the former are assessed by external examiners as a means of subjecting the latter to the same form of scrutiny. In addition, in their research tasks, university lecturers are guided not only by the standards which they have received and assimilated but also by anticipated assessment of their peers. In this regard, a university lecturer has an advantage which the other professionals do not have, namely, that the scientific procedures that are used when conducting research are subject to scrutiny. Shils (1977:12) elaborates further in this connection:

" Even before publication, he [she] is open to his [her] colleagues' surveillance when he [she] presents his [her] results before a meeting of a

learned society. A scientist or scholar often works in solitude, but when he [she] publishes the results of his [her] research he [she] must also provide the evidence on which he [she] based his [her] conclusions and he [she] must describe the procedures which he [she] used. Before his [her] results can be assimilated into the body of accredited scientific or scholarly knowledge, scientists or scholars no less qualified than himself [herself], and often better qualified, will examine what he [she] has done. They will compare his [her] results with what they know of the same or very closely neighbouring problems: they will examine his [her] procedures to see whether they are reliable. They will analyse his [her] theories in the light of the particular observations known to them and they will test his [her] observations by their conformity with prevailing theories in the field."

2.5.4.1   SUMMATION AND CONCLUDING IDEAS ON THE NATURE OF THE ACADEMIC CAREER

In summarising and concluding this section on the notion of the academic career, it needs to be emphasised that the core functions of university lecturers are teaching and research, complemented by service to the university and to the society at large. It also emerges from the review of literature that for INSET needs of university lecturers to be adequately addressed, their teaching and research tasks should not necessarily be seen as being in conflict with one another. Rather, the high and rising research standing should be reconciled with high standards of teaching for the benefit of the society.

Furthermore, there are different developmental tasks associated with different age spans and different beliefs and values among university lecturers all of which necessitates that INSET activities be made available to all staff throughout their careers on an individual basis. Formal evaluation of university lecturers by both peers and students is seen as one of the ways to encourage this. Therefore, there must be some form of diversity in the range of approaches adopted by tertiary educational institutions to facilitate INSET of university lecturers.

By way of conclusion, it is also noteworthy that the entry point to the academic profession varies in different countries. Although the doctoral degree is the ideal threshold to entry into the academic profession, unlike in other professions, there are many entry points to this profession (Duke, 1992:7). Many doctoral students are already part of the profession by virtue of their part-time teaching role. In fact, in many universities, there are many lecturers without a doctoral degree who are employed to teach and research.

The academic work is very complex in nature. This complexity should be acknowledged by personnel hired to facilitate INSET of university lecturers. Of utmost importance is how the need for academic freedom and autonomy of lecturers are balanced with the demands for relevance and accountability. The discussion that follows , therefore, focuses on the preparation of university lecturers for their teaching and research roles in the light of the complex nature of the academic career.

1.4.3.2   IMPROVING THE TEACHING FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

Most university lecturers have become experts in their fields of study and practice through advanced study or experience in their professional practice. They remain experts by continuous engagement in learning. Qualifications at entry level are normally expected in the scientific or technical field, and where the entry is at the lowest position possible, opportunities for INSET are then provided.

The emphasis on the scientific credentials makes it possible for university lecturers to be appointed without formal teaching qualifications or experience in the High Education sector. In most countries, including South Africa, a lecture suffices for the university selection committee to judge the teaching skills of a prospective lecturer.

Moses (1992:11) decries the fact that underlying the lack of formalised expertise for the teaching function is the assumption that being knowledgeable about the subject content will necessarily make a lecturer a good teacher. He warns that teaching at the university level at its best requires not only a high level of competence and expertise in the discipline or relevant professional experience but the knowledge of pedagogy and andragogy as well. Consequently, research has identified some competences required of university lecturers who have been assigned to do teaching duties (see for example, Beaty, 1998:101-104; Cannon, 1983:52).

2.5.4.2.1 SOME COMPETENCES AND CONDITIONS WHICH DESIGNERS OF INSET NEED TO TAKE INTO ACCOUNT WHEN FACILITATING THE PREPARATION OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS FOR THEIR TEACHING ROLES

Reference will be made in some detail to considerations concerning INSET strategies for university lecturers in chapter six revolving around conclusions and recommendations. However, at this juncture we need to take into account some competences and conditions which facilitators should take into cognisance of in the preparation of university lecturers for their teaching roles as an intrinsic element of the theoretical and conceptual framework of this research.

Beaty (1998:101-104) outlines some competences and conditions which designers of INSET need to take into account so that university lecturers can be empowered to perform their teaching duties effectively and efficiently . These competences and conditions are briefly discussed below:

2.5.4.2.1.1 DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE

Most university lecturers do not have professional knowledge that concerns the area of pedagogy or andragogy. Therefore, any initial INSET programme must focus on the professional knowledge of education. All university lecturers must have a reasonable understanding of how adult students learn and the implication of this for their role as lecturers.

2.5.4.2.1.2 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES

University lecturers must develop a repertoire of skills essential to the art of teaching. As skills cannot be taught directly, they need to be built with the help and support of experienced colleagues. Lecturers also need to experiment with new approaches and techniques and be critical about their performance in relation to their objectives and those of students.

1.4.3.1.0.3 DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDES AND UNDERSTANDING ETHICAL PRINCIPLES UNDERPINNING TEACHING

It is important for the content of INSET programmes to assist university lecturers with the required attitudes and ethical principles which undergird teaching. The fact that most academics have not received any formal training in teaching underscores the seriousness of paying attention to attitudinal issues which are deemed relevant to INSET of university lecturers.

2.5.4.2.1.4 LEARNING THROUGH DIALOGUE

Various forms of feedback from students can encourage reflection on the part of lecturers. Beaty (1998:102) emphasises that the perspectives, attitudes, responses and feelings of the students provide rich data for reflection and practice. The support of colleagues also provides opportunities for reflection. INSET activities, therefore, need to empower lecturers with the skills and techniques which can assist them to interpret the feedback of

their students appropriately. This can encourage lecturers to ack............ ....

limitations and be willing to involve others such as mentors to enhance their learning.

2.5.4.2.1.5 THE NEED FOR EMOTIONAL SUPPORT

INSET programmes for teaching involve a process of emotional support from a group of peers. Lecturers can learn a lot from one another and this can greatly enhance the opportunity to learn, develop and change. When the Peer-coaching or the Peer-consultancy model is discussed in chapter 3, details of the importance of working with colleagues are provided.

2.5.4.2.1.6 THE NEED FOR INSTRUCTION AND SHARED EXPERTISE

Reflection must be enriched through opportunities for new knowledge and skill-based development. Lecturers must make a conscious effort to develop their knowledge and skills. This may require continuing education and training in the form of INSET. This is where INSET activities that cover aspects of learning theory and teaching methods are crucial to a well rounded development programme.

2.5.4.2.1.7 THE NEED FOR FEEDBACK AND ASSESSMENT

Owing to the fact that university lecturers need to develop sound judgment about their own behaviour and that of their peers, assessment entails elements of both self-assessment and peer-assessment. At the end of the INSET programmes, lecturers must be trusted to regulate their teaching duties and to have sound judgement about the quality of such

programmes. Self-assessment and peer-assessment, therefore, have a legitimate and important role in INSET of university lecturers.

2.5.4.2.1.8   TIME, INCENTIVES, REWARDS AND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Sufficient time must be allocated to the university lecturers to participate in the INSET programmes as well as to the people who are in charge of facilitating and evaluating the effectiveness of these programmes. In this connection, Moses (1992:104) is of the opinion that resources must be allocated for these programmes and that the necessary motivation for the commitment of these resources should be a national framework of accreditation. Finally, there must also be rewards, including promotion prospects for university lecturers who excel as teachers.

2.5.4.3   THE NEED FOR INSET TO IMPROVE THE RESEARCH FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

University lecturers are prepared for their research function through formalised research degree study as part of apprenticeship. This is often found in some High Education systems such as those in the USA, UK, Japan, Norway, Netherlands, Germany and Australia (Blume, 1986:217). As indicated previously, a doctorate is usually the admission requirement to membership of the scientific community. In the Natural Sciences in particular, the doctoral training usually precedes full-time employment whereas in other fields it may be obtained during employment.

Moses (1992:9) provides one of the reasons why a period of post-doctoral work is usually required in the Natural Sciences before aspiring university lecturers can gain the research position. He argues that in the Natural Sciences:

" ... **graduate study tends to be more structured, giving less scope to the student for independent work, originality, and responsibility for all stages of a research project from inception to single author publication...**"

Nevertheless, the review of literature shows that overall, the value of doctoral research in all fields of study has not been doubted. According to the OECD report (1987(b):79) report the academic career connotes:

"... **administration, research management, advisory and consulting functions, seeking grants...**"

As a result, research training happens to be a systematic and intentional preparation of university lecturers for their research function. However, there are other aspects of research which are mostly left to chance learning. In this regard, Moses (1992:9) notes that research management, writing grant applications, budgeting, writing for publication, liaising with the media, are all learnt by modelling successful colleagues or by trial-and-error.

