

**THE DYNAMICS OF IMPLEMENTING SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF ONE
RURAL EDUCATION CIRCUIT IN KWAZULU-NATAL**

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, **Buhle Stella Nhlumayo**, declare that:

- i. The research reported in this thesis (The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural education circuit in Kwazulu-Natal), except where otherwise indicated, is my original work.
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STATEMENT BY SUPERVISOR

This thesis is submitted with/without my approval.



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Date: 05 June 2020

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late parents, my mother Mrs. M. Q. Ngubane and my father Mr. A. M. Ngubane, who would have been so proud of this achievement. It was their wish that I would accomplish this level and more in my education. I made it!

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ABSTRACT

To transform education in South Africa, it is necessary that teachers, school principals and the circuit manager be appropriately equipped to meet the mounting challenges and needs of this developing country through the accurate implementation of school-based teacher professional development.

Drawing from Wenger's (1999) social learning theory, Speck's (1996) and Knowles' (1984) adult learning theory and Liu and Hallinger's (2017) learning-centred leadership, this study aimed to do the following: explore how teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understood and experienced school-based teacher professional development in this circuit; investigate why teachers, school principals, and the circuit manager understood and experienced school-based teacher professional development the way they did; and to determine what could be learnt from the dynamics regarding the way forward in implementing school-based teacher professional development. The study was grounded in the qualitative interpretive approach and employed a multiple case study as the methodology. All ethical issues were observed before and during data generation. To ensure trustworthiness of findings, multiple data generation instruments, such as semi-structured individual face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions, were used. 28 teachers and four school principals from four primary schools in a selected rural education circuit in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, and one circuit manager, were participants of the study. Content analysis was employed to analyse data.

The conclusions arrived at indicate a cocktail of dynamics around the implementation of SBTPD in rural schools. These dynamics include a limited and restricted understanding of SBTPD on the part of the teachers, school principals and the circuit manager, which caused the failure of schools to initiate their own SBTPD programmes. Schools could use departmentally driven programmes to launch their own school-based programmes. This study also established that there was abuse of the cascade model of TPD, which displayed a need for capacity-building and a change of attitude for teachers so that they could use the model to benefit them. The researched schools used lack of infrastructure and facilities as a scapegoat for their abdication of the appropriate implementation of SBTPD. The study established that schools could use what they had to ensure the effective implementation of SBTPD. The study also found that there was a lack of intra-school and inter-school collaboration that hindered the effective implementation of SBTPD. The study proposed

that a school-based collective participation model, on the ground, would assist teachers to confront the reality in their contexts. Lastly the study suggested that teachers, school principals and the circuit manager could adequately benefit from the provision of capacity-building on understanding how to implement SBTPD in schools.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ALT	Adult Learning Theory
ANA	Annual National Assessments
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CES	Chief Education Specialist
CM	Circuit Manager
CO	Circuit Office
CoP	Community of Practice
CPTD	Continuing Professional Teacher Development
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DH	Departmental Head
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
DP	Deputy Principal
FGD	Focus Group Discussions
GET	General Education and Training
IQMS	Integrated Quality Management Systems
ISPFTED	Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development
LCL	Learning-Centred Leadership
NPFTED	National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development
NSC	National Senior Certificate
OSD	Occupation-Specific Dispensation
PD	Professional Development
PL1	Post Level One
PLC	Professional Learning Communities
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACE	South African Council of Educators

SBTPD	School-based teacher professional development
SGB	School Governing Body
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SMT	School Management Team
TED	Teacher Education and Development
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TPD	Teacher Professional Development
WSE	Whole School Evaluation

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CHAPTER 1

SETTING THE SCENE

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This research report chronicles the dynamics of school-based teacher professional development as evidenced in the experiences and understandings of teachers, school principals and the circuit manager of a selected rural education circuit in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. In order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning in schools, teachers must continually work on their competencies through school-based teacher professional development (SBTPD). Teachers need to be in sync with the cutting-edge developments and insights in their own field. The purpose of any teacher professional development (TPD) is to develop and enhance teaching practice, leading to improved learning outcomes for learners. In SBTPD, knowledge, attitudes and skills are constantly shaped with the aim of promoting quality teaching practice. SBTPD is about teachers in schools ceaselessly learning to learn and how they use their learning in their everyday teaching practice, as well as becoming effective in their job (Postholm, 2016). Postholm (2016) further claims that SBTPD develops collective knowledge for both teachers and learners, where teachers continually master the art of teaching and learners continually become motivated to learn.

In this introductory chapter, I discuss the background to the study, statement of the problem, rationale and motivation for the study. I further present the critical research questions and the significance of the study. I then provide definitions of key concepts used in the study, a brief overview of the theoretical framework of the study as well as the overview of the methodology adopted. At the end of the chapter, I present the organisation of the research report. It is important to state that the concepts of SBTPD, TPD, teacher development (TD) and professional professional (PD) are used interchangeably within context throughout the research report. For a deep understanding of the dynamics of implementing SBTPD, it is necessary to discuss the policy framework, the state of SBTPD and the rural dimension for SBTPD in South Africa (SA) as a background to the study. I do this in the next section.

1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.2.1. The South African Policy Framework for school-based teacher professional development

The post-apartheid government of 1994 inherited a society fraught with huge inequalities (Jansen & Taylor, 2003). In judging the achievements of education restructuring in SA, it is imperative to explain some of the policies that characterise the professional development of teachers with the aim to understand the significant accomplishments as well as disillusionments regarding the implementation of SBTPD. The understanding of the circumstances under which teachers acquire new knowledge and skills is enhanced, may be informed by the consideration of the policies that support and guide the implementation of SBTPD in South African schools. Literature suggests that the implementation of SBTPD in SA is guided and supported by a number of policies (Steyn, 2009; Phorabatho, 2013; Ajibade, 2016):

- The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), 2003
- The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED), 2007
- The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development (ISPFTED), 2011
- Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD), 2014

Below I expand on the above documents, in turn, as well as some of their distinct implications for the implementation of SBTPD.

1.2.1.1. The Integrated Quality Management Systems

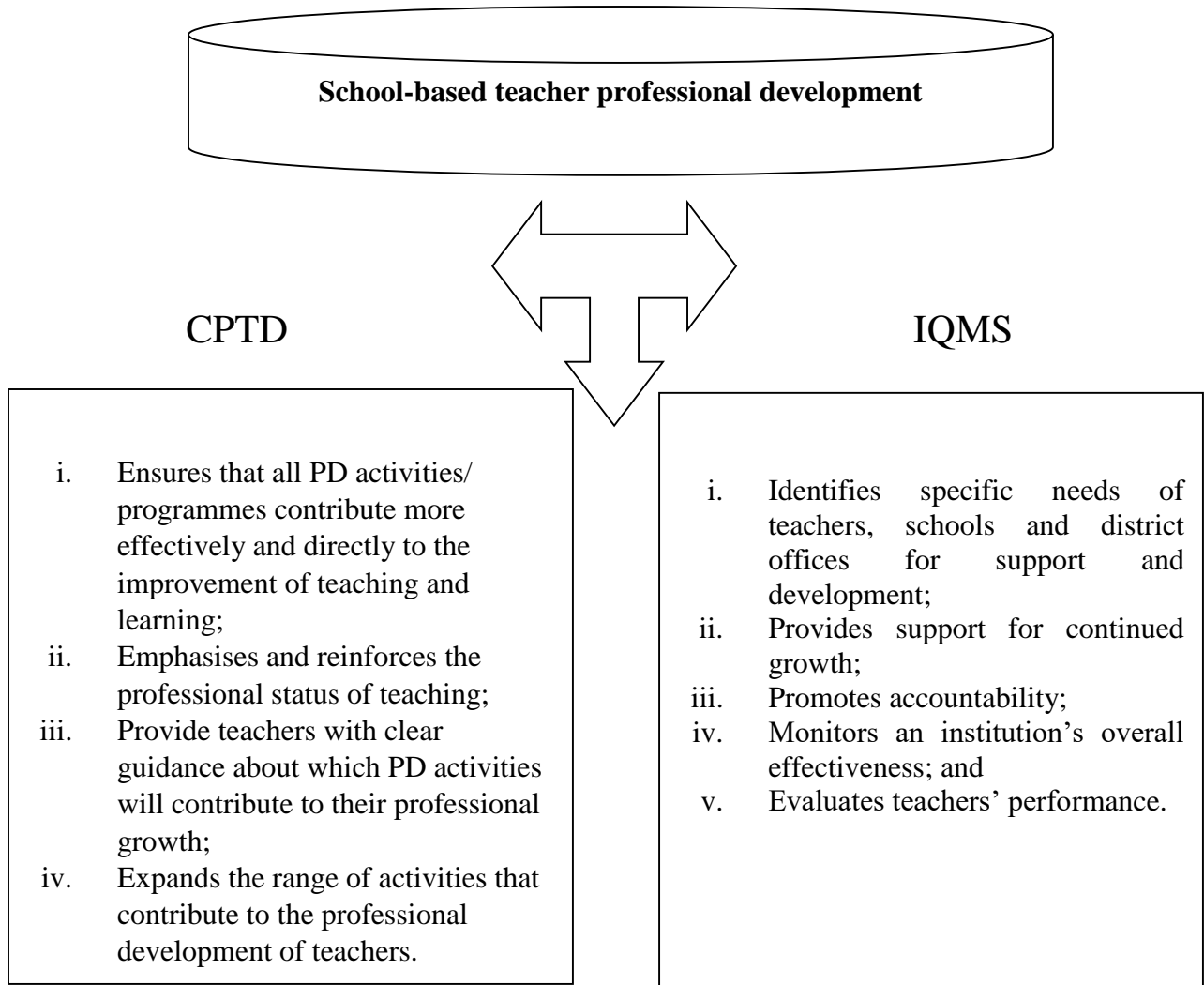
The IQMS policy is the one that is directly implemented by schools, however, it speaks to all the other policies regarding the implementation of SBTPD. The IQMS provides information regarding effective practice and offers a pathway for individual teacher growth. Interrelated to both the NPFTED and the ISPFTED, the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) was established as another policy to endorse continuity in teacher professional development, which was an understanding reached in the Education Labour Relations Council in 2003 (Resolution 8 of 2003).

IQMS is an integrated quality management system that comprises three programmes aimed at improving and evaluating performance of the education system. These programmes are Developmental Appraisal (DA), Performance Measurement (PM), and Whole School Evaluation (WSE). The purpose of Developmental Appraisal (DA) is to assess individual educators in a transparent manner with a view to determining areas of strength and weakness, and to draw up programmes for individual development. The aim of Performance Measurement (PM) is to appraise each teacher for salary progression, confirmation of appointments, rewards and any form of recognition. The purpose of Whole School Evaluation (WSE) is to gauge the general performance of a school in addition to the quality of teaching and learning.

Both the IQMS and CPTD system share mutual characteristics in terms of the developmental aspect. IQMS assesses individual teachers with a view to deciding areas of strength and weakness, and to drawing up programmes for individual development. The CPTD system and the IQMS both involve teachers in hands-on tasks and afford opportunities to observe, evaluate and reflect on the new teaching practices. The diagram below illustrates the relationship of the CPTD system and the IQMS to that of SBTPD.

As indicated in Figure 1.1., SBTPD is a well-defined mix of CPTD and IQMS when appropriately implemented. CPTD focuses on developing the individual teacher for their own improved performance and IQMS focuses on developing the individual teacher for the performance of the whole school. Both policies serve to encourage teachers to be accountable for their own professional development in order to enhance classroom practice and learning outcomes. With the aim to broaden teachers' knowledge and skills by encouraging participation in educational activities and tasks, both policies envisage the continuous improvement of teachers' professional learning.

Figure 1.1: Relationship between SBTPD, CPTD and IQMS



Adapted from CPTD (2014), Government Documents

1.2.1.2. The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development

The dominant aim of the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) (2007) is to appropriately prepare teachers to carry out their critical and challenging tasks, so as to empower them to incessantly improve their professional proficiency and performance. This policy is supported by the principle that teachers are the important drivers of an excellent education system (Republic of South Africa, 2007). The NPFTED policy sets out the

resources to adequately prepare teachers to embark on their critical and challenging tasks and to assist them to constantly grow their professional competency and performance so that they meet the demands of the new South Africa in the 21st century. It, therefore, can be expected that the NPFTED strives to position teachers assertively at the centre of all efforts to develop themselves professionally. The NPFTED admits to the social inequalities that exist in SA schools and acknowledges that schools need to take action directly to such disparities through assisting learners with necessary knowledge, skills and values so that they can realise their potential and aspirations. It is through SBTPD that teachers can be equipped to undertake this task.

1.2.1.3. The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development

In order to meet the challenges faced by SA in teacher education and development (TED), the Teacher Development Summit of 2009 called for the evolution of a new, reinforced, integrated national plan for teacher development (Republic of South Africa, 2011). The challenges involve poor access to TED opportunities for potential and practising teachers, disparities in the supply and demand of teachers with particular specialisations, the inability of the education system to achieve considerable improvement in the quality of teaching and learning in schools, a disintegrated and uncoordinated approach to TED, the unsubstantiated participation of teachers and their unions in TED planning, and the incompetent and poorly managed funding mechanisms. The primary objective of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development (ISPFTED) is to enhance the quality of teacher education and development in order to improve the quality of teachers and teaching. For SBTPD, the ISPFTED identifies four essential requirements, which are: improved cooperation among the role players, a synchronised national system for teacher education and development, sufficient time for quality teacher education and development, and adequate funding for quality teacher education and development (Republic of South Africa, 2011). Research has revealed that, despite policy and numerous interventions, the quality of teaching and learning and learner achievement have not improved (Burton & Johnson, 2010; Department of Education, 2010; Ridley, 2011; Pillay & Saloojee, 2012; Pitsoe & Maila, 2012; Steyn, 2013; Adu & Okeke, 2014). In their study on the strategies for implementing TED programmes in SA schools, Mpahla and Okeke (2015) argue that the general acceptance of these

TED policies and programmes is yet to translate into their effectiveness in SA schools. In support of this argument, Msila (2010), Msila and Mtshali (2011) and Ncube (2013) claim that several programmes and policies fail because they do not specifically consider the dynamics that encourage teachers to engage in neither their own professional development, nor the progression by which change in teachers naturally take place.