The preparation of university lecturers for research function can take place in universities or institutions which have research missions, the necessary resources and staff with relevant expertise and experience. The knowledge and skills which are necessary for

preparing university lecturers to become competent researchers c~~an be learnt before~~
employment, on-the-job, or in time-out arrangement like sabbaticals (Cahill, 1991:124).

It is evident, therefore, that INSET programmes must address the research needs of
university lecturers. This is important given the fact that the general conceptualisation of
academic work is that research is highly valued and rewarded and that the teaching-
service is often perceived as a distraction from research. Moreover, most university
lecturers hope to inspire their students to take research courses and even choose research
careers (Smith and Brown, 1995:14; see also, Moses, 1991:153- 163;1992:12).

2.5.4.4   SUMMATION

Cannon (1983:52) concludes that the teaching role of university lecturers consists of five
different elements. These are also competences required of university lecturers to be able
to do their teaching jobs effectively. The conditions or competences are rational,
instructional, organisational, disciplinary and evaluative. In an ideal situation, an assiduous
lecturer would be effective in all these competences.

However, as Cannon (1983:52) correctly observes, the analysis of individual differences
among university lecturers suggests that diverse strengths and interests in the teaching
role are to be expected. Kozma et al. (1978:8) also acknowledge this diversity of university
lecturers and note further that the university students differ too. According to them, the
early approaches to research on teaching at universities did not acknowledge the fact that
the varying backgrounds of students and lecturers made each teaching situation unique
and complex. Obviously, then, learning and teaching cannot be the same for all students

and lecturers. Kozma *et al.* (1978:10) warn that any approach that seeks to find a technique which will benefit every student in every situation disregards the complexity of the teaching-learning situation and is doomed to failure. Du Toit (1989:198) also found in his research that the uniqueness of lecturers must be taken into consideration whenever INSET programmes which are intended to improve their teaching roles are planned and organised:

" Die uniekheid van elke persoon wat in opleiding, onderrig en leer betrokke is, het bepaalde konsekwensies vir die realiseering daarvan."

Loosely translated, this means that the uniqueness of every person has particular implications for the realisation of the goals of training, instruction and learning in which he or she is involved. Consequently, university lecturers have very little in common. Indeed, this view is reinforced by Moses (1992:2) who maintains that due to the differences among university lecturers themselves, when their qualifications, knowledge and skills needed for academic work are considered, the following three variables need to be a basic consideration:

- The level in the academic hierarchy in which a person is entering the academic profession.
- The discipline in which the appointment is made.
- The type of institution in which the appointment is made.

Further, Moses (1992:3) also points out that the way in which university lecturers were prepared for their work in the past should not be a concern. Researchers and practitioners

should rather examine the preparation of those who are currently teaching and researching in universities.

Cabal (1993:103) brings another important perspective to the teaching role of university lecturers. He claims that universities can fulfil the needs of society in general and business in particular if they produce students with high levels of personality development. To this end, he proposes that lecturers should be assisted through INSET to facilitate the spiritual, intellectual and moral development of their students through the hidden curriculum. Cabal (1993:104) concludes as follows:

> **" The university, in short, has an educational mission that is not limited, but goes beyond the simple transmission of the course listed in what is sometimes referred to as the visible curriculum that is taught at prescribed times and in prescribed schedules. There is another curriculum that could be called a hidden curriculum underlying the university's educational commitment. It assumes the undefinable and imprecise task of providing profound and full learning."**

Moses (1992:11-12) puts his weight behind the value of the hidden curriculum. He argues that university lecturers need to be role-models for students and instil in them a commitment to scholarly values and continuing education and training through critical reflection, self-evaluation and accountability. He also believes that university lecturers hope to instil in their students a love for their discipline and for learning as well as a sense of progress towards competence and maturity.

The teaching function of university lecturers is an intentional activity which seeks to bring

about positive attitudinal, cognitive or motor change in the students with whom they are interacting (McNeil and Popham, 1973:219). Therefore, INSET programmes should assist university lecturers to effect intended changes on students' cognitive skills, motor skills and attitudes. University lecturers who have been empowered through INSET programmes to effect changes in their students are said to be effective.

The following hypotheses based on the research findings by Kozma *et al.* (1978:19-22; see also, Jacobs and Gravett, 1998:54), have a bearing on INSET needs of university lecturers in general and the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study in particular:

- Professors are generally conservative regarding change and innovation.

- Young university lecturers may approach teaching with enthusiasm, since it is central to their vision of a great professor. Others may slight teaching in their eagerness to establish their reputations as renowned scholars.

- Senior professors may discover increased enthusiasm for teaching, viewing it as a challenge and a form of personal renewal.

- Generally, university lecturers show some interest in improving their teaching skills.

- Rightly or wrongly, most university lecturers view themselves as effective teachers.

- While there is little conscious sharing of teaching theories or methods among university lecturers, most of them define the instructional goals as covering course content and introducing the concepts and methods of their field of specialisation.

- Most university lecturers are considerably less concerned about students' general intellectual and human development.

- Among most university lecturers, good teaching is thought to be an amalgamation of their knowledge, current research, attractive personality and ability to motivate

students.

Another area that is crucial to the theoretical and conceptual framework of this research is quality assurance. Indeed, the review of literature conclusively points to the need to have mechanisms in place so as to ensure that universities offer quality education for students and quality INSET programmes for lecturers. The need for research, teaching and community-service of high quality is crucial to the attainment of goals of universities. Consequently, an overview of the notion of quality assurance in tertiary educational institutions as the basis for the provision of INSET for university lecturers will now be provided.

2.5.5 QUALITY ASSURANCE IN UNIVERSITIES

Quality assurance has made its way into the vocabulary of universities with remarkable speed. Universities are being called upon to restructure themselves in order to meet the public's demand for higher quality at less costs. Consequently, there is a need to define quality within the context of this research.

According to Strydom *et al.*(1991:1):

> " Quality assurance is concerned with the way in which a university, in discharging its corporate responsibility for the programmes of study and qualifications it offers, satisfies itself and its clients that it has effective structures and mechanisms in place to monitor the quality of policies and procedures employed, and that these promote the enhancement of existing

standards."

It is self-explanatory from this definition that in order to meet the changing needs of society, universities must constantly review and develop their existing academic programmes. For this to happen with ease, it is crucial that lecturers should be involved in INSET activities.

In line with the systems theory already described, the concept of quality in education relates to various factors. Strydom *et al.* (1991:vi) observe that it is not restricted to educational outcomes, but it also includes educational processes and inputs. In this respect, process indicates the way in which a university accomplishes its mission.

Input refers to the resources required by universities to attain their goals and objectives. The maintenance of quality, as it relates to academic standards is one of the most important challenges in most countries of the world. The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) identifies the improvement in the quality of education and training in South Africa as one of the challenges that have to be confronted in order to achieve significant levels of economic growth and international competitiveness (HSRC, 1995:6). It is not surprising, therefore, that one of the principal objectives of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) in South Africa is to enhance quality within education and training (Genis, 1997:17).

It is noteworthy that quality in the tertiary education sector is dependent upon the quality, qualifications, experience, competence, professional confidence and commitment of lecturers. Cross (1993:16) believes that university lecturers are the single most critical

element in educational change. As such, INSET is one of the primary strategies through which lecturers can remain at the cutting edge of such educational change which categorises the continual attempts by universities to offer high quality education to the widest diversity of learners at a cost that society can afford. To this end, there is a need for responsibility, commitment and dedication on the side of administrators.

Cornesky *et al.* (1992:51) note that without administrative support, constant improvement will not occur because:

> " The top administration is in the position to define the improvement of quality, build a consensus around it, and allocate resources such that everyone in the institution can see that quality improvement does pay."

Loder (1990:82) supports this view. He points out that the questions which deal with quality provide administrators with direction.

2.5.5.1 BENEFITS OF QUALITY ASSURANCE FOR UNIVERSITIES

Following Marchese (1991:3-9) we may outline the following benefits of quality assurance for universities:

2.5.5.1.1 QUALITY ASSURANCE IS CUSTOMER DRIVEN

The fundamental objective in assuring quality should be to identify explicitly the clientele to be served, to know their needs systematically and to commit oneself to the successful realisation of such needs. The concept of customers of universities differs from that of the

private sector. There are no repeat customers in the traditional sens

2.5.5.1.2 QUALITY ASSURANCE EMPHASISES CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT AND ELIMINATES RE-WORK

Quality assurance, through classroom assessment involves continuous checking on the quality of learning and this enables lecturers and students to identify weaknesses when they first appear in the teaching-learning encounter. Cross (1993:18) is of the same opinion and argues that when students fail to learn, waste piles up and work has to be re-done. He further points out that discovering weaknesses in student learning in the final examinations is wasteful and too late for students. Continuous classroom assessments are formative evaluations which provide a continuous flow of information about what students are learning in the process.

2.5.5.1.3 QUALITY ASSURANCE CONCENTRATES ON MAKING PROCESSES WORK BETTER

In order to make processes work better for the purpose of quality assurance, Marchese (1991:5) writes that:

> **" The aim is to identify those processes; enable the people who work in them to understand that work in relation to customer needs."**

The major process of any university is learning and university lecturers need to understand that process and take the responsibility for improving it. However, as indicated

previously, few university lecturers have any formal training in human learning processes.

Therefore, university lecturers need training in much the same way as they provide it to

other professions if the quality of their work has to be of a high standard. The training itself

must be professional and should normally lead to recognised

academic qualifications. It must also be closely allied to practice and, above all, be

associated with relevant research.

2.5.5.1.4   QUALITY ASSURANCE EXTENDS THE MIND-SET

University lecturers need to have the knowledge background of and interest in the

students they are employed to teach. Quality assurance requires a paradigm shift among

university lecturers. Marchese (1991:4) remarks that quality is:

" ... a mind-set, the soul of the company itself, an all-pervasive drive of such

intensity that it identifies the corporate culture."

In this regard, Cross (1993:16) emphasises the irony that exists in the promotion of quality

education. He is of the opinion that the rhetoric of quality assurance calls for paradigm

shifts, restructuring and dramatic change and that most educational practitioners deal with

quality issues in timid ways.

2.5.5.1.5   QUALITY ASSURANCE INVOLVES FEEDBACK

The data collected from classroom assessment by university lecturers must be shared with

the students. Feedback on students' learning provides them with information about how

effectively they have presented their lectures. Feedback also provides students with

information regarding how well they have learned.

Classroom assessment is seen as a powerful basis for the development of INSET for university lecturers. Through observing the impact of their teaching on students' responses, university lecturers are developing a repertoire of teaching techniques that work for them in their field of specialisation.

2.5.5.1.6   QUALITY ASSURANCE EMPHASISES TEAMWORK

Some of the strongest teams in INSET activities are found at the departmental level because members of departments have a set of common values with regard to teaching, research and community-service goals and priorities. With respect to this aspect, Cross (1993:18) and Marchese (1991:5) mention that departments are also natural sites for teamwork in terms of ensuring quality INSET programmes because they are the key organisational units within every university.

2.5.5.1.7   QUALITY ASSURANCE REQUIRES A VISION

According to Marchese (1991:6), unlike the lofty platitudes of mission statements, quality assurance gets everybody focussed on the right things to do. Facilitators of INSET must thoroughly assess the teaching, research and community-service needs of university lecturers and be certain that whatever programmes they design will result in the right things being done.

2.5.5.1.8   QUALITY ASSURANCE IMPROVES UNIVERSITY OPERATIONS

In consonance with the principles espoused by Marchese (1991:3-9) *Cornesky et al.*

(1992:51) suggest further that if universities adapt the Deming philoso[...] Management (TQM), their operations will improve constantly, morale will increase and resources will be used optimally. INSET of university lecturers is clearly at the cutting edge of ensuring that quality is constantly improved in universities.

1.4.4.2 SOME KINDS OF QUALITY CONTROL FOR INSET OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

Measuring quality in INSET is usually described as evaluation or control. Kerry (1993: 166-170) mentions four kinds of quality control in INSET of university lecturers, namely:

- Monitoring, which involves determining whether INSET plans are being carried out or not.

- Formative evaluation which entails finding out as to whether INSET plans need to be adjusted and how they are being carried out.

- Summative evaluation which involves determining whether the INSET process was successful and whether the outcomes were worthwhile and valuable.

- Review which deals with the question as to whether assumptions, priorities and approaches regarding INSET should be changed or not.

2.5.6 SUMMATION

It is important to mention, as observed by Luddeke (1998:114), that universities are receiving increasing scrutiny internationally. There is no doubt that in order to gain or regain public confidence and support, many universities will need to re-examine their relationships with their internal and external environments. Loder (1990:XI) supports this

contention and is adamant that apart from finance, questions of quality and accountability by universities are inevitably going to be principal themes in the High Education debates. In writing about quality in High Education, Marchese (1991 :8) maintains that:

> **" Its advocates want more than a change in management practice; they want an entirely new organisation, one whose culture is quality-driven, customer-oriented, marked by teamwork, and avid about improvement."**

As Cross (1993:16) aptly states, the goal of quality assurance in High Education is to do more work with less resources. It can , therefore, be safely concluded that properly organised INSET programmes of university lecturers are pivotal to ensuring that there is quality in the teaching, research and community-service outputs of universities. Quality INSET programmes should play an important role in establishing the academic stature of universities. The real challenge of universities which INSET designers cannot ignore basically boils down to offering high quality education.

2.6 SELECTED THEORETICAL MODELS WHICH ARE RELEVANT TO THE INSET OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

There are numerous models of INSET which are relevant to the provision of INSET for university lecturers. These models are discussed below:

2.6.1 THE DEFECT MODEL

The defect model described by Hofmyer (1988:8) and Bagwandeen (1991:133) is also referred to as the deficit model by Pather (1995:79) and the traditional model by Pigford *et al.* (1992:3). To the INSET facilitators who believe in this model, teaching is understood as a science rather than an art and they also believe that by following a prescribed set of rules, educators are bound to be successful.

In terms of the defect model, it is assumed that educators need INSET because they lack the necessary skills to perform their tasks. In this model, the educator remains passive while the facilitator, without any input from the educator makes decisions with regard to INSET plans (Mofokeng, 1993(a):5). Bagwandeen (1991:133) provides a reason for this dictatorial attitude of the facilitators when he asserts that the model:

" ...has been created on the dogmatic perception of other educators that they know and can vindicate their statements about what constitutes good teaching ... the teacher is prematurely antiquated."

The model has particular implications for INSET of university lecturers. For instance, permeating this view is the notion that weaknesses are diagnosed by an outsider who then prescribes a remedy for removing the weaknesses through INSET programmes that are intended to change specific aspects of lecturers' behaviours in the workplace.

Educators resent the watchdog mentality of the traditional approach as well as its heavy emphasis on standardised criteria, much of which tend to be formulated for administrative ease rather than for effectiveness in assigned tasks (Mofokeng, 1993(a):5; see also, Pather, 1995:79). The use of INSET programmes which are aimed only at correcting teachers' professional shortcomings fail to provide for their individual needs. Clearly, the model has little or no place for university lecturers because it has the potential of encroaching on their highly cherished academic freedom and autonomy.

Nevertheless, this model has some advantages. Pigford *et al.* (1992:61) observe that the model requires little time and skill on the part of the facilitator . Therefore, the model is not costly. Further, the model also requires little contact between educators and supervisors. Consequently, it may be the most practical model in situations where the supervisor-educator ratios are high. Although the deficit model uses effective INSET approaches such as lectures, seminars and workshops, if it is used without the support of other models it will be rejected as ineffective (Pather, 1995:78).

2.6.2   THE GROWTH MODEL

This model is founded on the premise that educators need to keep current with latest developments in their fields and be assisted to become sensitive to their own problems in the workplace. Supporting educators to be aware of their problems, according to Bagwandeen (1991:135), can be achieved by allowing them more time to conceptualise their experiences. This model allows supervisors to work together with teachers in identifying the latter's problems, determining the cause of the problems, and working towards solutions (Mofokeng, 1993 (a):7; see also, Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993:71; Bagwandeen, 1991:135).

Pigford *et al.* (1992:2-5) have found that the growth model can assist supervisors and INSET participants to accomplish sound working relationships if the former are willing to endorse certain assumptions. They make the following assumptions which are relevant to INSET of university lecturers as well:

- The recognition of needed change in behaviour must come from the participants themselves and not imposed from outside.

- The INSET supervisors must be seen as helpers and not evaluators by the participants.

- The ability of INSET supervisors to create and maintain a trust relationship with participants is critical to the growth model.

- The INSET supervisors must be extremely knowledgeable in their work. They must be able to establish credibility among the participants.

- There must be sufficient time to engage in the growth model.

- The model is not an appropriate tool for all the INSET participants.

Oliva (1989:499) also warns that INSET facilitators need to avoid sermonizing and conveying a loftier-than-thou superiority. He further makes the following poignant point:

"... the supervisor's behaviour is not a monolithic, unchanging, machine-like process with a single orientation that will be unfailingly successful in all situations, but a flexible, changing, human process."

Due to the need to alter the power structure in tertiary institutions so that lecturers can have more control over their professional destinies, the model would facilitate the institutional climate that would support lecturers' efforts to learn more about functions they are expected to perform. Considering the above exposition, one cannot but agree that:

" There can be no animadversion of the fact that the growth model of INSET allows for positive direction."