1.2.1.4. Continuing Professional Teacher Development

The changing times have brought about changes in educational reforms, new developments in curriculum implementation and teacher practices, and these changes in instructional practice demand improved knowledge and skills and a transformed responsibility to lifelong learning. For many countries and scholars, the topic of SBTPD has become a topical and a contemporary subject and has seen an increase in the level of interest in SBTPD (Murtaza, 2010; Supovitz, Sirinides & May, 2010; West, 2010; Nehring & Fitzsimons, 2011). All professions entail a continuing update of skills and knowledge, and teaching is not excluded (Steyn, 2011). In their study on the analysis of the right to basic education in SA, Odeku and Nevondwe (2014) claim that SA still faces major challenges with regard to teaching and learning. The legacy of the apartheid regime in SA has severely affected the culture of continuing professional teacher development in schools and has resulted to many teachers' poor subject content and to social inequality (Mestry, Hendricks & Bisschoff, 2009), which urgently demands that SA generates more and better teachers (Centre for Development and Enterprise, 2011).

Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) as a policy was introduced by the Department of Education (DoE), with an aim to achieve proper implementation of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and to improve teacher practice and professionalism, thus leading towards improved learner performance (Shelile & Hlalele, 2014; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015; Ajibade, 2016). According to Republic of South Africa (2014), the CPTD system is designed as a policy that represents continuity in teacher development practices with a three-year cycle that began its initial implementation in SA schools in 2014 with the school principals and the deputy principals. The basic structure of the CPTD policy requires teachers to sign-up either manually or electronically for CPTD before the beginning of the three-year cycle. Within the three-year cycle,

teachers engage in three forms of professional development activities, which are teacher originated, school originated and externally originated activities. Teachers are supposed to earn Professional Development (PD) points from the three forms of professional development activities, and each teacher is projected to attain 150 PD (professional development) points across the three forms of PD activities in every three-year cycle (Republic of South Africa, 2014). In a study on the policy and practice of implementing continuing professional teacher development in SA, Steyn (2009) states that CPTD as a policy came about as the demand for development in knowledge and skills for teachers, improving overall teacher quality as well as equipping SA teachers to solve the educational challenges of the country. Steyn (2009) further claims that the crucial aim of CPTD is the upgrading of learner achievement as they prepare for additional learning and being productive as citizens, for the benefit of the whole school community. Mpahla and Okeke's (2015) study on the strategies of implementing CPTD, define CPTD as a continuous learning programme for practising teachers, in order to assist them to keep informed on the countless amendments and adjustments in school processes.

The subject of CPTD as a phenomenon is a universally topical subject (Banks & Smyth, 2010; Boaduo, 2010; Doige & Grooves, 2011; Adu & Okeke, 2014; Koziol et al., 2015). Literature attaches this acknowledgement to the wide-ranging plan of improved teacher education with continuing learning to ensure that teachers stay well-informed with novel research on how learners learn, developing technologies and curricula, as well as placing lifelong learning at the heart of the schooling system for both teachers and learners (Department of Education, 2008; Steyn, 2013). Universally, teachers need constant support through professional teacher development so as to make a distinguishable difference in learners' lives (Hlalele, 2012; Yuen, 2012; Oduaran, 2015; Okeke & Mpahla, 2016; Postholm, 2016). One such endeavour in the fulfilment of the requirement of continuing support for teachers is the provision of the CPTD policy.

The CPTD policy primarily centres on individual learning, since teachers obtain PD points when taking part in activities presented by authorised providers (Republic of South Africa, 2014). As one of the findings in a comparative study on CPTD in Nigeria and SA, Oduaran (2015) reports that one of the similarities is that CPTD thrives on a collaborative culture among teachers. Svendsen (2016) and Postholm (2016) concur that collective collaboration is essential to enhance any CPTD programme. Wenger (2000) describes learning as a connection between individual

knowledge and common experience, which connection, inter alia, includes CPTD programmes. The South African Council of Educators (SACE), the constitutional body for professional teachers that has complete accountability as quality assurers in implementing and managing CPTD (Republic of South Africa, 2007), identified the following challenges regarding the CPTD system (Department of Education, 2008):

- Funding to the CPTD system may not be sustained.
- The CPTD policy may not be communicated clearly or effectively to teachers in schools. An aggravating factor is that, in general, teachers' morale is low (Coetzee, 2012).
- Backlogs in school infrastructure, resources and administrative support, as well as teachers' workloads, may inhibit professional teacher development.
- Providers such as the Department of Education may not have the capacity to support teachers' developmental needs.
- The provincial Departments of Education may not have the capacity to support the system.

In order to mitigate the challenges listed above, the NPFTED (2007) acknowledges that CPTD must concentrate largely on subjects, particularly with limited skills, and not to the exclude instructional knowledge in a range of societal environments. The policy further supposes to improve teachers' abilities in all skills that are taught in schools which include reading and writing. Therefore, this places a burden on SACE to assume the administration of the CPTD system in collaboration with the Department of Basic Education and Provincial Departments of Education and to approve CPTD providers, allot PD points for programmes, enlist teachers' PD points on a SACE database, reward teachers and apply a suitable penalty to those who are unable to attain PD points targeted after a particular number of successive three-year cycles.

1.2.1.4.1. Implications for CPTD on SBTPD

In a qualitative study on policy and practice of CPTD, Steyn (2015) defines effective SBTPD as continuous learning taking place in schools, related to participant's contexts and designed to achieve clear and precise objectives. Further to this, Steyn (2015) cautions that this can be achieved if the CPTD policy predominantly focuses on content, pedagogical knowledge and skills. Therefore, the CPTD policy admits to the importance of instructional knowledge and teachers'

eagerness to deliberate on their daily activities, which is an essential component of SBTPD. In support of this view, in a study on the rurality of CPTD, Mpahla and Okeke (2015) acknowledges that CPTD is a high-level programme designed to enable that teachers' professional skills and knowledge remain up-to-date.

Despite its merits, the CPTD policy and practice has its inadequacies. Steyn (2009) argues that conferring PD points for attending may promote unresponsiveness among teachers and suggests that teachers be credited when the practice has been mastered, applied and evaluated. The PD point system has been a bone of contention among policymakers, educationists and teachers alike. In endorsing its policy, the DoE (2007, p.19) asserts that teachers "who do not achieve the minimum number of PD points over two successive cycles of three years will be required to apply to SACE for re-registration". The inference is that in order to retain a teacher's professional licence, it would depend on the required number of PD points earned by the teacher. However, the effective implementation of CPTD has shown little or no signs of success in a number of schools.

Evaluating the impact of CPTD on teacher practice can be problematic for schools. Earley and Porritt (2010), in their study on effective practices in continuing professional development, claim that schools are confronted with a dearth of suitable skill and insufficient tools in order to perform such evaluations. One of the findings in Okeke's and Mpahla's (2015) study on CPTD in rural schools is that the approaches for implementing SBTPD programmes have little or no bearing on what teachers do in class. The recommendation is that teacher development through CPTD requires that teachers be equipped with necessary attitudes, knowledge, skills and values to be resourceful and thrive in executing their tasks.

1.2.2. The state of teacher professional development in South Africa

In a study on the challenges of developing teacher professionalism in SA, De Clercq (2013) asserts that serious challenges remain to be present in the level and quality of teachers' work and attitudes. Shelile and Hlalele (2014) cite the lack of quality leadership for teacher development. Quality leadership demands that school principals and education managers become involved in the implementation of teacher development so that they can effectively manage the process. In a study

on how ineffective school leadership fails to make a difference on teacher development, Liu and Hallinger (2017) found that often, school principals are unacquainted with their role in TPD; they lack the necessary skills and knowledge and are ill-prepared for the responsibilities that accompany the implementation and management of TPD in their respective schools.

In my experience of teaching in South African schools, I have noticed that teacher unions tend to have conflicting agendas on the issue of SBTPD. For example, on one hand, the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) embraces the rhetoric of SBTPD but does not seek to convert it into actual TPD programmes nor campaigns for teachers' improved professional practice and work ethic. This issue of teacher professional development seems to have been relegated to oblivion and remains a critical challenge for SADTU up to today. On the other hand, the National Association of Professional Teachers Organization of South Africa (NAPTOSA) has shifted its mandate to focus on SBTPD, professional learning and ethical values for teachers.

The SA government, through the Department of Basic Education (DBE), has invested immensely on SBTPD. The DBE Annual Report (Republic of South Africa, 2009) indicates that the government has invested significantly in teacher development with programmes that include Funza Lushaka (a bursary programme presented to suitable students to complete a full teaching qualification in an area of national importance), the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE); (a qualification which has as its purpose the upgrading of qualifications of under-qualified teachers), Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) and Occupation-Specific Dispensation (OSD), with the aim of improving teacher and learner performance (Republic of South Africa, 2009). The Annual Report (Republic of South Africa, 2009) further states that the now discontinued Annual National Assessments (ANA) were introduced as standardised tests for Mathematics and Languages in 2008 and 2009 in the General Education and Training (GET) band (Grades 1 to 9), while numerous support initiatives have been in place for the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations. Botman (2016) indicates that challenges of poor-quality teaching and learning, lack of professionalism among educators, high failure rates and challenges associated with curriculum changes are still experienced to this day, and they all point to the need for continuing SBTPD. With the state of TPD in SA schools looking dire, the proposed study seeks to investigate the lessons that can be learnt from the dynamics of

implementing SBTPD. These dynamics of implementing SBTPD are severe in schools in rural contexts, hence the rural dimension for this study discussed in the subsequent section.

1.2.3. The rural dimension of teacher professional development in South Africa

In Ncube's (2013) study on barriers to learner achievement in rural secondary schools, conducted in Zimbabwe, he found that there was a lack of research on rural education in the context of SBTPD and what was known appeared to be speculative rather than empirical. However, in SA, literature on education transformation has exposed definite differences between schools concerning their location and SBTPD. For example, Msomi, Van der Westhuizen and Steenkamp (2014) argue that, based on their location, huge differences are noticeable in SA schools, insofar as the implementation and management of TPD programmes is concerned. One of the gaps revealed by Islam (2012) is that traditional models of SBTPD, which are generally used in rural schools, are not capable of producing globally competitive teachers. It is against such claims that Burkett (2011) notes that rural schools in SA are faced with contextual challenges of place and distance and that these features isolate and present difficulties for rural schools' TPD programmes. In their study on the rurality of SBTPD conducted in a rural district in the Eastern Cape, Mpahla and Okeke (2015) found that schools in rural contexts seemed to be at the receiving end of the social inequalities that have led to the challenges associated with the failure of the effective implementation and management of SBTPD programmes. The social needs for rural contexts which the SA government has failed to provide involve, but are not limited to, lack of employment, quality education and health, income and infrastructure. The authors further argue that these disparities shaped by the apartheid government in SA left rural schools confronted with challenges, including unsuccessful SBTPD, that the education system was not intended to handle.

In some rural contexts, traditional practices about teaching and learning are a deterrent to SBTPD, for example, the use of teacher-centred methods to impart subject matter to learners (Pitsoe & Maila, 2012). One of the findings in a study conducted by Mpahla and Okeke (2015) in a rural district of the Eastern Cape was that teachers were not motivated to attend TPD workshops because they considered attending such programmes as bringing no change to their traditional classroom practices.

The severity of challenges, which include low pass rates, poor quality in teaching and learning, and lack of professionalism among teachers, all point to the need for SBTPD. This reality exposes the inconsistencies in the dichotomy of rural-urban education implementation of policies, which results in an achievement gap between rural and urban schools (Liu & Hallinger, 2017). Some professional development needs of teachers in rural contexts should be tackled in a different way from their counterparts in urban contexts, because of the unique circumstantial challenges that schools in rural contexts face. Crowded classrooms, problems with student discipline and insufficient resources and facilities are some of the overarching factors that negatively influence teachers' efforts to translate SBTPD programmes into practice, particularly in rural schools (Soebari & Aldrige, 2016). In a study on TPD in developing contexts conducted by Habler, Hennessy, Cross, Chileshe and Machiko (2015) in Zambia, they found that SBTPD programmes may have to be adapted to local contexts. In support of this view, Msomi et al. (2014) assert that schools in rural contexts are disadvantaged and ill resourced, and therefore the implementation of SBTPD programmes is more challenging than in any other context. In their study on teacher professional development in South African rural schools, Kempen and Steyn (2017) concur that TPD should be localised and contextualised.

It was against this background that in this study I focused on the dynamics influencing the implementation of SBTPD in schools within a rural circuit. However, this section on the rurality of SBTPD will be further developed in Chapter 2 of this research report, which dwells on the literature review. The following section details the statement of the problem.

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Research has revealed that the plethora of challenges that rural contexts are confronted with makes it seem impossible for schools to effectively implement and manage TPD programmes (Shelile & Hlalele, 2014; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015; Oduaran, 2015; Ajibade, 2016). Teachers in rural contexts are therefore often not motivated to implement development programmes, since they do not seem to see the influence on their teaching practices (Okeke & Mpahla, 2016). Assertions by Steyn (2011) and Pitsoe and Maila (2012) that teachers, particularly in rural contexts, are still practising old outdated classroom teaching methods, which lead to little or no improvement in learner

performance, further compound this challenge. Similarly, de Clercq (2013) argues that the level of the quality of teachers' work continues to face serious problems. Ajibade (2016) further indicates that those mandated with the provision of support, monitoring, evaluation and overall management of professional development programmes in schools do not execute their responsibilities as they should, particularly in schools in rural contexts.

In South Africa, policies that advocate for SBTPD are in place. The effectiveness of workshops, in-service trainings and seminars is questionable if they do not yield the desired results. Teachers are linchpins of schools and society, well placed at the centre of either educational success or educational failure (Samuel, 2014). Therefore, responsibility is placed upon teachers, school principals and district officials to ascertain that SBTPD is championed as a programme, one that advocates the idea of teachers as not only life-long learners, but as agents of change, and advocates the idea of schools as learning organisations.

Despite the presence of sound policy for SBTPD in SA, the PD of teachers in schools is still far from what it should be in terms of yielding the desired results (De Clercq, 2013; De Clercq & Phiri, 2013; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). Teachers' understandings and experiences as practitioners of SBTPD particularly in rural contexts are still not adequately researched (Okeke & Mpahla, 2016). There is not enough knowledge regarding the quality of school-based leadership that influences collaboration and promotes schools as learning organisations, particularly in rural contexts (Liu & Hallinger, 2017). Most SA schools are characterised by underperformance in key subjects. Based on the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination pass rates in the past five years, most South African schools were underperforming, meaning that their pass rates in these examinations were below 60%, according to the Report on the NSC Examination Results, (2013-2017). Based on the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), SA was the second worst performing country, for Grade 5 Mathematics and Grade 9 Science, in the world (RSA, 2017). Many of the underperforming schools are in rural contexts, which are characterised by huge socio-economic challenges (Christie, Butler & Potterton, 2007; Moloi, 2010). The ISPFTED (2011) prioritises training teachers from underperforming schools and enhance teacher development so as to improve the quality of teachers.