(Bagwandeen, 1991:136)

2.6.3 THE PEER- COACHING MODEL OR PEER-CONSULTANCY MODEL

The Peer-coaching model or the Peer-Consultancy model is also known as the Clinical Supervision model (Smyth, 1984 (a):7). It is an alternative approach to the traditional

models of INSET which are based on inspection, quality control, bureaucratic and psychological control of teaching. In contrast, as Smyth (1984 (b):426) points out, the principles, practices and philosophy of this model are explored as a responsive way in which university lecturers might use the support of their colleagues to acquire greater personal control over knowledge gained about their own teaching and ascribing meaning to their work. Unlike the earlier formal, stark, autocratic and unpopular traditional model, this model offers a more flexible, supportive and concerned approach which focuses on the improvement of teaching. This model encourages autonomy and collective action.

Many researchers have proposed different variations of this model. Their models contain varying numbers of steps or stages and emphasise some aspects of the process more than others. Nevertheless, whether the model is Clinical Supervision or Peer-Coaching or Peer-Consultancy, these models are all essentially the same. In this theoretical and conceptual framework, attention will be drawn to the most popular and widely used five-steps process model proposed by Goldhammer (1969) as referred to by Smyth (1984 (a):7) . The five steps or stages of this model are Pre-observation conference, Observation, Analysis and Strategy, Post-observation or Supervision conference and Post-conference analysis. The model is illustrated in Figure 2.4:

FIGURE 2.4 The FIVE-STAGE PEER-CONSULTANCY MODEL
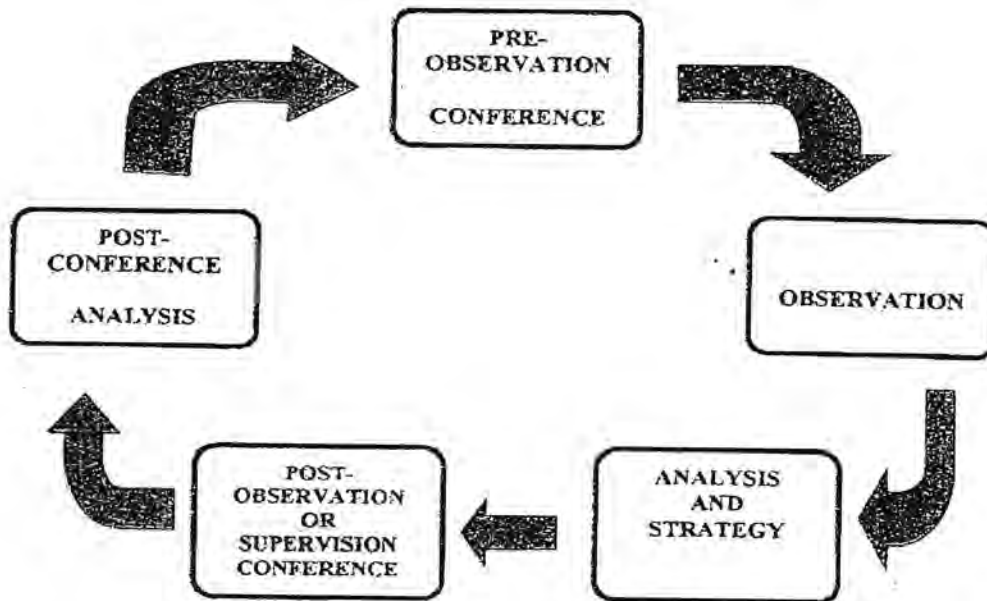
Source: Smyth, 1984a:7

2.6.3.1   THE STAGES OF THE PEER-COACHING MODEL

Each of the five stages of the Peer consultancy model is distinct and purposeful. Although the model has been widely used at the school level, it can be adapted to the university level as well. A brief discussion of each stage follows:

2.6.3.1.1   STAGE 1:PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

Pre-observation conference is a contract between an educator who is a university lecturer in this context and a colleague (also referred to as a consultant) who is observing him or her. More specifically, it is a face-to-face talk between the lecturer and

a colleague prior to the latter's visit to the former's lecture-hall (Oliva, 1989:487; see also, Mofokeng, 1993 (a):9).

The consultant and the educator meet during this stage of the process to discuss a problem or area of concern the latter may be experiencing. The purpose is to help the lecturer to define the problem in precise terms, to provide him or her with the information that pertains to the role of the consultant during the Peer-consultancy process in order to acquaint the observer with the characteristics of the class to be observed. Examples of the class characteristics to be observed are gender, age, ability and population group.

During this stage, the relationship of trust between the consultant and the lecturer is built and the former creates an opportunity for the latter to rehearse his or her lesson. Whereas evaluators of lecturers' performance may feel the need for unannounced visits, the peer consultants have no need for this. They are not seeking to check on lecturers to keep them on the ball or to assess their competences or professionalism for administrative purposes.

Since the Pre-observation conference is supposed to help the lecturer relax, it is proposed that it be held either in the lecture-hall or in a neutral place as opposed to the consultant's office. The consultant opens discussions in this phase by spending some time trying to relax the lecturer by discussing matters of personal or general interest. Once the lecturer is relaxed, through active listening and skilled questioning, the consultant elicits information from the lecturer regarding the objectives for the lecture,

how objectives will be evaluated and the characteristics of students in the lecture-hall to be visited.

The Pre-observation conference is a contract which is primarily a description of what the consultant will look for and record during the observation. If the consultant and the lecturer have previously been working jointly to solve a particular teaching problem, the standards of performance might be established for the lecturer to meet during the observation. The Pre-observation conference creates an enabling environment for the attainment of the primary objective of Peer-consultancy, namely, the bringing about of improvement in the practice of teaching through a collaborative process of consultation.

2.6.3.1.2   STAGE 2:OBSERVATION

The consultant sits in the lecture-hall, observes and records data relating to the contract established during the Pre-observation conference. The main purpose at this stage is to capture realities of the lecture objectively enough to enable the consultant and the lecturer to reconstruct the lecture as validly as possible in order to analyse it afterwards (Harrison and Killion, 1987:25).

Due to anxiety which lecturers are likely to experience during this stage, lecture-hall observation demands a high level of technical and analytical skills. The consultant must know what to look for, how to look and how to record what is seen. At this stage, the consultant is only concerned with the behaviours of students and the lecturer as they relate to the specific problems defined in the Pre-observation conference. Therefore,

the consultant focuses complete attention to this relatively small area of the total teaching-learning situation. The focus on a small area eases the anxiety of the lecturer. It also sends a powerful message to him or her that the consultant is genuinely interested in helping him or her to grow personally and professionally.

2.6.3.1.3   STAGE 3 :ANALYSIS AND STRATEGY

Just as soon after the observation as possible, the consultants should set aside time to go over their notes that have data from their observations in an attempt to determine how data may be useful to the lecturers in relation to the problems identified during the Pre-observation conference stage. Going over their notes soon after the observation stage will also help them to add items which may recur to them while the observed lectures are still freshly impressed upon them.

Pigford *et al*. (1992:8) suggest that if the observation was focused, only the information related to the area of concern should be reviewed. They further suggest that if the observation was not focussed, all the information should be reviewed and that an area of concern which is likely to affect student learning and achievement should be selected. Furthermore, they warn that while several areas of concern during the analysis and strategy phase might be selected, it is not advisable to discuss multiple concerns during a single Post-observation conference. The Analysis and Strategy stage is actually a plan that the consultants develop to state what they would like to accomplish with the lecturers at the end of the conference, what they will do to empower them to attain their objectives, and how they are going to create a positive

climate during the Post-observation conference. This stage demands that the consultant should have special facilitation skills in order to be able to assist the lecturer to develop professionally.

2.6.3.1.4 Stage 4:THE POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE OR INSTRUCTIONAL CONFERENCE

Soon after the Observation the lecturer and the consultant meet once again at a mutually satisfactory location to carry out the task that most specialists believe to be demanding to the consultant. The lecturer and the consultant interact on the basis of the data collected during the Observation to attempt reaching a full understanding of what has occurred in the lecture-hall. According to Harrison and Killion (1987:44), the following points are considered to be the purpose of the Post-observation conference: to provide feedback on instructional techniques; to provide positive reinforcement for effective teaching behaviour; to bring to conscious level, the instructional techniques which the lecturer uses; to explore with the lecturer decisions about instructional techniques used and the merits and demerits of each technique; to assist the lecturer in exploring alternative instructional techniques and to extend the lecturer's current repertoire of instructional techniques.

It is obvious, therefore, that of all the skills that contribute to the effectiveness of the consultant, none are more crucial than those related to conducting Post-observation conferences. The success of the Post-observation conference depends on the socio-emotional climate created by the Peer-consultant. As stated earlier, by its nature, a

conference induces some level of anxiety in the lecturer. If a consultant remains indifferent or insensitive to this condition, the positive results of the conference may be undermined. The skilful interpersonal communication of the consultant with lecturers has a direct impact on immediate and long-range instructional improvement. Jordaan and Jordaan (1989:734) support this view when they argue that insensitiveness to or unawareness of the nature of interpersonal communication is a major source of discord, disagreement and conflict in interpersonal relationships.