Given this entire predicament regarding SBTPD, the study sought to investigate the dynamics influencing the implementation of SBTPD, including learning from teachers, school principals and a circuit manager.

1.4. CRITICAL RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Having stated the research problem, the research project was guided by the following critical research questions.

1.4.1. Main research question

What are the dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in the selected rural circuit?

1.4.2. Sub-research questions

- a) How do teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understand and experience school-based teacher professional development?
- b) Why do teachers, school principals, and the circuit manager understand and experience school-based teacher professional development the way they do?
- c) What can be learnt from the dynamics regarding the way forward in implementing school-based teacher professional development?

1.5. RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Firstly, my interest in conducting this study resulted from my personal experience as a teacher who has taught in both rural and urban schools for 25 years and witnessing the challenges associated with SBTPD. The complexities and the climate of increasing accountability in teaching and learning have shifted SBTPD from merely providing knowledge and skills to promoting new teaching and learning practices aimed at improving both learners' outcomes and teachers' expertise in teaching. I have observed that, in the post-apartheid era, the South African education system has struggled with re-educating and re-skilling teachers. Many teacher professional

development programmes and initiatives have been introduced and conducted, yet many teachers' classroom practices have barely improved. With the changing curriculum implementation legislations, the majority of teachers still find it hard to change their old classroom practices. As a researcher, I believe that teachers find it difficult to access or conform to teacher professional development, predominantly in schools within the rural contexts, hence the desired results envisioned by the education stakeholders are compromised. The CPTD policy that is currently being implemented in schools is neither implemented adequately, nor is it yielding the desired results.

One of the major concerns in the implementation of the CPTD is the relationship between the IQMS policy and the CPTD policy. Both these policies aim to provide support for continued growth to teachers for improved teaching practice and improved learning outcomes. While there appears to be some common features in the two policies, there are differences between IQMS and CPTD. On one hand, the main objective of CPTD is to guarantee that all PD activities and programmes make a significant and direct contribution to the improvement of teaching and learning; on the other hand, IQMS aims to pinpoint definite needs of teachers for support and development. Avalos (2011) adds that in CPTD teachers learn and develop their knowledge and skills while in IQMS the use of the knowledge and skill that the teacher has is evaluated. CPTD places teachers at the core of the education system by taking responsibility for their own professional development to improve their own classroom practice. In so-doing they choose PD activities that will help them identify their needs. There is an element of teacher autonomy with CPTD. IQMS identifies specific needs of teachers and evaluates their performance with the aim of salary progression.

Secondly, there is a plethora of literature and empirical evidence that have been carried out on the implementation of SBTPD over the years, but there appears to be paucity of studies, particularly in KwaZulu-Natal, in which empirical research had been carried out to explore the dynamics of the implementation of SBTPD programmes. In fact, South Africa seemed to be wanting in the literature that provides guiding principles for what needs to be put in place for effective SBTPD in South African schools, mainly those found in rural contexts. Rather, the focus in most existing literature on the implementation of SBTPD in South Africa is solely on the analysis of the

effectiveness of the current models (Mpahla & Okeke, 2015; Coe, Carl & Frick, 2010). The most particular being the cascade model, which most scholars claim has been overused, thus leaving a comparatively sparse literature on the dynamics of using the other models in effectively implementing SBTPD. Though the practicability of the TPD models was examined in this study, however, the aim was to seek a model of SBTPD that could facilitate the successful implementation of SBTPD, particularly in schools in rural contexts.

The South African system of education has used off-site workshops, in-service trainings and seminars to facilitate teacher development, but this has not yielded the desired results. In support of this view, Shelile and Hlalele (2014) assert that workshops, seminars and conferences are considered the traditional form of teacher development and have not been the answer to teachers' sustained and meaningful professional development, since they seemed to ignore both personal and professional needs of teachers. The authors further suggest that the focus of capacity building for a thriving education system should be on developing the self-sufficiency of teachers within the context of the school where they were presently working.

To conclude, this study was instituted on the confidence that its findings and recommendations may contribute to a new model of SBTPD that would result in the effective implementation of SBTPD with particular reference to schools in the rural contexts. One of the recommendations in Du Plessis' s (2012) study on curriculum change and professional development in SA, was that more research should be conducted to develop an effective model for SBTPD. If this is done with a commitment to positively influence the quality of current and future programmes for SBTPD implementation, this in turn may help improve teacher practice and learner achievement.

1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study seeks out to generate knowledge on how teachers understand and experience SBTPD and the factors that impact on the implementation of SBTPD. One of the pertinent areas in addressing transformation in education is the improvement of teacher practice and competence through SBTPD (Botman, 2016). The central purpose of the implementation of SBTPD is to produce and preserve a culture of teacher professional development and teacher professionalism

in schools. When schools are treated as learning organisations for teachers and a knowledge framework for effectively implementing and managing SBTPD in schools is presented, it will be another significant invention in educational transformation. SBTPD is aimed at improving the professional knowledge bases (content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, conceptual and procedural knowledge) skills and attitudes of teachers to improve their productivity in teaching (Croft, Coggs hall, Dolan, Powers & Killion, 2010). Through generating new knowledge on the implementation of SBTPD, this study hopes to encourage different stakeholders to be cognisant of their positions and functions in the implementation and management of SBTPD. One of the findings in a qualitative exploratory study on professional leadership tasks of South African school principals by Van Niekerk and Muller (2017) was that school principals required empowerment in managing, monitoring and supporting the training and development needs of teachers in their schools. School principals are uniquely positioned to control the implementation and to shape the general quality of SBTPD and will, hopefully, be able to significantly influence SBTPD in four key roles, which Bredeson and Johansson (2000) identify as stewards, models, experts, and instructional leaders, and therefore, need to engage in practices that support SBTPD in their schools.

Secondly, this study seeks to contribute new knowledge to the recognition, acknowledgement and acceptance of the school as a learning organisation for the continuous implementation of SBTPD. One of the theories used in this study, the social learning theory, emphasises that the context of learning becomes situated within teachers' everyday practices, particularly at their workplace, the school. The teachers who are the implementers and the practitioners of SBTPD are the ones directly involved in the implementation of SBTPD. According to King (2016), there is no evidence that shows how teachers implement and put up with new practices and this is related to how teachers conceptualise SBTPD, hence one of the research questions of this study is how teachers, school principals and the circuit manager experience and understand SBTPD. Many view SBTPD as once-off courses or in-service trainings rather than embracing an extensive outlook such as where SBTPD is neither defined by workshops nor trainings, but as the outcomes of such as well as daily classroom experiences, particularly for teachers (Priestley, Miller, Barrett & Wallace, 2011). The school principal's leadership in the area of teacher professional development is important to the establishment, maintenance and realisation of a school learning community. One of the dynamics of SBTPD is that part of the principal's role is to inculcate life-long learning into

the everyday life of learners and teachers (Bredeson & Johansson, 2000), while managing and monitoring the implementation of all SBTPD programmes in the school. In their study on the rhetoric versus reality of teachers' professional development in schools, Gameda, Fiorucci and Catarci (2014) identify lack of support and monitoring and ineffective educational leadership as some of the barriers to adequate SBTPD. Hence the study's intention to encourage all stakeholders to be cognisant of their roles and responsibilities in ensuring that SBTPD is successfully implemented, managed and monitored.

Thirdly, through the experiences of teachers and school principals, the study seeks to contribute knowledge regarding the extent of support and monitoring they require in the implementation and management of SBTPD. Providing necessary support for teacher learning and growth is a fundamental role for school principals and circuit managers. In a qualitative study on designing continuous development programmes for teachers in South Africa, Luneta (2012) found that some of the support required by teachers included school principals' creation of a learning environment in which teachers can seize opportunities, try out with new practices, and apply resourcefulness. This view is supported by Alexandrou and Swaffield (2012), in their study on teacher leadership and professional development, when they assert that school principals have a particular responsibility to support and encourage professional development in all its forms. Poekert (2012) alludes to SBTPD as one of the components central to school reform and school improvement. While concurring with Mangin and Stoelinga (2010) that districts have a much bigger role to play in the improvement of learner performance through professional teacher development, in a study on the link between teacher professional development and school improvement, Poekert (2012) claims that through ongoing inquiry and enactment of high-quality leadership, school principals and district officials can provide that necessary support that teachers require to effectively implement SBTPD.

Kafyulilo (2013) argues that teachers' professional development has been described as a catalyst for school improvement and learner performance in all subjects. Resonating with this view, is Bryan (2011) in a study on professional development in Limpopo Province, the author noted progress in teachers' content knowledge and practice. SBTPD allows teachers to gain a deeper subject knowledge through professional learning communities (PLC) and a culture of a collaborative environment resulting in the most measurable result of investing in SBTPD, which

is improved learner achievement. However, to be effective, SBTPD needs to be viewed as the actual development of knowledge and skills for teachers (King, 2014) and result in new practices for teachers (King, 2016), rather than the traditional sense of inputs and courses that teachers undertake in the name of professional development. King's (2016) qualitative study, on supporting teachers' professional learning through continuing professional development, found that the value of SBTPD can only be effective when it leads to growth of teacher expertise and sustainability maintain change which results in improved learner performance. The author further asserts that teacher professional development is broadly acknowledged as an enabling factor for enhancing learner performance, thereby benefitting both teachers and learners as both are learning and have a restored awareness of the learning process.

1.7. DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

To enable a mutual interpretation, a broad discussion of key concepts frequently used throughout this research report is provided below: these are teacher professional development, dynamics, teacher collaboration, continuity in teacher professional development, rural school context, school-based and teacher.

1.7.1. Teacher professional development

Teacher professional development refers to activities, formal or informal aimed at improving teachers' skills and knowledge, which, in turn, translate to the development of cutting-edge teaching and learning. Sahlberg (2011) defines teacher professional development as an approach that can facilitate the acquisition of new types of knowledge and skills in order to meet the present-day needs of the education systems. Teacher professional development is an act that aims to create opportunities for teachers to gain control of their own learning, expand their subject knowledge, assemble knowledge from previous knowledge and experiences, become comfortable with learning, and develop intellectual confidence with colleagues. In their study on conceptualising TPD, Opfer and Pedder (2011) call attention to school improvement, quality of teaching and quality of student learning as important indicators for effective teacher professional development.

In teacher professional development, teachers learn; Evans (2011) defines teacher learning as a process that results in definite shifts in the professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs or actions of teachers.

1.7.2. Dynamics

The concept of dynamics in this study refers to those factors that influence and affect the implementation of teacher professional development in schools. These are factors which may influence the implementation of TPD through stimulating growth, change and development in teachers and their practice (Gemed, Fiorucci & Catarci, 2014). Some of these factors may include quality school leadership and continuity in teacher development practices (Shelile & Hlalele, 2014), teachers' experiences and knowledge (Okeke & Mpahla, 2016) and collaboration and social interaction (Steyn, 2013). Wei (2017) defines dynamics as the practices, experiences and self-reflections that have a massive role in the type of professional development that influence positive change in schools. Other factors may militate against the successful implementation of TPD in schools. Some of these may include teachers' reluctance to participate (Steyn, 2013) and changes in curriculum design (Moon, 2003). For example, in Bryan's (2011) study of professional development in a rural context in Limpopo, the findings indicated that historical and socio-economic factors adversely affected the professional development of teachers.

1.7.3. Teacher collaboration

Research has demonstrated that teacher collaboration is an essential element for SBTPD (Wermke, 2011; Carlyon, 2015; Svendsen, 2016; Postholm, 2016; King, 2016). Teacher collaboration, as used in the study, is as defined by Carlyon (2015), as collaborative teacher practices of sharing and observing good practice between colleagues which is characterised by teachers working together, openness, networks, partnerships, respect, good relationships and a collective responsibility for pupils' learning. According to De Clercq and Phiri (2013), collaborative practices boost teacher confidence and self-reliance and contribute to a shared culture in schools. A qualitative study on continuing professional development for teachers in Sweden found that the

most important sources of knowledge for teachers are their colleagues. School principals have a responsibility to create and maintain a culture of collaborative practice for effective SBTPD to take place.

1.7.4. Continuity in teacher professional development

Continuity, in this study, refers to the act of being in continuous development through programmes, activities and initiatives that promote life-long learning of teachers in the school. Stevenson, Hedberg, O’Sullivan and Howe (2016) indicate that schools should strive to meet the needs of globalisation and identify appropriate models TPD in their support of life-long learning. As envisaged in the NPFTED, continuing SBTPD is a necessary constituent of a quality inclusive teacher education system (Department of Education, 2008). A good SBTPD programme welcomes teachers’ continuing needs in a changing society. Continuity enables teachers to continually work on their competencies and keep in touch with the latest developments in their field. In SBTPD, it should be widely accepted that the enhancement of professional practices should be a continuing process that lasts for the period of a dedicated teacher’s career. Akalu’s (2016) study conducted in Ethiopia found that, when SBTPD is championed as a continuing programme, it promotes the idea of teachers as life-long learners and as agents for school improvement. Central to King’s (2016) study on supporting teacher professional development, is the view that SBTPD is a continuous process leading to improved teacher expertise, and should focus on implementing and sustaining that continuity.

1.7.5. Rural school contexts

Myende and Chikoko (2014) define rural contexts as those that are often confronted with socio-economic challenges and characterised by limited facilities, illiteracy, disease and poverty. These social problems have a negative impact on the realisation of quality teaching and learning. In underdeveloped societies, schools usually suffer since they operate under demanding conditions. Rural environments usually face multiple financial, material, educational and health deprivations which could have devastating effects for the people (Maringe, Masinire & Nkambule, 2015). When

communities suffer, schools also suffer. Over the years, rural communities have been resilient in the midst of the challenges (Caplan, 1995). Rural contexts, with their rural spirit, have adapted to working with what they have when they construct their teacher professional development programmes. Schools situated in rural contexts need to use all the opportunities presented to them with an aim to improving their SBTPD.

1.7.6. School-based programmes

The South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996 (SASA) defines the term “school” as referring to a public or a private school which registers learners in one or more grades from grade R (Reception) to grade twelve. For purposes of this study, school-based programmes or activities refer to those activities that are initiated and implemented by schools.

1.8. AN OVERVIEW OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This interpretive qualitative study is underpinned by Wenger’s (1999) social learning theory (SLT), Speck’s (1996) and Knowles’ (1984) adult learning theory (ALT), and the theory of learning-centred Leadership (LCL). (Liu & Hallinger, 2017). The eclectic mix of theories is utilised with the perception that they will be useful in the grasp of the dynamics of implementing SBTPD in schools as learning organisations for teachers. Wenger’s (1999) social learning theory focuses on learning as a form of effective and collective participation. This theory argues that learning is situated in social contexts that involve groups of people that are referred to as communities of practice. Speck’s (1996) adult learning theory (ALT) emphasises that adults want to shape their own learning and that their learning and their day-to-day activities are linked and appropriate. Knowles’ (1984) adult learning theory explains how adults learn differently from children. This theory is based on these assumptions: self-concept, adult learner experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn. Learning-centred leadership (LCL) can be defined as a practice whereby school leaders are involved in deliberate efforts to lead, direct, support, contribute in teacher learning and development with the objective of

expanding their professional knowledge, and eventually increase learner performance and school effectiveness. These theories were used as the theoretical lens to explain the dynamics of implementing SBTPD. Thurmond (2001) posits that the intention of studies that use multiple lenses together is to generate multiple questions that either support or refute the findings.

1.9. AN OVERVIEW OF THE METHODOLOGY

This methodology section is a presentation of the research design, selection of participants, data generation methods and data analysis procedures that were used in the study. One of the modes of inquiry consistent with the interpretive qualitative approach is a case study. The study is a case of one rural education circuit that comprises several institutions (multiple cases) that was studied extensively. The ‘case’ for investigation in the study is the implementation of SBTPD. Out of the 16 primary schools in the selected circuit, I purposively selected four primary schools as research sites. The circuit manager, the four school principals and 28 teachers from the four selected primary schools were participants of the study. In this study, data was generated by means of individual face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. Thematic analysis was used to analyse data.

1.10. ORGANISATION OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

This research report comprises six chapters which are organised as follows:

Chapter 1 – This chapter is an introductory chapter which provides the background to the study, statement of the problem, critical questions guiding the study, rationale and the significance of the study. It is in this chapter that I define the key concepts that form the basis for the study. I provide a brief overview of the theoretical framework of the study as well as an overview of the methodology. Towards the end of the chapter I provide the organisation of the research report.

Chapter 2 – This chapter presents an analysis of national and international literature on SBTPD. Debates on the implementation of SBTPD are discussed. It is in this chapter that I discuss the

models for TPD. I further discuss the rural context within which SBTPD is taking place, and the challenges encountered in the implementation of SBTPD. The chapter concludes by discussing some of the success factors for the implementation of SBTPD.

Chapter 3 – The chapter presents and discusses the theories that form the framework that underpins this study; these are Wenger’s social learning theory (1999), Speck’s (1996) and Knowles’ (1984) adult learning theories and Liu & Hallinger’s (2017) learning-centred leadership theory.

Chapter 4 – This chapter presents and discusses the research design and methodology which is positioned within the interpretivist paradigm using a qualitative case study approach. Naturally, it uses qualitative methods of data generation which are interviews and focus group discussions. All issues relevant to research such as data generation, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical considerations are discussed.

Chapter 5 – This chapter presents the findings of the study and the analysis thereof. It presents and discusses the key emerging themes from the findings in line with the critical aims of the study. Generally, the findings discuss how teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understand and experience SBTPD and the factors that make them conceptualise SBTPD this way, based on the data generated from face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions.

Chapter 6 – This is the concluding chapter, which is a reflection on the research journey, the chapter draws lessons from previous chapters to articulate the thesis and provides the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Having presented the problem and its setting in Chapter One, this chapter examines the local and international debates on school-based teacher professional development in general and on rural contexts in particular. Literature review in research refers to the analysis of previous research on an interconnected topic (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Suter, 2012). Baumeister (2013) asserts that a literature review is an important part of empirical research, where new ideas build on previously published work. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) further point out that a literature review is the presentation and integration of the discussions and critiques of literature into a new study. The above definitions suggest that a literature review is a combination of results from different published works which, among other aims, serves to identify knowledge gaps through presenting what is known about the problem from theoretical discussions and prior research. The plan of the reviewing literature in this study was to focus on the dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development (SBTPD) with particular reference to schools in rural contexts. By reviewing related literature, I was able to define the problem in the study (Creswell, 2009; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010), and I was able to avoid unintentional and unnecessary replication (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

This chapter is divided into five broad sections which include the rural dimension of SBTPD, some of the key concepts used in SBTPD, existing models for teacher professional development (TPD), some success factors for the implementation of SBTPD and some challenges encountered in the implementation of SBTPD. The first section discusses the rural dimension of SBTPD.

2.2. THE RURAL DIMENSION OF SBTPD

The concept of rurality is often defined in literature by comparing rural and urban contexts. Myende and Chikoko (2014) define rural settings as areas which are confronted with multiple

deprivations such as illiteracy, lack of education and poverty and which impact negatively on the provision and execution of quality education. Msila and Netshitangani (2015) claim that since the end of apartheid in South Africa, the addressing of inequalities has failed, particularly in the education sector. This is evident in schools in the rural contexts, which lack resources and face most of the challenges experienced in rural communities. Maringe, Masinire and Nkambule (2015) indicate that rural areas face numerous deficiencies that include, earnings, quality teaching and learning, work, facilities and general well-being deprivations. As rural communities endure these and other kinds of lack, so do the schools in those contexts.

In exploring the South African context, the implementation of TPD in rural SA schools is observed as failing to produce the desired outcomes (Department of Education, 2005). In SA, education transformation has exposed major differences between schools. Msomi, Van der Westhuizen and Steenkamp (2014) argue that there are huge differences in South African education as far as the implementation and management of new SBTPD programmes is concerned. Furthermore, Mpahla and Okeke (2015) claim that schools in rural contexts seem to be at the receiving end of the inequalities that have led to the challenges associated with the failure of the effective implementation and management of SBTPD programmes. In rural schools, it seems that the implementation of TPD programmes is more challenging than those in other contexts (Gardiner, 2008) owing to adverse conditions remaining unchanged in rural education (Ebersohn & Ferreira, 2012). Nonetheless, even in rural contexts, teacher development is necessary to acquire new knowledge in instruction, content, skills and changing insights about learners to achieve the intentions of the new education developments, which has the ultimate goal of improved teacher and learner performance.

Pitsoe & Maila (2012) assert that, sometimes the implementation of SBTPD in some rural contexts is hindered by traditional perceptions about education that teachers have. According to Mpahla and Okeke's (2015) study on the rurality of SBTPD, teachers had no enthusiasm in attending workshops as they felt that it brought no change to their teaching practice. Mnisi's (2016) study on PD in the Mpumalanga Province concurs with these findings by claiming that TD workshops rarely helped teachers in terms of what and how they are supposed to do, leaving them at the very same level of knowledge and competencies as they were before undergoing these types of PD programmes, particularly in rural contexts. Moodly and Drake (2016) claim that individualism and

unwillingness to change contribute to the failure of SBTPD programmes, particularly in rural contexts.

The severity of challenges in these contexts, which include the low pass rates, poor quality in teaching and learning, and lack of professionalism among teachers, all point to the need for TPD. This reality exposes the inconsistencies in the dichotomy of rural-urban education policies which results in an achievement gap between rural and urban schools (Liu & Hallinger, 2017). There is a need to address professional development requirements of teachers in rural contexts differently from their counterparts in urban contexts and to tailor-make them so that rural school needs could be addressed appropriately. In a study on teacher professional development in developing contexts conducted by Habler et al. (2015) in Zambia, they found that teacher PD programmes may have to be adapted to local contexts. In support of this view, Msomi et al. (2014) assert that schools in rural contexts are disadvantaged, ill-resourced and therefore the implementation of PD programmes is more challenging than in any other context. Studies concur that SBTPD should be based on the reality of what takes place in the classroom and improving the professional practice of teachers demands actions that speak to the unique contexts and circumstances of rural schools (Department of Education, 2004; 2008; Gardiner, 2008; Wallin, 2008; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). In their study on teacher PD in South African special schools, Kempen and Steyn (2017) concur that TPD should be localised and contextualised. It was therefore compelling for this study to investigate from school principals and teachers how the unique challenges, if any, of their rural contexts affect the implementation of SBTPD in their respective schools.

One of the findings in a study on continuing professional teacher development in one rural Education District in SA was that the implementation of TPD programmes was highly ineffective (Okeke & Mpahla, 2016). It was noted that large numbers of teachers were resistant to shift from obsolete teaching methods to current ones. It was also found that CPTD programmes in the District investigated, failed to tackle the challenges in classrooms and in the larger context in which the teaching was taking place. Despite several interventions through continuing CPTD programmes, research suggests that, in rural contexts, there has been no noticeable changes in teachers' approach to teaching and learning and that has not done much in improving learner performance. (Burton & Johnson, 2010; Department of Basic Education, 2011; Steyn, 2011; Adu & Okeke, 2014). Steyn (2011) and Pitsoe and Maila (2012) confirm these assertions as they concur that there is no

improvement in learner performance because teachers are still stuck in the old stuck and traditional methods of teaching. This study wanted to investigate from school principals whether this phenomenon of teachers being resistant to new methods of teaching in order to improve on their practice was a challenge in their schools and how they dealt with it.

Recent literature on rural education suggests that there is a considerable shift in the academic performance of rural schools in SA through the type of leadership practised by school leaders. For example, Maringe and Moletsane (2015) suggest that a cocktail of different forms of leadership (transformational, distributed, instructional ethical and asset-based leadership), can bring about a sought-after solution, particularly in the school faced with multiple deprivation. This view is supported by Chikoko, Naicker and Mthiyane (2015) who state that there is a strong need for leadership for coping with this change since some schools in these deprived contexts have demonstrated functionality through outstanding learner achievement. In Steyn's (2019) study of a leadership model for underachieving schools in deprived communities, and in Steyn and Heystek's (2018) case study on underachieving schools in challenging contexts, leadership through collaboration is suggested in order to improve learner performance. Boylan (2018) suggests that an enabling factor for improved learner performance is the leadership in teacher professional development that permits teachers to conduct their own TPD programmes in their schools and beyond. The current study investigated the type of leadership that school principals practise in their schools for the success of SBTPD and improved learner performance.

2.2.1. Closing the gap between rural and urban contexts

Compared to urban schools, rural schools have received some support from governments in an effort to improve their performance (Chikoko, 2008; Burton & Johnson, 2010; Adedeji & Olaniyam, 2011; Koziol et al., 2015; Lind & Stjernstrom, 2015). In a study on repositioning educational research on rurality and rural education in SA, Moletsane (2012) argues that, in an attempt to close the gap between rural and urban contexts, and implement interventions for social change, new paradigms and epistemologies need to be adopted. These new paradigms should recognise that people in rural areas have plenty of resources that can be used to develop and implement interventions that will bring about change permanent change in educational reform.

With SBTPD, the introduction of CPTD programmes was meant to redirect the teaching practices and attitudes of teachers from the old and outdated to practices that improve both teacher and learner performance (Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). This move was intended to provide teachers with new knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, relationships, and their thinking, understanding and maturity. One of the aims of the introduction of the CPTD policy was to narrow the gap between the performance in all schools, although rural schools are yet to achieve growth and development (Department of Education, 2011). This study thus sought to investigate from the teachers and the school principals how the situatedness of the schools affected the implementation of the CPTD policy. Gardiner (2008) and Azano and Stewart (2015) claim that this undesirable situation with rural schools results from the neglect of rural school by the authorities, relating to the planning and design of TPD programmes. The introduction of the teacher development policies was one of the ways in which the SA government attempted to bridge the gap between rural and urban education and also balance out the past inequalities within the policies in education, however, Mpahla and Okeke (2015) maintain that the concept of continuing professional teacher development has not been thoroughly researched within the concept of rurality, hence the focus of the study is on rural schools.

In their study on sustainable rural learning ecologies, Myende and Hlalele (2018) indicate that in SA, even after 1994, rural areas continue to experience sub-standard education as compared to their urban counterparts. Nevertheless, the authors' argument is that rural education improvement is dependent on the effort of those who work in the rural schools to make an improvement in the education of learners using the resources available to them. In SBTPD dynamics, school principals and teachers are to utilise their imagination and innovation through social and group interactions (Skinner & Kelly, 2006) to ensure successful implementation. Thus, it was compelling for this study to investigate how school principals and teachers utilise the strengths of their rural ecology to facilitate the successful implementation of SBTPD.

2.2.2. SBTPD programmes in rural schools and teacher engagement

In SA, high quality programmes that are good and that enthusiastically involve rural meanings in the context of education and teacher development hardly exist. The area of teacher development

in SA is inundated with TPD programmes which include workshops, teacher trainings and seminars where there is little actual teacher involvement (Lee, 2011; Steyn, 2013; Ngcoza & Southwood, 2015; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). Stakeholders within schools have a responsibility to come up with SBTPD programmes that will assist in actively engaging teachers in matters that concern the improvement of teaching and learning through continuing SBTPD. Policies are to make certain that the needs of both the school and the teachers in the school as well as their experiences are reflected in all teacher development programmes. Even though all groupings of schools fall under one education system, Pennefather (2008) notes there will always be significant differences in terms of learners' socio-economic upbringings, school infrastructure and resources, qualifications of teachers and shortage of teachers. All these challenging factors are no exclusion to the challenge of teacher professional development encountered by teachers in rural schools. Chikoko (2008) further asserts that since education contexts differ, the real test is to make education in rural contexts as viable, as up-to-date and as advanced as education in many other places. The same applies with TPD; whether in rural or urban contexts, all TPD programmes should resonate around involving numerous activities that are explicitly intended to promote attainment of targeted information.

These factors all strengthened the need for this study to find out from school principals and teachers if their internal SBTPD programmes catered for the situatedness as well as the unique contexts and needs of their schools. This is consistent with Islam (2012), who notes that, habitually, teachers have supported the significance of connecting teacher professional development with their familiar contexts and have declared that many of the existing policies lack reflective provision for their practice which is based on context. In fact, rural context-based teachers' life styles, which involves their unique requirements, have been regarded as secondary as education transformation resulted in the advent of CPTD programmes (Mpahla & Okeke, 2015).

The following section discusses two of the key concepts used in the SBTPD discourse.

2.3. EXPLAINING SOME KEY CONCEPTS

In Chapter 1, I presented a brief explanation of the concepts ‘teacher professional development’ and ‘dynamics’, however, in this chapter, a more detailed and specific discussion of these concepts is provided as they relate more distinctly with the existing models of TPD that are used in schools.