Clearly, the consultants, although indirect in their approach, help guide the lecturers in drawing conclusions from the data gathered during the Observation stage of the Peer-coaching model. Communication skills such as paraphrasing, perceptions checking, clarifying questions, and so forth should be practised by consultants in order to assist lecturers in making decisions about teaching behaviour and the resultant student behaviour. Care should be taken, however, that discussions during the Post-observation conference should follow on the data collected by the consultant but not on the experiences, biases and feelings of the latter.

It is in the Post-observation conference when the consultant and the lecturer meet to share their separate views and interpretations of the observed teaching-learning experience, that they try to plan for future action. The role of the Peer-consultant is to give the lecturer another perspective and contribute to the more balanced analysis of the teaching-learning situation (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992 (b) : 192). At this stage, a new focus might be considered for a future lecture and, consequently, a new cycle might begin. In short, the consultant and the lecturer are, at this juncture, engaged in a Pre-

observation conference for the next cycle of the Peer-consultancy process.

2.6.3.1.5   STAGE 5 :POST-CONFERENCE ANALYSIS

During this final stage in the model postulated by Goldhammer (1969) the consultant mentally goes through the whole process of the peer-consultancy model one more time in an attempt to determine how the process might be made more effective. The consultant looks primarily at his or her behaviour during the process and how this behaviour might be modified to help ensure greater independence in problem-solving for the lecturer in the future. In short, from one's own personal experience of organising professional development programmes for both the school teachers and university lecturers, the Peer-consultants or colleagues ask themselves the following question during the Post-conference analysis stage: Given another chance, how differently could we assist the teachers or lecturers to improve their teaching performance?

1.5.2.2   THE VALUE OF THE PEER-CONSULTANCY MODEL FOR INSET OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

The value of the Peer-consultancy model for INSET of university lecturers is well documented by Zuber-Skerritt (1992 (a):192). He underscores the fact that academics are autonomous scientists and inquirers into their own practices. They are involved in solving their own problems with the help of supportive colleagues who are partners in a critical reflection on certain experiences towards a construction of improved future action. Smyth (1984(b):426) shares this conviction and argues that the principles,

practices and philosophy of the Peer-consultancy model are explored as a responsive way in which lecturers might use collegial support:

" ... to acquire greater personal control about their own teaching, ascribing meaning to that teaching, and learning what is involved in genuinely autonomous growth..."

The model is posited as a more robust conceptualisation of what it might mean for lecturers to become actively involved in the reflective process of analysing and theorizing about their own teaching, its social antecedents and possible consequences. It seems that, through struggling to discover their own experiences, university lecturers are empowered to understand, challenge and finally change their own teaching practices. The model has the advantage that it provides a structure to the entire process of the teaching performance analysis of university lecturers. Moreover, this analysis is initiated and requested by the lecturers themselves, rather than being imposed from above or outside. The model requires that if there is going to be change that leads to better teaching performance, then INSET participants themselves will have to be the agents of that change.

In the opinion of Soudien and Colyn (1992:268) empowerment transforms a person who is fatalistically despondent and reconstructs that person. According to Maeroff (1988:89), part of the powerlessness of teachers to change their behaviour and attitude is a function of their isolation. This implies that when university lecturers are not afforded the opportunity to interact with others, they become disempowered to deal with

their own teaching problems. Maeroff (1988:89) also observes that when teachers are always going their separate ways, it adds to their disenfranchisement and that the networks that they form are a potential avenue of power. Thus, university lecturers have a greater chance of gaining access to the mechanisms of power if they interact with colleagues or Peer-consultants.

1.5.2.3   SOME OF THE DISADVANTAGES OF THE PEER-CONSULTANCY MODEL

This model has disadvantages as well. It is argued that the quality of coaching provided by untrained people using this model is poor. The bureaucratic structure of educational organisations, lack of time, insufficient interaction with colleagues and the physical structures of the learning institutions all get in the way (Pigford *et al.*, 1992:4-5). Nevertheless, whatever its setbacks, when this model is adapted for INSET of university lecturers, it is likely to raise the level of professional talk and provide them with feedback about the shortcomings of their roles. The model can help lecturers to see their colleagues in a new light.

1.5.3 RESEARCH-BASED DEVELOPMENT MODEL OR ACTION RESEARCH

The research-based development model involves educational research with a clear development focus (Walker, 1993:49). The model assumes that for development to take place, knowledge has to be gained from concrete experience and reflection on educational practice which is generally described as action research. Thus, action

research is widely regarded as a research-based development model of INSET which promotes university lecturers' understanding of their practice. For instance, Zuber-Skerritt (1992 (b):1) defines this type of research as:

> " ...collaborative, critical inquiry by the academics themselves (rather than expert educational researchers) into their own teaching practice, into problems of student learning and into curriculum problems. It is professional development through academic course development, group reflection, action, evaluation and improved practice."

It is clear from the above definition that action research is actually an investigation into one's own practice though this does not preclude the practice being shared or related to the practice of others. Furthermore, action research, as a research-based INSET model, empowers university lecturers to develop their performances as well as to improve their practice and to change their work conditions and organisational constraints which hamper professional development.

2.6.4.1 THE VALUE OF RESEARCH-BASED DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR INSET OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

Roberts (1991:45-51) identifies the following strengths and benefits of action research as a research-based development model for university lecturers:

- Lecturers participating in such a development activity have to decide which practice they are to reflect on.

- Action research activities operate in such a way that they make good practice available to others.

- Action research enables university lecturers to be relevant as it assists them to conceptualise their own value in theories that are lived in practice.

- Action research emancipates lecturers in that it enables ownership of their values, theories and practices so that they are not appropriated by academic hegemonies.

- Action research promotes democracy, that is, it values the interpretations of others and recognises their right to participate in the definition of a shared reality.

- Action research fosters collaboration among university lecturers. Such kinds of research-based INSET activities enable university lecturers to work with each other.

The benefits of research-based development model for INSET of university lecturers can also be seen through the eyes of Zuber-Skerritt (1992 (b) : 215)who observes that university lecturers can be empowered to solve practical problems in the curriculum systematically and collaboratively and thereby improve the practice of learning, teaching and professional development. He is also of the conviction that this model can enable lecturers to improve the social context and conditions in which INSET takes place. Finally, he reports that the model can assist university lecturers to document excellent teaching which may result in the generation of grounded theory, research and publications.

In the final analysis, the research-based development model allows university lecturers to reflect on their practice, to experiment and share their knowledge and concerns in a positive and enabling environment (Mohlman *et al.* ,1982:16-20). Above everything else, the model helps with the development of a clear understanding of both content and the process of change which is anticipated by INSET programmes (Walker, 1993:49; see also, Bagwandeen and Louw, 1993:76).

2.6.4.2   SOME CHALLENGES POSED BY THE RESEARCH-BASED DEVELOPMENT MODEL OF INSET

Research-based development model poses certain challenges. The model requires time because its long-term benefits are often not seen in the beginning. Furthermore, developing group collaboration and team spirit, breaking old habits and traditions as well as getting support from top management can be problematic (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992 (b):215).

Nevertheless, Pather (1995:113) believes that the problems can be overcome and that the success of this model depends on the attitudes of INSET participants and the training of key personnel in various techniques which can facilitate the professional development of university lecturers. As for Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:77), the degree of success for this model is determined by evaluating the attainment of the objectives of INSET. They believe that in this model, research is valuable in that it secures knowledge and that the research effort is evaluated in terms of quality or validity rather than in terms of immediate applicability.

However, Walker (1993:49) contends that action research helps with the development of both a clearer understanding of both content and the process of a change that is anticipated by INSET programmes. Bagwandeen and Louw (1993:76) also concur with Walker and maintain that the model describes the change process from an earlier point in the revolutionary process of innovation and that it stresses the perspective of the originator or developer of the innovation.

Clearly, the research-based development model allows university lecturers to share their knowledge and concerns regarding teaching. During the INSET sessions, enough time is allowed for reflection and experimentation in a positive and enabling atmosphere (Mohlman *et al.*,1982:16-20).

2.6.5 THE NATURALISTIC INSET MODEL

Armstrong (1991:53-61) proposes a naturalistic INSET model for university lecturers. The model focuses on the activities of those involved in INSET design and development, evaluation and the influences that impact upon the design and development process of INSET programmes . The model emphasises the problem - solving nature of INSET design and development . In terms of this model, the nature of problems is continuously changing and new problems may be added to the process, or they may replace those previously identified as INSET facilitators continue to gather and analyse data .

Armstrong (1991:53) uses a set of diagrams to depict independent layers and

components of an overall unified structure of INSET . The model consists of four mutually interacting components, namely INSET Design and Development, Evaluation Structure , Near Influences and Far Influences . The model is diagrammatically illustrated in Figure 2.5:

FIGURE 2.5 THE COMPONENTS OF THE NATURALISTIC INSET MODEL

COMPONENTS OF THE NATURALISTIC *INSET* MODEL


```
┌─────────────┐         ┌──────────────────────────┐         ┌─────────────┐
│    NEAR     │   ⟹    │  DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT   │   ⟸    │    FAR      │
│  INFLUENCES │         └──────────────────────────┘         │  INFLUENCES │
└─────────────┘                      ⇓                       └─────────────┘
                         ┌──────────────────────────┐
                         │  DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT   │
                         └──────────────────────────┘
```
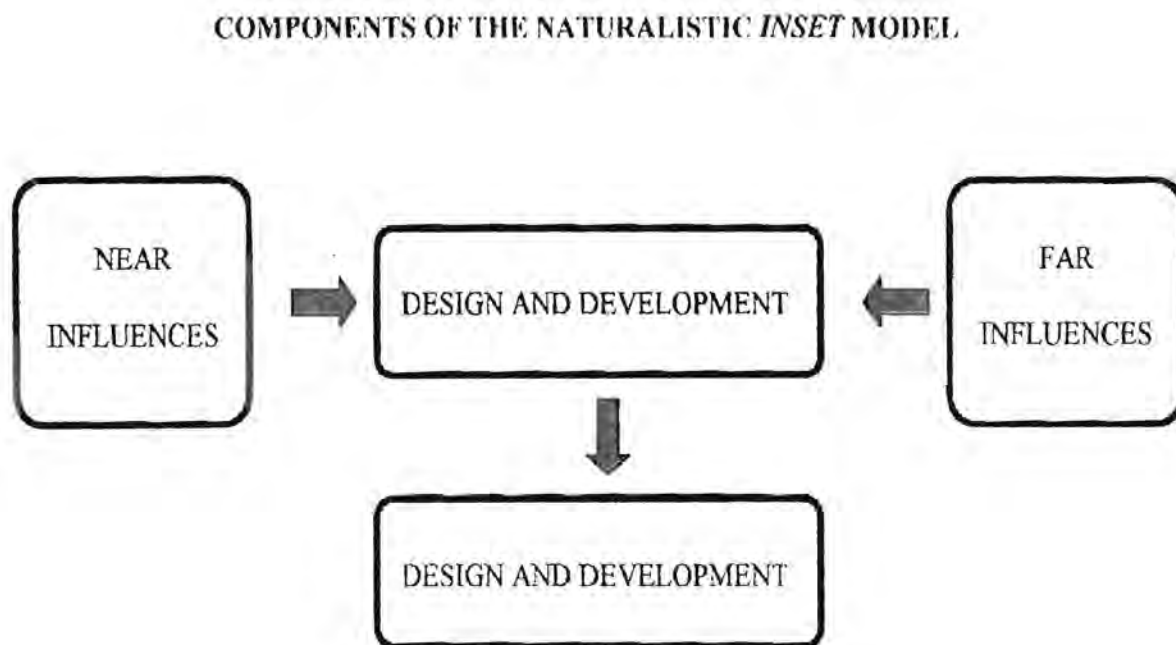
Source : Armstrong (1991:53)

All these components interact dynamically with one another . Each of the components is briefly discussed below :

attempt to formulate exact goals or objectives in this initial phase of INSET.

Armstrong (1991:55) advises , however , that this stage does not merely entail the speculative hypothesis but problems perceived by INSET participants. This phase involves much deliberation between INSET developers and university lecturers.

2.6.5.1.2   PHASE 2 : PROBLEM SELECTION AND FAMILIARISATION

The next phase of the model described as Problem Selection and Familiarisation is depicted in figure 2.7 :

FIGURE 2.7 PROBLEM SELECTION AND FAMILIARIZATION

PROBLEM SELECTION AND FAMILIARIZATION
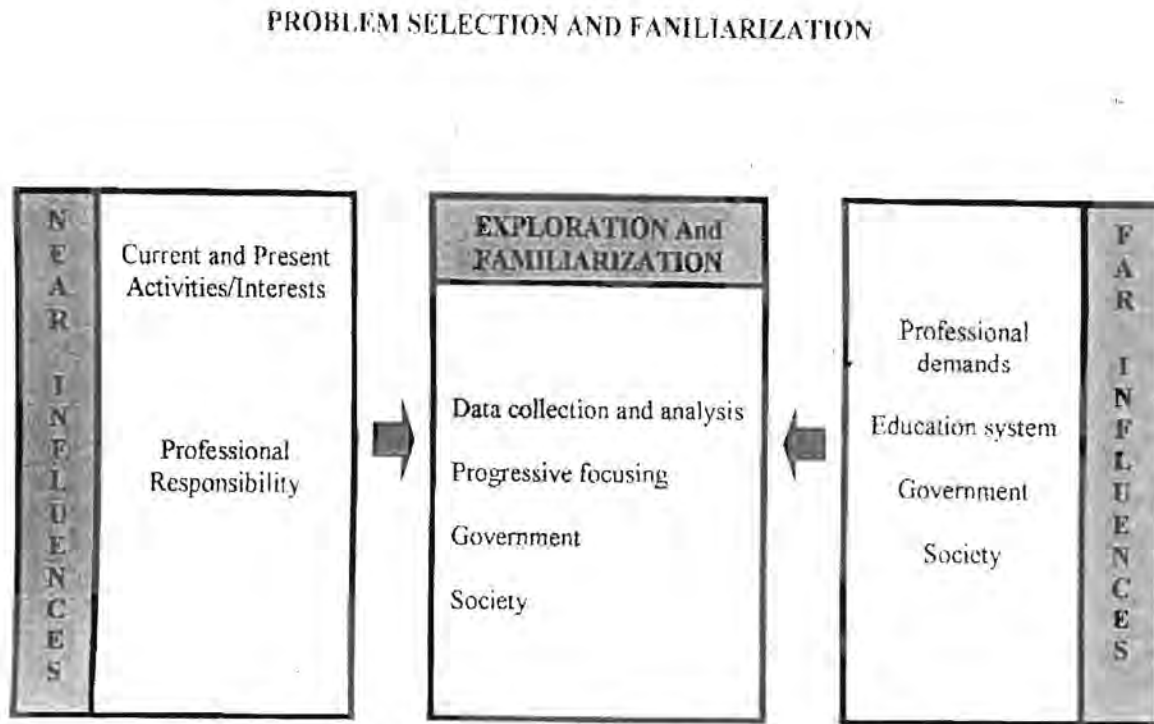
Source : Armstrong (1991,55)

Source: Armstrong (1991:55)

This phase involves all the elements of the first phase, but these are directed towards selecting from the problems of those participating in the INSET activities. It also has to do with taking the necessary steps to become familiar with the selected problems and to understand them. Only those problems considered to be important, relevant and feasible are selected. Data from research conducted by Armstrong (1991:56) suggests that beliefs, values and preferences are components of INSET Design and Development but that these constitute influences rather than a basis on which to build. He describes Far (or Macro) Influences as those factors which emanate from

educational organisations or educational systems whereas Near (or Micro) Influences tend to be created by individuals themselves (Armstrong, 1991:54). Far and Near Influences affect the way in which INSET units develop INSET programmes for university lecturers. Furthermore, it emerges from the research that the previous, personal experience of the developers have a significant influence on INSET programmes.

2.6.5.1.3   PHASE 3 : OUTLINE PLANNING

Armstrong (1991:56) observes that developers tend to construct an Outline Plan or working solution in this phase. He points out that this Outline Plan may be a formal prescriptive model, a modification of a classical model or an *ad hoc* design. Outline Planning also involves the selection of acceptable and appropriate principles of procedures, strategies, methods and techniques and the designs of plans for preparing and producing the implementation of INSET programmes. However, the research suggests that the Outline Plans will be modified considerably as development continues. Consequently, Armstrong (1991:57) concludes that:

" ... outline planning is likely to be tentative and not prescriptive. It refers to the construction of a map rather than a rigid itinerary."

2.6.5.1.4   PHASE 4 : PROGRESSIVE DEVELOPMENT

This phase consists of process INSET activities which include design, action,

observation, analysis, revision and relationships between those activities. The data which was gathered by observing individuals suggests that by the time INSET providers and facilitators find themselves in this phase, they are able to plan, act, observe and reflect upon certain professional development activities (Armstrong, 1991:58). The analysis of the research data led to the conclusion that the process of action, observation and reflection may or may not lead to a revision of existing plans. It was also found that a review may lead individual INSET participants to identify new and more pressing problems or to conclude that the INSET activities have been satisfactory.

2.6.5.1.5   PHASE FIVE: AN EVALUATION STRUCTURE

Armstrong (1991:58-59) combines the four phases as well as the Near and Far Influences with an Evaluation structure to initiate a composite model which is naturalistic and dynamic. He claims that this combination unifies Design, Development and Evaluation in a different manner from other INSET models of university lecturers.

2.6.5.2   THE VALUE OF THE NATURALISTIC MODEL TO INSET OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

The model encourages those who adopt prescriptive INSET models for university lecturers to take a more critical attitude when they plan INSET programmes and prepare resources. In terms of this model, nobody can afford to prescribe INSET activities without an input from the university lecturers participating in such programmes.