2.3.1. Teacher professional development

Borko (2008) defines teacher professional development (TPD) as a multi-layered method of assisting teachers accomplish their goals, which also includes better standards for teacher classroom performance and learner achievement, and “continuing and targeted professional development” to support teachers meet the challenging new specifications. The importance of TPD has seen schools, districts, and governments in different countries spend huge amounts of funds on trainings and workshops for teachers in a bid to develop them in their teaching career. The aim of TPD is to upgrade teacher practice and eventually enhance learner performance. Duncombe and Armour (2004) assert that effective TPD is practised within the school collaboratively by all the teachers and is aimed directly at learners’ performance. In support of this view Lazarus, Naidoo, May, Williams, Demas and Filander’s (2014) study of lessons from a community project in South Africa argues that teachers require continuing support in their TPD activities that will enhance their teaching practice as well as learners’ learning. In agreement with this understanding, teachers are drawn to TPD activities as they believe that these programmes will contribute to their development and improve their productivity in the workplace and in their actual practice.

Keiny (1994), in a study on constructivism and teachers’ professional development, presents a view of TPD that allows teachers to examine their practice so that they can develop their own teaching theories. This leads to Evans (2014) stating that, in TPD, teachers are not only focussing on learners’ learning but they learn as well. Learning is a fundamental portion of skilled practice and the measures through which teachers refresh their teaching practice without ceasing in their quest to incessantly improve themselves and their learners. In the SA education context, a great deal of evidence exists that indicates that the Department of Basic Education (DBE) is cognisant of the function and importance of TPD in the overall improvement of the quality of teachers as

well as in their learning (Steyn, 2013; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). Resonating with this view, Avalos (2011) defines TPD as the what and how of teachers' learning with an aim of supporting their learners, all of this during their practice as teachers. Learning as part of TPD may take place in several ways, both formally and informally. Teachers learn by way of participating in different workshops and seminars, in their own workplace as teachers reflect in their teaching as well as through observing and collaborating with their colleagues. Teachers may plan their learning so that it becomes a structured occurrence or learning may occur coincidentally as teachers engage in their daily unplanned conversations (Postholm, 2012). This learning is continuing and collaborative as teachers work together. Postholm (2016) refers to this phenomenon of TPD as collective continuing collaborative learning that enhances the professional development of teachers in schools.

2.3.2. Dynamics of SBTPD

The concept of dynamics in this study refers to those factors that influence and affect the implementation of teacher professional development in schools. Relating to schools, Wei (2017) defines dynamics as the practices, experiences and self-reflections that have a massive role in the type of professional development that influence change in schools. These factors may influence the implementation of TPD through stimulating growth, change and development in teachers and their practice (Gemed, Fiorucci & Catarci, 2014). Some of these factors, practices and experiences include continuing collaborative learning and support (Postholm, 2016), quality school leadership, teacher learning and teacher autonomy (Liu & Hallinger, 2017), and the school as a learning organisation (Easton, 2008). These factors will be discussed further later in this chapter. Further to this definition of dynamics, Darling-Hammond, Hyler, Gardner and Espinoza (2017) assert that schools need to create conditions that are conducive for SBTPD to be successful. The authors added to the list of positive dynamics the following dynamics of TPD:

- content focus
- active learning
- collaboration
- coaching and expert support

- feedback and reflection
- sustained duration
- use of models of TPD.

Some factors may militate against the successful implementation of TPD in schools. For example, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) identify inadequate resourcing for PD, including of needed curriculum materials, as frequently exacerbating inequities and hindering school improvement efforts. They also identify inability to align policies toward an articulate set of practices as a major obstruction, as is a non-functioning school culture. In rural settings and in South Africa particularly, Mpahla and Okeke (2015) list historical and socio-economic factors as some dynamics at play in hindering effective TPD implementation in schools.

The following section moves on to a discussion of the existing models for teacher professional development.

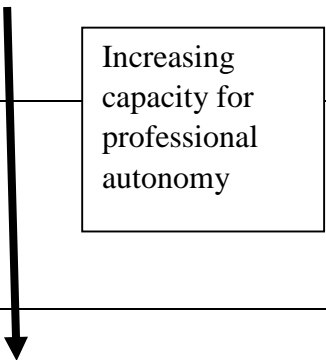
2.4. EXISTING MODELS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

This section presents the debates on local and international literature on the models of TPD. Kennedy (2014) identifies nine models of TPD, which are the training model, award-bearing, deficit, cascade, standards-based, coaching/mentoring, community of practice, action research, and transformative models. Kennedy's framework for the models of TPD further classifies them according to their ability to support the professional autonomy of teachers and transformative practice. According to Kennedy (2014), the first four models are essentially classified as transmissive methods whereby teacher development (TD) is conducted by an external professional aiming to impart skills and knowledge to teachers. Kennedy (2005), Hardy (2010) and Well (2014) argue that the most commonly used of the first four transmission methods is the cascade model. In basic terms, it means TD activities are taught to teachers in a top-down manner usually in workshops and trainings. These models do not encourage professional autonomy (Kennedy, 2005). The next three models are classified as transitional (Kennedy, 2005) or malleable (Kennedy, 2014), and the most important because one specific type or model of CPD may be used to reach different conclusions depending on the projected purpose. For example, mentoring may be used to reinforce

and promote autonomy, originality and individuality, but may also be equally used as a means of professional socialisation to advance conformity to the current situation. Kennedy (2014) classifies the last two as transformative methods since they promote the active engagement of teachers in PD activities. These methods are aimed at improving teachers’ skills, knowledge and attitudes through improved professional autonomy (Gemede, Firoucci & Catarci, 2014; Well, 2014; Carlyon, 2015). Table 2. 1. illustrates Kennedy’s (2014) classification of models for TPD and their purpose.

Table 2.1. Spectrum of TPD models

Model of TPD	Purpose of model
The training model The award-bearing model The deficit model The cascade model	Transmissive
The standards-based model The coaching/mentoring model The community of practice model	Malleable
The action research model The transformative mode	Transformative



Adopted from Kennedy’s (2014) framework

Below I examine each model as guided by Kennedy (2014) and the debates on the extent of the feasibility of the practice of each model for the success of SBTPD.

2.4.1. The training model

According to Kennedy (2014), this model of TPD is the most dominantly used model in schools. In the training model, while the training of teachers can take place within the institution, it is usually an off-site activity delivered to teachers by an external provider. The teacher assumes a passive role in the training model. Kennedy (2014) further asserts that this model is generally ‘delivered’ to the teacher by an ‘expert’, with the outline of the whole programme determined by the deliverer, and the participant positioned in a submissive role. This means the PD activities are externally provided. The training model can be implemented on-site where the participants work but, oftentimes, it is usually carried out off-site. The focus of this model is on coherence and standardisation and there is also a high degree of centralised regulation which is disguised as quality assurance.

Kennedy (2014) argues that the shortcomings of the training model include teachers being placed as passive recipients of a specific content of knowledge. With this model, teachers are unable to identify and implement their developmental needs. There is no connection between teachers and the classroom context in which they work. According to Opfer and Pedder (2011), once-off workshops and seminars, as old-style methods of learning, cannot bring about teacher change. This external provision of PD that the training model cites, ignores the informal, incidental and unplanned learning opportunities between teachers, which play an important role in SBTPD (Van der Klink, Kools, Avissar, White & Sakata, 2017).

On the contrary, the training model fails significantly in impacting on the manner in which this first-hand knowledge is utilised in practice. The training model is deficient of the situated, work-embedded and contextualised learning that underpins effective SBTPD. Despite its drawbacks, Kennedy (2014) claims that the training model is recognised as an effective means of presenting innovative knowledge. In the course of SBTPD, the training model remains consistent with the standards-based view of teacher development in which teachers struggle to demonstrate skills that are specified according to national standards. This was the compelling reason why this study investigated from teachers the impact of the training model on the successful implementation of SBTPD.

2.4.2. The award-bearing model

Kennedy (2014) describes the model as one that emphasises the bearing of awards on completion of a TPD programme. The awards may be in the form of certificates and usually provided by external bodies, for example, universities. Though all teachers are meant to receive or be awarded certificates at the end of their initial training, it is not mandatory for them to continue with the training. In contrast to the above statement, Ravhuhali, Mashau, Kutame and Mutshaemi (2015) state that in order to promote the quality of teaching and learning in schools, it must be mandatory for teachers to further their studies for professional development purposes.

Kennedy (2014) further asserts that with the use of this model for TPD, there are compulsory components of quality assurance and continuity. The external bodies who provide certification act as quality assurers. Klink et al. (2017) assert that continuity in TPD is an important characteristic of an effective TPD programme. The emphasis for the award-bearing model is professional action and classroom practice. Yuen (2012) echoes the above stance as he states that PD needs to be part of the daily teachers' work and must focus on all the occurrences taking place in the classroom

It is against these assertions that the study investigated from the circuit manager (CM), school principals and the teachers the role of the use of the award-bearing model in the implementation of SBTPD.

2.4.3. The deficit model

According to Kennedy (2014), the deficit model is one of the TPD models used when there is an apparent deficit in the teacher's performance. This model uses TPD as a remedy for these perceived weaknesses in the teacher's performance. Well (2014) suggests that it is through performance measurement (PM) that SMTs can measure competent performance and be able to remedy the perceived teacher's weaknesses. However, the main source of poor teacher performance cannot be attributed to individual teachers only, but to SMT management practices, among other factors (Kennedy, 2014). Postholm (2016) supports the idea of collective responsibility. In Postholm's (2016) study on collaboration to enhance TD, he found that the whole school community is responsible for TD, which is a major component for school development. My line of reasoning is

that, in some instances, the reason for poor teacher performance is a collective responsibility which cannot be remedied through TPD only, but also through the collective responsibility of the whole school community in ensuring that schools become learning organisations for both teachers and learners.

Boreham, cited by Kennedy (2014), argues that, the success and failure of programmes developed in schools depends on the collective operations of the school leadership through a sense of interdependency and developing a collective knowledge base. Despite the stated shortcomings, through its emphasis on collective competence and collaboration, the deficit model remains relevant for effective SBTPD. This model assumes that teachers are deficient in the performance of their teaching duties and cannot be part of the solution. The widespread under-performance of SA schools can partly be blamed on teacher deficiencies. However, the same teachers have a great potential to improve. Effective school leadership would entail striking a balance between the two. Therefore, this study sought to investigate the place of this model in the implementation of SBTPD in schools.

2.4.4. The cascade model

The cascade model refers to the method of information-sharing where teachers attend workshops or trainings and then disseminate or cascade the information to colleagues (Kennedy, 2014). According to Kennedy (2014), this model is typically used in organisations where resources are restricted. Training is conducted at different levels, which are national, district or local levels, and is facilitated by external experts. In a study on nurturing the teacher through continuing SBTPD, Dadds (2014) refers to the cascade model as the delivery model which positions the teacher as a receiver and a deliverer of information. Ono and Ferreira (2010) refer to this method as a vertical approach, while Okeke and Mpahla (2016) refer to it as a feedback approach. In their study on TPD models for effective learning, Ravhuhali et al. (2015) claim that this model, which involves workshops, seminars and lectures is traditional, and often gets teachers frustrated and unable to carry out all have been taught. According to Steyn (2013), the act of imposing information and ideas to adults throughout the process of learning results in them developing attitudes that render the whole TPD programme unsuccessful.

Bett's (2016) study on the use of the cascade model for TPD in Kenya, found that as much as it is the preferred model for TPD in Kenya, the top-down approach has contributed to the dilution and misinterpretation of content being covered, resulting in the failure of the whole programme, particularly in primary and secondary schools. Resonating with this finding is Dichaba and Mokhele's (2012) claim that there is a loss and misinterpretation of information as it is cascaded from one level to another. A critique by Bett (2016) is that the cascade model for SBTPD falls short of acknowledging teachers' knowledge, experiences, practice and perspectives. One other plausible critique of this model by Mpahla and Okeke (2015) is that its use in schools regards teachers as receivers of information for their own PD. Regardless of its limitations, Bett (2016) claims that the cascade model is economical in that it can extend to multitudes of teachers within a short period. However, the scope of the effectiveness of the cascade model in improving teacher practice, and in developing their skills, attitudes and values, is not yet established. It is against such claims that this study investigated the feasibility of the cascade model in the implementation of SBTPD in schools.

2.4.5. The standards-based model

Kennedy (2014) defines the standards-based model for SBTPD as a method of teaching and teacher education that is standards-based, content-based, and conforms to a particular system of teaching that produces and practically confirms interrelations between teacher effectiveness and student learning. This controlled base, which underpins the standards-based model, blocks the use of other forms of TPD models. The shortcomings of this model are that, firstly, it is practised at the expense of collaboration because it focuses on individual competence. Secondly, the standards-based model falls short of acknowledging teachers' own insights and critical thinking because of the imposed standards. Despite these drawbacks, the standards-based model creates uniformity among teachers, leading to dialogues about professional practice (Kennedy, 2014). Standardisation in teacher development can only be adopted to create and promote collaboration among teachers, which is an essential element for the effective implementation of SBTPD. It is noteworthy to acknowledge that standards are not only applicable to the entire system of education, as schools can set their own local standards. It was compelling for this study to investigate from school

principals and teachers what standards they have in place for the implementation of SBTPD and if those standards lead to the effective implementation of SBTPD.

2.4.6. The coaching/mentoring model

Serrat (2017) defines coaching and mentoring as management approaches that are meant for the development of staff for productive functioning. Whilst acknowledging that the two concepts are different in meaning, Serrat (2017) indicates that both are purposed to allow employees to realise their potential with an emphasis on skills, performance and building professional relationships. Coaching and mentoring focus on the individual rather than the subject, develop as opposed to enforce, reflect rather than direct and are a process rather than an event. Kennedy (2014) describes the coaching/mentoring model for SBTPD as reliant on a one-on-one connection between teachers. While coaching is based on skills, mentoring on the other hand creates a professional relationship between colleagues. Kennedy (2014) further distinguishes between peer coaching and hierarchical coaching. Both coaching and mentoring form an objective relationship between teachers. The coaching/mentoring model brings to the fore the notion of the novice/experienced teacher phenomenon. For SBTPD, this model promotes collaboration and collegial practices between teachers, which are characteristic of effective TPD. Therefore, this study investigated the place of this model in their SBTPD implementation.