Furthermore, the model provides a new and different perspective of evaluation which is essentially an interactive process based on feedback. According to Armstrong (1991:60) this feedback is not as direct a process as many other theories and models suggest. Further, the activities of each phase of design and development contribute to the construction of the Evaluation Structure. Consequently, the model encourages a reconsideration of the nature of formative evaluation and summative evaluation. He also points out that while he supports the view that the distinction between these two types of evaluation is rarely clear cut, neither form of evaluation should be based on rigid, pre-determined outcomes.

Armstrong (1991:61) makes an important observation based on the analysis of the research data:

> " ... change in classroom practice, although this must be an important and ultimate goal, should not necessarily be regarded as a unique outcome of INSET provision."

For INSET planners and organisers this is a reminder that successful INSET programmes depend on the support provided by a variety of factors. This is consistent with the view of the proponents of the open-systems theory who believe that universities as educational organisations are open-systems which are impacted upon by various environmental factors.

2.6.6 THE MODEL FOR RAISING THE INSTITUTIONAL QUALITY OF TEACHING

Elton (1987:77-79) puts forward an effective and economical model which is useful for training university lecturers as well as for raising the institutional quality of teaching. He notes that whereas one of the traditional functions of universities is to produce training for the professions such as law, medicine and religion, the one exception is the academic profession itself, where training is almost entirely confined to research through a doctoral degree. The proposed model is founded on the belief that university lecturers need training in much the same way as they consider that other professions need it and indeed provide it for them. Elton (1987:76) observes that what is particular and unique in High Education is the fact that the vast majority of those in it have never received any teacher training whatsoever.

He concludes, therefore, that the training provided to university lecturers must be professional and that it should normally lead to recognised academic qualifications. In addition, the training should be associated with research and closely allied to practice.

Many universities have tried to overcome the problem regarding lack of training of university lecturers through the establishment of central educational development units that provide expertise and support to these lecturers. Such units rarely assist the majority of university lecturers in their institutions(Elton, 1987:77).

The model proposed by Elton (1987:78) is made possible by the well developed ability of university lecturers to learn from one another and from the relevant research

literature. The model is presented in figure 2.8:

Figure 2.8 : A MODEL FOR RAISING THE INSTITUTIONAL QUALITY OF TEACHING

Educational Development Unit (EDU)

SUBJECT DEPARTMENTS AND THEIR STAFF
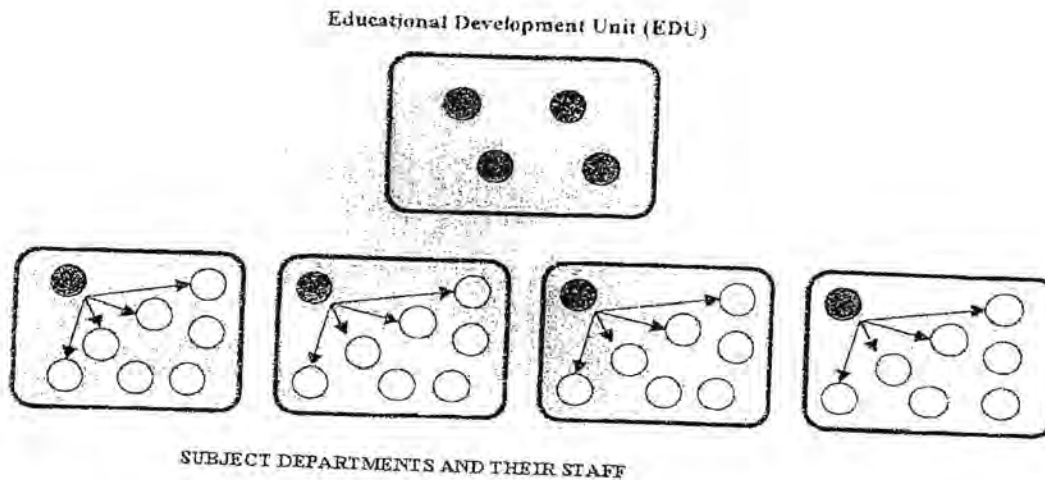
Source : Elton (1987:78)

The model consists of a small and central Educational Development Unit (EDU), together with specially selected university lecturers in subject departments. The academic staff in subject departments are referred to as resource persons. These resource persons are shown shaded in the diagram above, while the rest of the staff are indicated by plain circles. The EDU is staffed by academics whose research is likely to be in the field of university didactics. Lecturers liaise closely with the resource persons who have made the improvement of teaching their main concern. In short, the resource persons' primary concern is the achievement of a deeper understanding of their subject. One of their tasks is to act as the primary resource in teaching and learning for the other

academic staff and students in their departments. Together with the EDU staff, they organise seminars and short courses on teaching and learning.

The advantage of organising INSET programmes based on this model is that it has low operational outputs. Elton (1987:78) proposes that resource persons should be obtained by redeploying existing lecturers who have shown interest in teaching. He also points out that the commitment of the university community to the value and importance of teaching and its place in the career development of university lecturers is essential for the success of INSET programmes. The staff of the EDU and the resource persons require substantial training both in the process of teaching and learning in High Education as well as in the skills and abilities needed by a staff trainer. To this end, Elton (1987:78) advocates that the training should be provided by organisations of academic staff trainers and through courses which are nationally available and accredited.

2.6.7 BOUD AND McDONALD'S PROPOSED MODELS FOR INSET

Boud and Mc Donald (1981:5-9) do not propose completely new models of INSET for university lecturers. What is new, though, is the fact that they differentiate four main models of INSET for university lecturers, depending on the type of work undertaken, its focus and the role of the unit personnel as follows:

2.6.7.1 THE PROFESSIONAL SERVICE MODEL

In this model, services of INSET specialists, that is, their organisational and technical expertise can be used to solve the identified problems of lecturers. In this model, the specialist service can be provided by personnel from academic service departments such as Audio-Visual Centres(AVCs), Computing Centres (CCs), Instructional Development Centres (IDCs) and Academic Staff Evaluation Centres (ASECs).

2.6.7.2 THE COUNSELLING MODEL

This model is adopted by academic staff whose expert knowledge is mainly in the field of psychology. University lecturers who adopt this model perceive their role as that of providing support to students and other lecturers regarding solutions to their teaching and or learning problems. University structures such as Student Counselling Centres (SCCs) and Centres for Teaching Methods (CTM) are utilised to provide assistance in this regard. However, such centres are often underutilised because many university lecturers and students often regard asking for help as a weakness or incompetence or inability to cope on their part.

2.6.7.3 THE COLLEGIAL MODEL

This model is adopted by staff development unit personnel who work in close collaboration with lecturers in INSET activities such as action research projects. Its proponents are convinced that the model is best appreciated by lecturers but that it is

only appropriate when trying to solve new problems. The model is ineffective when solutions can already be found in the literature or in the existing practice and when the experience of other people can be built upon.

2.6.7.4   THE ECLECTIC MODEL

Boud and Mc Donald (1981:5) believe that an eclectic approach, combining all the three models described above is needed in universities to respond to the unique demands of each situation. They believe that the technical competence and interpersonal skills of university lecturers and those of the staff development units personnel need to be expanded.

2.6.8 GLICKMAN'S MODEL OF TEACHER CATEGORIES AND ITS RELEVANCE TO INSET

The model of teacher categories as proposed by Glickman (1981:48; 1987:64-68) can assist INSET facilitators to help develop academic staff in terms of their ability and willingness to perform their teaching, research and community-service tasks. Although the model is based on research done on school teachers, the principles postulated are also relevant to university lecturers insofar as they shed some light on professional development activities which are aimed at improving their teaching performance.

Glickman (1981:48; 1987:64-68) classifies teachers into categories based upon two variables. The two variables are their level of commitment, which may be high or low

and their level of abstraction, which may also be high or low. Teachers who have a high level of commitment are those who are willing to devote time and energy to students and teaching in general, whereas those with little concern for students and more concerned with keeping their jobs are regarded as having low commitment. Teachers with effective technical skills and ability to clarify problems, determine different options to solve problems, and then come up with action plans are said to be having high levels of abstraction and competence. Teachers who are able to generate only one or few options and have a habit of repeating responses are said to be having low levels of abstraction and competence.