2.4.7. The community of practice model

According to Kennedy (2014), the community of practice (CoP) model encompasses a group of people in which learning for development is not planned but takes place because of the interactions of that community. For SBTPD, the interactions of teachers within a school creates new knowledge necessary for their development. Wenger (1999), in his social learning theory, argues that, for professional learning to happen in the community of practice, there should be some control in the form of transformative practice. In King's (2016) study on TPD to support professional learning, it was found that professional learning communities (PLCs) were reported to be critical in developing collaborative cultures for SBTPD. These PLCs assisted in sustaining quality practice

among teachers. Wermke's (2011) study on teachers' continuing development culture conducted in Sweden and Germany, found that communities of practice created a professional culture for teachers and professional relations among teachers. For PD, teachers became sources of knowledge for one another. When schools utilise this model in their SBTPD programmes, it results to greater participation, control, creativity, and the development of leadership among members of staff. One of Mpahla and Okeke's (2015) findings in a study on CPTD in rural schools in SA, was that collaboration brought about by the use of the CoP model led to regular interaction about teaching and learning which led to a more committed and professional teacher workforce. From school principals and teachers, this study sought to investigate their understanding and experiences of this approach including the factors affecting the utilisation of this approach for SBTPD.

2.4.8. The action research model

The action research model allows teachers to participate in their PD as researchers themselves (Kennedy, 2014). Action research is transformative in that the teacher's role is no longer passive as in the traditional models of PD. Within this model, teachers are supposed to be organising themselves, functioning, reflecting on their work and regulating themselves as opposed to being passive. In a study on school-based collaborative TPD, Svendsen (2016) found that when teachers are involved in their own PD as researchers, they present an affirming attitude towards collaboration and their knowledge and skills are improved through professional practice. According to Kennedy (2014), this model of SBTPD may arguably be the most useful as it permits teachers to look back on their practice and ask critical questions about their teaching practice. One of the findings in an explorative study on what teachers do in their PD, conducted in the Netherlands by Klink et al. (2017), was that when teachers are research-active it contributes significantly to their PD. This model improves professional autonomy and professional practice necessary for effective SBTPD. Pitsoe and Maila' (2012) study on constructive teacher professional development, argue that for SA schools, these collaborative efforts such as the action-research approach are new CPTD initiatives and teachers are used to the traditional top-down approach. This is the reason that Msila and Mtshali (2011) suggest that TPD should be a well-planned process that empowers teacher to be involved from the planning to the implementing phases. Thus, this study investigated the magnitude of teachers' involvement in their own PD.

2.4.9. The transformative model

The transformative model draws from other models an amalgamation of practices and provisions with an aim to sustain a transformative disposition (Kennedy, 2014). He further indicates that the transformative model is not a clearly definable model; it has a scope of characteristics of a transformative practice. The strength of this model lies in its effective assimilation of other models from the collection of models discussed above. There is a higher level of professional autonomy for teachers in the transformative model. For effective implementation of SBTPD, the transformative model is relevant as it incorporates all models for TPD. The transformative model of CPTD fosters collaboration, collegial interactions and relationships between teachers. It is for this reason that Hardman (2011) and Mpahla and Okeke (2015) advocate that this model be school-based, as they suggest that it is of great assistance for the development of teachers. Therefore, this study wanted to investigate how schools incorporate the transformative model in their implementation of SBTPD.

Having explored and expounded on the existing models for teacher professional development, the current study now turns its focus to some success factors for school-based teacher professional development. This is dealt with in the next section.

2.5. FACTORS WHICH CAN CONTRIBUTE TO SUCCESSFUL SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

This section discusses some of the factors that are necessary for the successful implementation of SBTPD. It is hoped that they may contribute to high quality and effective SBTPD while simultaneously contributing to professional learning, teacher engagement and enhanced student outcomes. These success factors include, but are not limited to, school leadership, collaboration, the school as a learning organisation, continuity, support, and monitoring and evaluation.

2.5.1. School leadership

School leadership can be defined as the people, as a practice and as an act. As people, school leadership may refer to the school principal, which may include the other members of the School Management Team (SMT). The other SMT members may comprise the Deputy Principal (DP) and or the Departmental Head (DH). Foley (2013) claims that all leadership is context-bound and cannot function in a vacuum. School leadership is no different and cannot be removed from the context in which it functions. The instructional and leadership practices of school leadership are informed within the context of the school (Reed & Swaminathan, 2014). As a practice, school leadership is defined by Henderson (2015) as recruiting and then managing the talents and energies of the whole school community towards achieving common educational goals. Bush and Glover (2016) define school leadership as an act of influence over all people within the school with the aim of achieving educational goals.

One of the measures of school effectiveness is quality its school leadership (Jansen & Blank, 2014). It is the duty of school leadership to ensure that mechanisms for effective SBTPD are in place and are utilised. In a study on continuing professional development in Germany and Sweden schools, Wermke (2011) found that school governance and school leadership were the main factors upon which SBTPD depended. Quality school leadership offers direction and provides the support necessary for change. A lack of quality school leadership brings about resistance and noncompliance towards TPD among teachers (Liu & Hallinger, 2017). Postholm (2016) points out to the importance of strong school leadership in ensuring that SBTPD successfully takes place and is monitored regularly. His view is supported by Kuusisaari (2012) and Dudley (2013) when they point out that, for the success of SBTPD, school leaders have to lead SBTPD from the front. Subitha (2017) claims that a perfect model for SBTPD will allow teachers to be in control and be accountable of their learning, and give them an opportunity to be led, supported and encouraged by their school principals.

According to Postholm (2016), in most schools, school leadership are oblivious of their role in the professional development of teachers. However, this is not the case in other countries, for example, policy reports in Australia, have identified the principals' role in professional development of teachers (Department of Education, 1990; 1993a; 1993b). These policies regard school principals

as the main team members who influence others by guiding and supporting them through their leadership. In a study conducted in India on re-conceptualising teacher professional development in the Indian context, Subitha (2017) positions school principals as leaders who undertake their responsibility as mature teachers providing support to teachers throughout their learning process. Bredeson (2000) states that there are four divisions where school principals directly influence SBTPD:

- who principals are, what they believe and espouse, and what they do as leaders greatly affect TPD in schools;
- as educational leaders, principals are responsible for creating, nurturing and maintaining a healthy and productive learning environment in their schools;
- principals can directly influence the design, delivery and content of TPD in their schools;
- and school principals, in collaboration with others, evaluate the outcomes of TPD.

Through their direct involvement and influence, Bredeson (2000) further asserts that school principals can be part of the success of the implementation of SBTPD in their schools, and this can be done through:

- aligning professional development with school goals and teacher needs;
- empowering teachers as decision-makers;
- identifying needs;
- developing ongoing planning processes;
- creating dialogues on teacher professional development;
- supporting a variety of learning opportunities for teachers;
- and keeping the focus on student learning.

Successful SBTPD has to be managed and led (King, 2016), therefore, without quality leadership in a school, SBTPD is unlikely to succeed.

It is the main responsibility of school leadership to develop all people employed in the school. Marishane (2016) asserts that school leaders need to have extensive knowledge about the past, current and future circumstances of their teachers so that they can develop them successfully. These include teachers' experiences, attitudes, capabilities and future expectations. This affords school leadership ability to build the capacity of teachers within the school. Building capacity

encompasses empowering and constantly giving support to all employees, allowing them to venture into exploring and pursuing ground-breaking ways of improving learner achievement. It is critical that school leaders continuously build a positive environment and productive and collegial relations among colleagues (Kennedy, 2011). In their study on the role of leadership in building capacity school-wide capacity for improvement, Thoonen, Slegers, Oort and Peersma (2014) found that when school leadership is improved, it tends to have the capacity to enhance motivation and professional development for teachers. Further to that, the authors state that improved school leadership is a requirement for creating an environment for in-depth development for teachers and to enable the improvement of all conditions within the organisation. In carrying out the act of leading, school principals are expected to model, lead, manage, monitor and evaluate the implementation of SBTPD in their schools. A study on the CPD of teachers in Germany and Sweden by Wermke (2011), established that school principals are instrumental in teachers' CPD through direct guidance, support, monitoring and evaluation. Resonating with this view is Ornstein and Hunkins (2009), when they concur that school principals have a duty to act as both the supervisors and instructional leaders, provide direction and guidance and ensure teachers have the skills to carry out the targeted change for TPD. Within the SA context and in rural schools in particular, Lind and Stjernstrom (2015) indicate that some schools are burdened with increasing constraints related to isolation, lack, distance and resistance from teachers. Regarding this concern, Mpahla and Okeke (2015) suggest that the professional development of teachers requires that school leaders attend to these unique contexts and conditions in rural schools through actions. Thus, school leadership is tasked with leading school reform efforts (paradigm shift) that are aimed at developing teachers' convictions and expertise, considering that change takes place through continuing staff development programmes. Therefore, the current study investigated from school principals and teachers, the role of school leadership in promoting successful implementation of SBTPD.

2.5.2. Collaboration among teachers

Kalin and Steh (2016) define the concept of collaboration as beyond simply cooperation. Collaboration means a complete revolution in how individuals and institutions work together to

accomplish specific goals. The authors further state that collaboration means masking the restrictions and limitations among teachers and schools so as to expose lines of communication to allow the sharing of resources for the development of all involved to take place. Katz and Earl (2010) describe collaboration as intensive communication that allows teachers to divulge their philosophies and personal practices for discussion and deliberation.

Pedder and Opfer (2011) view collaborative learning as the sharing of knowledge between those who are involved in the process of learning, as well as the solving of problems to intensify the learning process. In their study on collaborative reform for schools in difficulty, Chapman and Allen (2006), alternatively, consider collaboration a combination of ideas that is formed by teachers to increase their knowledge and skills. Collaboration can be summed up in the following description by Pedder and Opfer (2011), Moolenaar, Slegers and Daly (2012), and Thoonen, Slegers and Oort (2011), when they assert that teacher collaboration is the type of networking that makes way for the creation of knowledge, problem-solving and the transmission of instructional knowledge that precedes deepened levels of learning, professional development, organisational change and improvement.

The age-old practice of teaching in solitude and the restricted time for communication has put a damper on attempts by teachers to collaborate. For example, in SA, Van der Westhuizen (2012) notes that segregation that was created by apartheid left schools in rural contexts faced with problems that the post-apartheid government has failed to address. As the new education system dawned in 1994, it brought about excitement, hope, challenges and new policies. Some of those challenges still exist. Ebersohn and Ferreira (2012) call for attention to action that would reduce the isolation of rural schools, as it impedes rural education development in all sorts of educational aspects, including SBTPD.

A plethora of literature on TPD concurs that effective SBTPD thrives on collaboration (Wermke, 2011; Carlyon, 2015; Kirsten & Wermke, 2016; Postholm, 2016; Svendsen, 2016). In a study on collaborative SBTPD practices, conducted in Norway, Svendsen (2016) found that teachers display a positive attitude towards collaboration for their own benefit and for learner outcomes. As an experienced teacher, I have come to understand that, in SA schools, inter-school and intra-school collaboration for professional development is a rare phenomenon. The lack of collaboration may result from several factors that may include the geographic location of schools, the

unavailability of resources in the schools and the size of the schools, particularly in rural contexts. Mpahla and Okeke (2015), in their study on the rurality of continuing professional teacher development conducted in the rural Eastern Cape Province, indicate that the long distance between schools posed a challenge for collaboration among teachers for SBTPD. Collaboration is not limited to a single school alone; school clusters may collaborate and share expertise to improve teaching practice. Therefore, schools need to develop collaborative practices and a collaborative culture so they can develop collective competence and responsibility for learner outcomes (King, 2016).

A case study by Steyn (2015), conducted in Gauteng on the role of leadership on teacher collaborative practices, revealed that the school principal found it difficult to reduce isolation among teachers and institute a collaborative culture to promote SBTPD. The school principal has a duty to create and maintain conditions conducive to collaborative practices. A collaborative culture in a school is necessary for successful TPD (Postholm, 2016). Therefore, this dynamic of collaboration among teachers enables teachers to regard themselves as resources to each other with the collective commitment to provide education of high quality to their learners. Levine and Marcus (2010) concur that the collaboration of teachers strengthens teachers' teamwork endeavours and their collaborative styles have a positive effect on their practice and learners' achievement. Further to this, Delpont and Makaye (2009) indicate that real collaboration builds functional learning communities among teachers and generally improves the school's academic performance.

If SBTPD is to succeed, teachers must collaborate and form inter-school networks for maximum benefit of both teachers and learners. The aim of collaboration in schools is the development of skills, knowledge and attitudes to facilitate teaching and learning so that learners become motivated and master the subject content effectively (Postholm, 2016). Postholm (2016) further suggests that when SBTPD is practised correctly through collective practices, the whole school culture can be positively influenced. Collaboration also embraces a culture where teachers observe each other and then reflect on those observed actions, thereby contributing to teachers' welfare and job satisfaction. It is essential to note that collaboration between teachers in schools and beyond the school is based on shared responsibility. During collaboration, teachers come up with diverse elements which include skills, knowledge, views and practices and this variety is to be

perceived as an advantage towards effective collaboration, particularly for the professional development of teachers. Kalin and Steh (2016) further state that conditions in schools must be conducive for collaboration and teamwork to exist. In their study on the challenges of collaboration in teacher professional development between schools, Kalin and Steh (2016) list some of the factors upon which good collaboration depends. These include the resources at disposal, the aim of collaboration as well as the quality of commitment between teachers. The authors further state that collaboration is built on mutual, distinct objectives which are supposed to be monitored on a regular basis.

In light of the above discussion on collaboration for SBTPD, Lieberman and Miller (2011) express caution on some challenges that collaboration can cause. They claim that the structure of the schools is still entrenched within the traditional administrative structure and would require restructuring in order to facilitate social learning. Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) also caution against negative collaboration such as: grouping and regrouping of teachers within one school, often having periodic arguments and conflicting views and; forced teamwork, where the superior, most of the time the school principal, forces collaboration among staff members disregarding some of the unpredictable elements of collaboration often leading to disastrous results.