Using these two variables, Glickman identified four types of teachers. Figure 2.9 depicts these categories of teachers:

FIGURE 2.9 A PARADIGM OF TEACHER CATEGORIES

High

	L		
	e		
	v		
	e		
Analytical	**l**	**Professional**	
Observer			
	o		
	f		
Low Level of	**A** commitment	High	
	b		
Teacher	**s** **Unfocussed**		
Drop-out	**t** **workers**		
	r		
	a		
	c		
	t		
	i		
	o		
	n		
	Low		
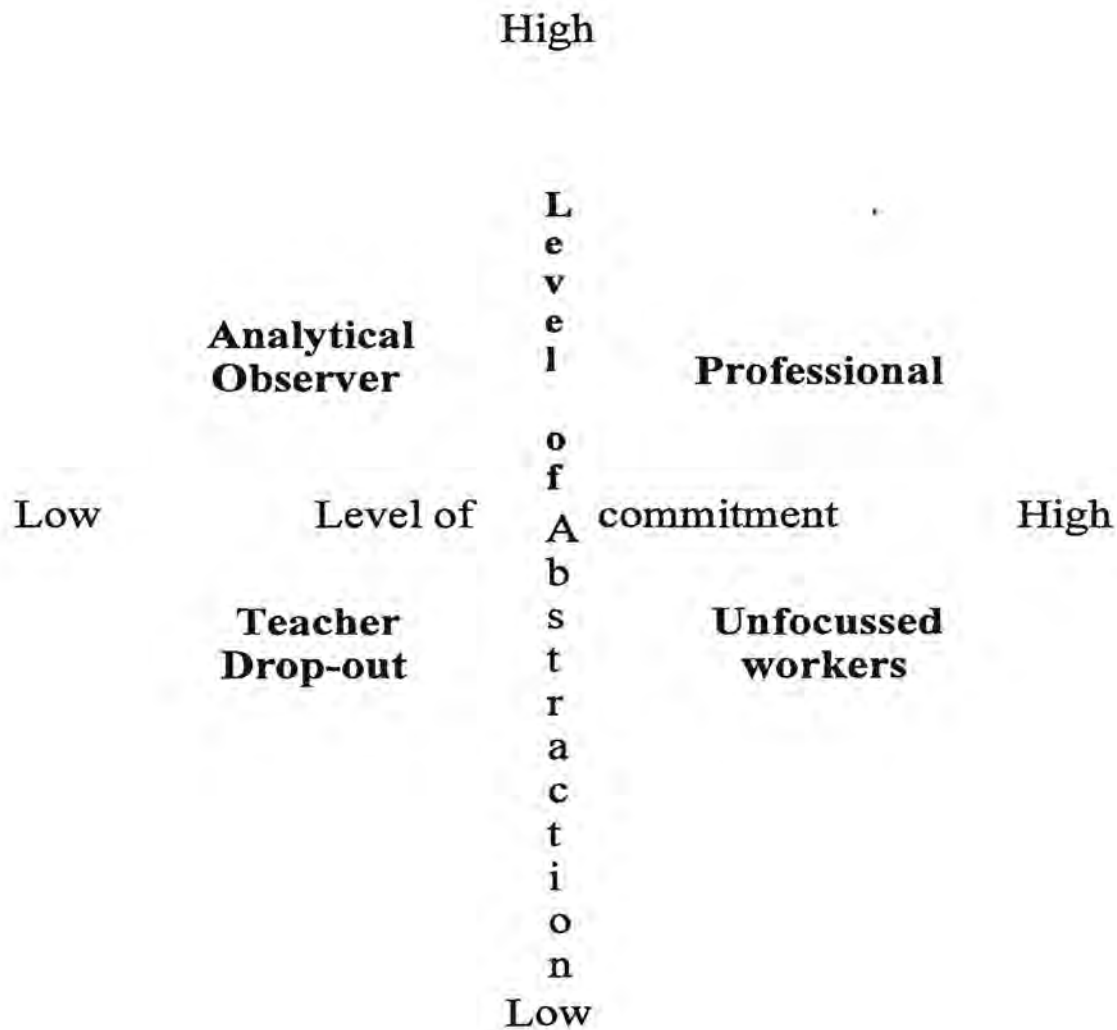
Source: Glickman (1981:48)

In the diagram above, Glickman emphasises the following concepts which have

implications for the INSET of university lecturers:

The dro-pout: A teacher with a low level of commitment and a low level of abstraction,

that is, unwilling and incompetent or unable to do the job. **An unfocused worker**: A teacher with a high level of commitment but a high level of abstraction, that is, competent and able but not willing to do the job.

An analytical observer: A teacher with a low level of commitment and a high level of abstraction, that is, competent and able but not willing to do the job.

A professional: A teacher with a high level of commitment and a high level of abstraction, that is, willing and able or competent to do the job.

Following from the exposition propounded by Glickman, the following three leadership styles expected of organisers of INSET can be identified :

- The directive style.

- Non-directive style.

- The collaborative style.

- The non-collaborative style.

INSET organisers using a directive style clarify the problems of lecturers without input from them. They assume that they know and understand the problems experienced by lecturers. Consequently, they present their own ideas about the problems, direct the lecturers on the actions that need to be taken. In addition, they would demonstrate for the lecturers the appropriate performance behaviour and set the standard for improvement. This style underpins the Defect model of INSET.

INSET organisers using a non-directive style would take note of the problems experienced by lecturers, encourage them to analyse their problems and clarify their

problems by paraphrasing and questioning in order to ascertain that they articulate the real or perceived needs of lecturers. They also offer alternatives if the lecturers ask for suggestions. Ultimately, they ask the lecturers to decide on the INSET plan. The non-directive style is compatible with the Growth model of INSET.

INSET organisers using the collaborative style ask the lecturers for their perceptions of the problems, present their perceptions of the problems, note the perceptions of lecturers and work with them to propose alternative solutions. They work with the lecturers to develop a joint plan of action. This style suits the Growth and Peer-coaching models.

The drop-outs generally respond to a directive style whereas unfocused workers and analytical observers respond to a collaborative style. The non-directive style is most suitable to the professionals.

2.7   CONCLUSION

This theoretical and conceptual framework covered, from a universal perspective, the diverse situations and contexts of INSET for university lecturers. The framework explained the importance of theory in general and that of educational theory in particular. The value of educational theory for INSET of university lecturers was discussed. Some theories were selected for in-depth analysis and discussion because of their utility value in terms of understanding and developing a conceptual framework which is relevant to the INSET of university lecturers.

Reference was also made to an array of concepts which are often used synonymously and interchangeably with INSET. These concepts included concurrent education, continuing education, lifelong education and professional development. In order to ensure that there is no confusion with regard to the conceptualisation of the phenomenon INSET, it became necessary to discuss these terms. Special attention was paid to the meaning of INSET and the rationale for the use of the term in this thesis was also provided.

The explication of other important terms used in this study was also provided. These terms included university, university lecturer, High Education and quality assurance. The term university was defined as an institution which exists within the context of a particular historical perspective. Further, the mission, the teaching, research and community-outreach roles of universities were discussed. The problem of the relative importance of teaching and research was highlighted. It was also shown that this problem impacts on the INSET of university lecturers in the High Education sector.

The notion of academic career and how university lecturers are prepared for their tasks were also explored in this chapter. Some competences and conditions which organisers of INSET programmes for university lecturers need to take into cognisance have been briefly discussed.

It emerged from the review of literature that addressing the INSET needs of university lecturers is pivotal to the success of their professional development programmes. An important thread in the entire academic career appeared to be quality assurance.

Therefore, the brief discussion of the concept of quality assurance in High Education and its effects on INSET of university lecturers constituted an essential element of this chapter.

Considerable attention was also focussed on some selected theoretical models which the facilitators of INSET programmes for university lecturers might use. These were the Defect Model, the Growth Model, the Peer-coaching Model, the Research-based Development Model, the Naturalistic Model, the Model for Raising the Institutional Quality of Teaching, the Professional Service Model, the Counselling Model, the Collegial Model, the Eclectic Model as well as the Model of Teacher Categories proposed by Glickman.

In any discussion of INSET models, a major concern is those who participate in INSET activities. In this study INSET participants are university lecturers. It is essential that organisers of INSET activities should examine the basic characteristics of human beings because INSET participants are people (Apps, 1979:25). The knowledge which organisers possess in respect of human beings and particularly human adults is crucial in the predication of a model or combination of models when determining strategies and planning policy for INSET of university lecturers.

University lecturers are unique individuals who have varying needs. No single model can be deemed as suitable for addressing the INSET needs of all university lecturers. Consequently, the selection of models which are appropriate for planning INSET depends on factors such as resources, personality traits of lecturers, as well as social,

political and economic work-environment of academics.

The various INSET approaches and models discussed in this chapter have general applicability. However, details of implementation vary remarkably in relation to available human and material resources as well as political, economic, social and educational factors which impact upon the contexts in which university lecturers perform their academic duties. Nevertheless, there is a deliberate attempt in this investigation to show that the principles enunciated have universal appeal and could serve as starting points for the conceptualisation, refinement and further development of a theoretical framework of INSET for university lecturers. This theme will be further developed in the chapter that deals with conclusions and recommendations.

The chapter that follows focuses on the INSET of university lecturers in the developed and developing countries. Literature which sheds light on INSET of university lecturers in the UK, Australia and Africa will be reviewed. An overview of INSET in these countries is intended to bolster our understanding of the context in which professional development programmes are provided in developing and developed countries.

Bagwandeen (1991:249; see also, Teather, 1979:15) found that the format and strategies of INSET in these countries differ significantly. Nevertheless, most initiatives undertaken in South Africa to strengthen the system of High Education as well as the progress in INSET of lecturers have been significantly influenced by the research and development that have occurred in these countries over the years.