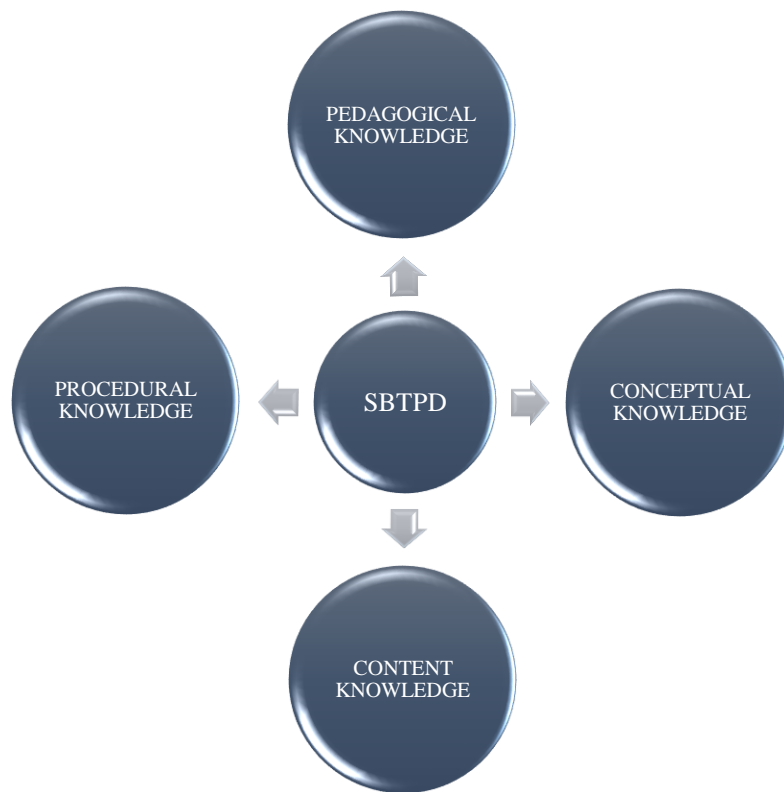
It is important to note that collaborative endeavours become effective when they are directed and supported by knowledgeable shared judgement, and accompanied by mature and stimulating conversations concerning productive and unproductive practices. Collaboration is likely to lead to significant teacher professional growth, but this can be achieved when school leadership is willing to skilfully employ the art of being spontaneous and be focused at the same time. The role of school leadership cannot be overemphasised within the process of collaboration for teacher professional development. School leadership is tasked with monitoring and supporting the implementation of SBTPD through ensuring that constant and professional collaboration takes place for the successful implementation of SBTPD programmes. It was compelling for this study to inquire from teachers how they practise collaboration in their schools and with other schools and to what extent those collaborations help enhance their own professional development and that of the school, in addition to the role of school leadership in ensuring that effective collaboration takes place.

It is worth stating that as teachers are being taught, guided and motivated to collaborate for their own development, there are factors that may simultaneously interfere with the success of the collaboration process; these are discussed in the subsequent section.

2.5.2.1. Some factors that militate against collaboration for SBTPD

There are various dynamics at work that militate against collaboration for the successful implementation of SBTPD. In the context of current research on TPD, Carlyon (2015) indicates that many TPD programmes fall short of acknowledging teachers' already existing knowledge, experiences, practice, perspectives, insights and even their anxieties. The goal of SBTPD programmes is to increase (from a place of what teachers already know) the professional knowledge base (content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, conceptual and procedural knowledge), abilities and beliefs of teachers so that they can teach learners confidently (Department of Education, 2006; Croft et al., 2010). Arends and Phurutse (2009) and Luneta (2012) assert that some of the reasons for SBTPD are to widen the scope of the job performance of an individual teacher so as to increase their chances at career development or promotion; for the development of professional skills and knowledge and to value the individual teacher; while Bantwini (2009) and Murray (2010) add that it is to facilitate participation from teachers and preparing them for imminent change. These reasons for SBTPD could be used as a weapon to counter some of these militating factors together with the four knowledge bases. The four knowledge bases are connected and their existence and practice within the scope of teacher development may result in effective implementation of SBTPD, as illustrated in Figure 2.1. below:

Figure 2.1. Relationship between knowledge bases and SBTPD



My conceptualisation of the relationship between knowledge bases and SBTPD

The implication of collaboration on SBTPD is that PD programmes should not belittle other important variables, such as teachers' past experiences, but rather improve on teachers' existing knowledge. Speck's (1996) adult learning theory emphasises that adult learners bring with them to the learning process, a wide-ranging scope of past experiences, interests and abilities and that this eclectic mix of factors needs to be provided for in the planning of professional development.

One other dynamic that serves to block collaboration for the successful implementation of SBTPD is time. Literature reveals that teachers do not find time to collaborate with others because of their ordinary teaching duties (De Clercq, 2013; Carlyon, 2015; Akalu, 2016; King, 2016; Svendsen, 2016). In a critical discourse analysis (CDA) of the framework of continuing teacher professional development in Ethiopia, Akalu (2016) indicates that teachers are obligated to commit to many courses of action, with little time at their disposal. Yet, the author further maintains that, if teachers were to maintain the pace of and react to current educational pressures, then they have to engage with first-class teacher professional development programmes. The collaborative approach to

SBTPD requires that teachers be involved in many out-of-class practical training sessions (Luneta, 2012), and this negatively affects the actual time that teachers have to spend in class. King's (2016) case study of systemic factors to support professional learning in Ireland found that teachers prefer a time-bound TPD programme so that they can progressively combine new and traditional methods and determine what is working for them, so that they do not have to throw away pre-existing methods. Short, intensive and time-bound TPD programmes are productive and their effects seep through the long-term teacher practice. Another finding in King's (2016) study is that some teachers did not cite collaborative practices as contributing towards greater engagement with their actual teaching practice. The structure of SBTPD programme needs to result in all teachers having clearly defined roles and time frames, thereby removing all fear of collaboration within their classrooms.

An active culture of collaboration in schools results in teachers developing shared responsibility and control of the type of learning taking place and the successes and failures of all learning programmes (King, 2011). The act of collaboration among teachers for the implementation of SBTPD enables them to regard one another as sources of information. If SBTPD is to succeed, the teachers must collaborate and form networks with other schools to improve their teaching practice, leading to better outcomes for learners. Therefore, the current study sought to inquire from school principals and teachers as to what factors affect collaboration for the successful implementation of SBTPD.

2.5.3. The school as a learning organisation

Easton (2008) asserts that today's education demands teachers who relentlessly improve their teaching knowledge and the knowledge about their teaching profession. As a learning organisation, the school needs to invest in the professional learning of their staff members through having a sympathetic spirit by spending resources that include time and finances, using induction into the profession as a starting point.

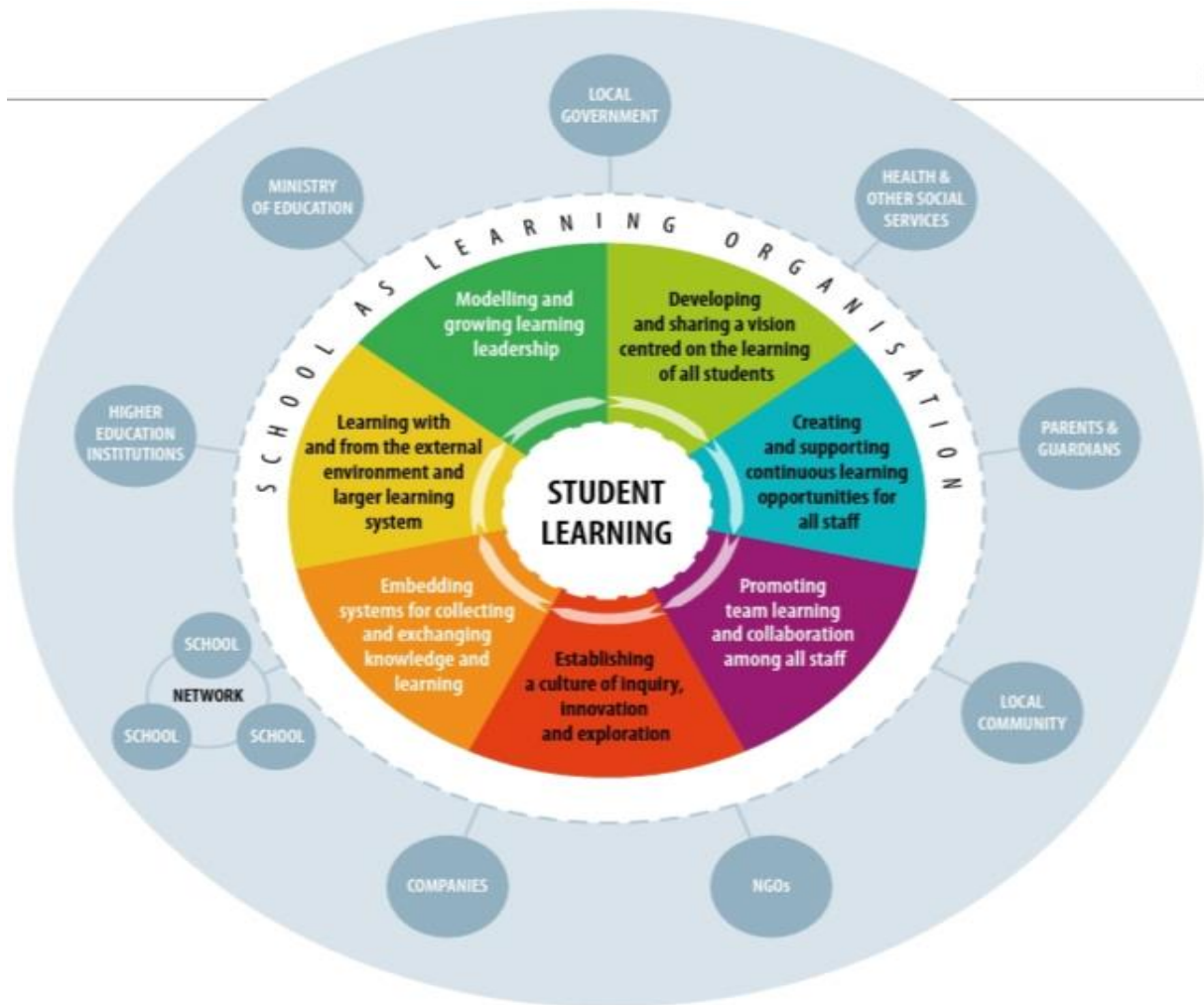
The author further argues that, the school's development plan should encourage teachers to identify aims and priorities for their development and these should be in line with their needs as

learners as well as school goals. Professional learning of teachers succeeds when there is continuous evaluation which is fused into their everyday practice. In promoting and reinforcing continuous professional learning for all teachers, Easton (2008) suggests that the following should be considered for a school in a process to be referred to as a learning organisation:

- All staff engage in continuous professional learning
- New staff receive induction and mentoring support
- Professional learning is focused on student learning and school goals
- Staff are fully engaged in identifying the aims and priorities for their own professional learning
- Professional learning challenges thinking as part of changing practice
- Professional learning connects work-based learning and external expertise
- Professional learning is based on assessment and feedback
- Time and other resources are provided to support professional learning
- The school's culture promotes and supports professional learning.

Easton (2008) provides a holistic picture of what a learning organisation should simulate. A school needs to cultivate procedures, approaches and structures that teaches its staff to act and respond uprightly in unpredictable environments. A learning organisation needs to routinely adapt to new changes as its members work individually and collaboratively to realise its vision. Members of a learning organisation empowers its members to learn to solve problems independently and as a team. A school makes an investment in continuous learning of its members to enhance their capabilities of learning. Figure 2.2. presents seven elements of what a school requires as it metamorphoses into a learning organisation.

Figure 2.2. An integrated model of the school as a learning organisation



Adopted from Easton (2008)

The question that arose for this study was whether and how teachers engage in professional learning and what challenges they face as teachers engage in the induction, mentoring and support of their colleagues. School leaders who are willing to involve the teachers in continuous learning should make every effort to create conducive conditions for such adult learners within their institutions. They support the learning process of teachers and reorganise processes and reshuffle structures of the school to support that learning. Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2017) concur that a school is an organisation that is a system with specific patterns of behaviour for collaborative learning by teachers and collective responsibility for student learning. Figure 2.2. displays a constructed model of a learning organisation in which there are challenging but

achievable shared goals and vision. In their study on professional learning communities in SA schools, Brodie and Borko (2016) assert that PLCs support continuous learning that is in line with what is happening in schools and classrooms, they do not seem to promote improvised meetings and trainings for teachers where learning is not practical. The mere existence of PLCs in a learning school creates space for tackling realistic issues and associating instructional methods and content. In SA, the DBE has begun to advocate for this modern trend of the rise of PLCs in schools, which has the ultimate goal that can be summed up in three words: improved learner achievement. The current study investigated the existence and the effectiveness of PLCs in schools for the successful implementation of SBTPD.

There are growing agreements within the research community that workplace learning leads to effective professional learning, given its authenticity and contextualisation (Wei, 2017). Subitha (2017) conceptualises the notion of a 'school as a learning organisation' to mean that all members of the school community are involved in learning. School principals are the perfect people to develop environments that facilitate collaborative learning between members while paying attention to and attempting to solve the needs that have been identified by the teachers. SBTPD is learning and teachers are social beings who should be consistently learning. Yuen (2012) describes a school as a learning organisation where teachers should continuously learn even after they have qualified. The author further states that SBTPD should begin in the neophyte stages of the teachers' career and be a continuing programme. The purpose of SBTPD is teacher growth and development through professional development programmes. In a study on TPD in SA schools, Steyn (2015) reveals that the mere attendance of workshops by teachers in the guise of professional development unfortunately is void of guaranteeing professional learning on their part. Therefore, in this context, professional development stems from the teachers' need to learn, improve and perfect their professional competencies and teaching practice.

A qualitative study by Steyn (2010) on perceptions of teachers about professional development in South Africa (SA) revealed that teachers wanted to contribute meaningfully to their practice, but after attending workshops and seminars, they resorted back to their traditional methods of teaching. Teachers aspire to be involved in the planning of professional development initiatives that promote their own learning. Teachers need to take into cognisance that SBTPD is a learning process on its own. Ravhuhali et al. (2015) assert that professional development programmes should be

developed, created and put into practice by the teachers and must not be forced on them. The authors maintain that teachers should be life-long learners and planning their own professional development programmes results in self-motivation, which is essential for ones' own professional development. The Republic of South Africa DHET (2015) specifies that teachers are supposed to be lifelong learners, researchers and scholars and this can be done through an effective implementation of SBTPD. This requires teachers to conduct research in particular fields of study, with an aim of improving their individual, educational, professional growth and teaching practice (Ravhuhali et al., 2015).

Wenger's (1999) social learning theory indicates that the context of learning is the individual's everyday practice in the workplace. This individual experience is achieved through shared learning, communication and social connection with other individuals. When the process of learning is executed within a social context, individuals involved in the learning process experience increased acquiring of information since they are learning as a group (Steyn, 2011). Continued collaborative learning for teachers in schools improves teaching practice and benefits both teacher and learner. Without continued learning in the teachers' everyday practice in schools, SBTPD is unlikely to succeed. Therefore, teachers need to be given ample opportunities for learning within their daily teaching routine. This implies the reviewing and reorganising of the school culture to fit in with activities of professional development in the school. School leadership has a duty to make certain that SBTPD does not centre around a specific portion of teachers' daily duties but takes on a broad and an all-embracing approach in developing teachers. The implication of the rethinking of a culture of learning in schools is that there needs to be an entrenched understanding of how teachers' learning can be supported by all members of the school. Social learning in a school also refers to formal and informal learning activities. The new school culture should favour both types of learning to facilitate the effective implementation of SBTPD.

Taking into consideration the discussion on the school as a learning organisation, Leu (2004) compares the previous approaches to the present approaches of teacher learning, as depicted in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2. Teacher learning

Previous approaches	Present approaches
Goal is to have teachers who are competent in following rigid and prescribed classroom routines	Goal is to have teachers who are reflective practitioners who can make informed professional choices
Teachers are “trained” to follow patterns	Teachers are prepared to be empowered professionals
Cascade model: large, centralised workshops or programmes	School-based model in which all teachers participate
Passive learning model	Active and participatory learning model
‘Expert’ driven	Teacher facilitated (with support materials)
Little inclusion of “teacher knowledge” and realities of classrooms	Central importance of “teacher knowledge” and realities of classrooms
Positivist base	Constructivist base

Adopted from Leu (2004)

Table 2.2 displays a well-defined move from a traditional to a modern technique of teaching and learning that could be used to frame SBTPD implementation. On the contrary, literature reveals that TPD programmes do not always conform to this model. By way of example, a study conducted by Liu and Hallinger (2017) in China, revealed that the school principal’s lack of commitment to transformation led to the lack of trust from teachers and to thereby compromising their allegiance to shared learning. To explore the issue of teacher learning through collaboration in this study, I wanted to investigate from the teachers the types of learning they preferred, the sources of knowledge they regarded as important and the sources of knowledge they preferred for their own CPD.

Wenger’s (1999) theory of social learning further indicates that learning is situated in social contexts that involve groups of people that are referred to as communities of practice. Teachers are supposed to be a community of practice within a social context, which is the school, where their learning is supposed to be situated. It is then worthy to shed some light on situated learning and teacher autonomy in the following sections, respectively.

2.5.3.1. *Situated learning*

Situated learning is a theory on the acquisition of professional and research skills by individuals leading to their participation in a community of practice through using those acquired skills (Hanks, Lave, & Wenger, 1991). The emphasis on situated learning is that it occurs within a social context where members work together to try and solve problems. Wenger's (1999) social learning theory and Warford (2011) indicate that the context of learning is situated within the individual's everyday practices in the workplace. Although one can experience learning individually, social learning theory concentrates on interacting and socialising with other people to achieve collective learning. Steyn (2011) asserts that individuals improve in their learning when it is carried out within a social context. Resonating with Wenger's social learning theory is Postholm's (2012) assertion in a theoretical view on teachers' professional development, that professional teacher learning may be formal or informal. Teachers learn on their own, with others, when they teach, through observing others teach and through studying individually and in groups. Learning with colleagues can be a planned or unplanned activity. Postholm (2012) refers to learning with colleagues as collaborative learning. During the learning process, teachers' experiences and previous knowledge are awakened (Warford, 2011). This view is in line with Speck's (1996) adult learning theory, that when it comes to learning, adults present with them a variety of skills, abilities, and knowledge.

However, one of the findings in Postholm's (2012) study was that teachers had little or no desire to learn in their day-to-day work. Though teachers may have a non-informal way of learning beyond their classroom teaching, Hagen and Nyen (2009) argue that excellent teachers can increase their teaching skills through joining forces with other teachers as they take on the responsibility of their own professional development through continued learning. Therefore, this study had to investigate from teachers how they practise situated learning within their contexts.

Recent literature has put emphasis on effective TPD coupled with the school as a learning organisation (Fraser, 2012; King, 2016; Soebari & Aldridge, 2016). Postholm (2012) suggests that, in designing a teacher professional development, the greatest consideration must be on the way teachers learn, even more than how they teach. When a school becomes a learning organisation for both teacher and learner, several changes occur in the process of teaching and learning,

including changes in terms of understanding and principles of teachers (Desimone, 2009). Desimone (2009) points out five primary characteristics of teacher learning that should be considered in order to support and improve their skills and knowledge, and these include focus on instruction, learning through activity, consistency, time period, shared participation or teamwork. When these are observed, it is possible to have teachers collaborate. Desimone (2009) adds that the responsibility of school principals cannot be overlooked in teachers' learning. In line with this view, Macbeath (2007) suggests that school leadership needs to ascertain that the focus is on learning for everyone at the school through creating and sustaining conditions that favour learning. It was compelling for the study to investigate from school principals how they create conditions that favour teacher learning in their schools.

2.5.3.2. *Teacher autonomy*

Kennedy (2014) defines teacher autonomy in TPD, arguably, as being less dependent on research produced by external providers, but, giving teachers the ability to identify and implement their own TPD activities. The success of SBTPD is highly dependent on teacher autonomy. As Ravhuhali et al. (2015) argue, in improving their own learning within and beyond the school, SBTPD programmes need to be conceived, prepared and put into effect by the teachers themselves. Postholm (2012) supports this view and states that teacher autonomy can succeed provided teachers are given the freedom to locate their aims and objectives and also reflect on them individually and with their colleagues. This view is further backed by James and McCormick (2009), who suggest that teachers can use their reflections and those of their colleagues as an opportunity to conceive new ideas, prepare, implement and assess their teaching practice. In Knowles' (1984) theory of andragogy, one of the five assumptions that he uses to explain how adults learn is that of self-concept, which implies that there is a difference between being a dependent and being self-directed in the self-concept of a person and this reveals itself as a person grows and matures. Therefore, teacher autonomy needs to feature in SBTPD programmes seeing that it permits teachers to identify their learning objectives, cite and contemplate on the learning done independently and with their colleagues.

While teachers ought to exercise their autonomy in SBTPD programmes, they require guidance, support, monitoring and evaluation from the school and district leadership. One of Kennedy's (2014) models for TPD that allows for teacher autonomy is the action research model which the author defines as the social context study, as in a school, where the teachers become researchers so that they can improve the activities taking place in the school (Kennedy, 2014). There is greater participation as teachers plan and implement research activities relevant to their practice. One of the findings in Postholm's (2012) study is that in the practice of teacher autonomy for SBTPD, experienced and knowledgeable teachers can be used as sources of information for their schools and for other schools in the development of professional learning activities. What is key, is the extent to which teachers are autonomous in their learning and development as well as how are they supported and guided by the school and district leadership.

When teachers are included in the process of learning, they become part of a dynamic process that guides them in a path of changing knowledge and beliefs and/or changing their teaching methods (Bakkenes, Vermunt & Wubbels, 2010). In their study on teacher learning in the context of educational innovation, Bakkenes et al.'s (2010) findings were that, when teachers experiment and reflect in their workplace and obtain thoughts and philosophies from their counterparts, those are the actual actions that promote their learning.

2.5.4. Continuity in teacher professional development

Preferably, I used the term 'continuing professional development', because it differentiates between enhancing teachers' teaching practice as they continue with their work from any development as completed during their teacher training. This includes the development of teachers during the induction, mentoring and coaching phases. This type of continuing development is required by most professions during pre-service, the initial stages of the professional and throughout the career. The possibility is that in order to master a particular level of achievement in one's profession, development needs to be a continuing process. Ingersoll and Perda (2008) assert that, as technology continuously improves and upgrades, so should every profession strengthen the skills and knowledge of their employees.

According to the South African Schools Act (1996) (SASA), the DBE representatives and school principals are expected to visit schools and classes to observe and supervise teachers' progress with regard to implementation of SBTPD programmes. The school principal's responsibility is to ascertain that all teachers are involved in professional development activities on a regular basis throughout their service as teachers. These views are corroborated by Steyn (2013) who asserts that as teachers interact and collaborate in continuous engagements, that is when meaningful TPD occurs. However, Liu and Hallinger (2017) note, in contrast, that a dearth in quality leadership results in a lack of change, school development and innovation. This deficiency in leadership appears to contribute to poorer teacher confidence and a lack of commitment to continuity in SBTPD. The questions that this study investigated is how often circuit managers and other district officials visit schools for SBTPD monitoring and evaluation.

According to the Norms and Standards for Educators (Republic of South Africa, 2000), South African teachers are supposed to be lifelong learners their subjects and in other fields. The document further encourages teachers to conduct research and reflective studies in educational and professional matters to improve in their professional development. A qualitative study by Curwood (2014) on continuity and change within teacher professional development established that teachers seemed to cooperate and align themselves with school leadership directives because of their continuous involvement in TPD activities and continuous participation in PLCs. A study on the influence of incoherent practices on professional development on novice teachers by Fenwick and Weir (2010) revealed that TPD was highly dependent upon measures such as coaching, mentoring, induction and other related practical activities outside of the classroom. The study also found that a disrupted and disjointed teacher professional development programme resulted in loss of self-esteem in teachers and poor professional expertise. Supporting the notion of a continuous programme of SBTPD, Opfer and Pedder (2010), in their study on accessing continuous professional development by teachers in England, assert that teachers concur that continuous and rigorous professional development leads to more instructional change than shorter TPD programmes. A coherent programme of teacher learning for professional development is more probable in enhancing teachers' skills and knowledge.

When TPD is incorporated into the daily school activities, it is more probable to augment teachers' knowledge and skills and improve learner performance. In addition to this evidence on the

effectiveness of SBTPD through continuity, Hiebert (1999) hereby refers to the qualities of effective and productive learning opportunities for teachers in schools, which are:

- ongoing (measured in years) collaboration of teachers for purposes of planning with
- the explicit goal of improving learners' achievement of clear learning goals,
- anchored by attention to learners' thinking, the curriculum, and pedagogy, with
- access to alternative ideas and methods and opportunities to observe these in action and to reflect on the reasons for their effectiveness (Hiebert, 1999, p. 15).

In contrast, Opfer and Pedder (2010) indicate that a number of professional development activities wherein teachers participate, remain as follows: outdated in form (lack of transformation), short (no continuity), focused on what teachers have to say more than what learners have to do in class (offers passive learning, less or no active learning), and lack of coherence with other aspects of learning (for example, performance measurement of teachers which culminates into some aspects of professional development). This study ought to investigate from teachers as to what qualities characterise the kind of SBTPD activities offered in their schools, how regular are SBTPD activities in the schools. When teachers conceive, prepare and implement their own TPD activities, they also realise the importance of what works for their learning. If teachers continue to participate in activities that do not work for their learning, questions arise about the efficiency of the activities offered to them. This would mean that there is a lack of high quality SBTPD programmes and activities in schools.

Having identified the issues with regard to continuity in the implementation of SBTPD, this study sought to investigate from the circuit manager, school principals as well as teachers, if the programmes offered for SBTPD ensured any continuity, and, if so, how. The study sought to investigate from teachers whether SBTPD allowed for development and provided opportunities for growth throughout their teaching careers.

2.5.5. Support

Studies such as Department of Education (2004a; 2008) and Wallin (2008) concur that, for the success of any teacher development process, any activity geared towards professional development must be practical, continuous, in-service and based on the reality of the classroom situation. Literature, for example, Prinsloo (2008) and Hişmanoğlu and Hişmanoğlu (2010) also highlight on-the-job support as another significant feature that impacts on the implementation of TPD in schools. The success of all SBTPD programmes is dependent on the support from the school principal, who also requires support from their circuit manager and other district officials. One of the findings in Postholm's (2016) study on collaboration between lecturers and schools to enhance teacher development, is that the teacher educators felt that their duty was to render support to the school principals so that they, in turn, can support their teachers. One key condition for a teacher's satisfaction on the job is support from their managers. This statement corroborates earlier studies which discovered that it is the role of school principals to support and encourage teachers in their professional learning (Timperley, Wilson, Barrar & Fung, 2007; Desimone, 2009; Kennedy, 2011; Thoonen et al., 2014), and, in addition, that school principals have a duty to create, develop and maintain a culture of support within the school for the benefit of all members of the school community, for the better implementation of SBTPD. This study had to investigate how support for SBTPD is demonstrated in the different levels of management, from circuit management to the school principals and to the teachers.

In Liu and Hallinger's (2017) case study on the failure of ineffective school leadership to make a difference in rural China, one of the findings was that successful school principals indicated that modelling was one of the effective methods of displaying support and reassurance to teachers for their development. The successful school principals also articulated that clear visions of learning in their schools helped them to offer solid and substantial support towards teachers. Liu and Hallinger (2017) again indicate that lack of effective leadership and continuous support contributes to teachers' lack of commitment, lack of confidence and reluctance to participate in collaboration for teacher development. It was compelling for this study to find out from school principals how they modelled teacher development in their capacity as school principals, and how their school vision assisted them to offer support for the teachers for the implementation of SBTPD.

South Africa's Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) provides an opportunity for teachers to identify the developmental needs for which they require support (Department of Education, 2003). One implication is that, for SBTPD, teachers will have to be responsible for their development. As long as teachers receive all the required support and resources from their supervisors, they learn to be accountable for their development. According to the National Professional Framework for Teacher Education Development (NPFTEd) (2007), support is an important element in everyday school activity, which develops the school's own capacity to respond to diversity (Republic of South Africa, 2007). However, according to Chisholm (2004), it is difficult for teachers to access and receive resources and support near their place of work. Support provided for SBTPD programmes needs to be structured. Guskey and Yoon (2009) concur that support for all TD programmes in schools must be structured and sustainable. The authors further argue that for effective implementation of SBTPD, support must be timely, consistent, and job-embedded. Hişmanoğlu and Hişmanoğlu (2010) assert that support given should consist of realistic ideas, techniques, and resources that teachers can use both in the classroom.

The SA school system has instituted structures which are made up of subject specialists who advise on particular subjects, and are in a position to execute that necessary support and follow-up process to assist school principals and teachers. Furthermore, subject advisors are also responsible for the training, developing and the support of teachers to implement curriculum change in order that they are able to identify their teacher developmental needs (Hoadley & Chisholm, 2005). Ajibade (2016) indicates that support for SBTPD is not limited to educational support but includes financial and administrative support. However, the author further asserts that the issues around financial support and resource materials are proving difficult for teachers to access. For example, Okeke and Mpahla's (2016) study on CPTD in rural schools recommends that it would be appropriate if authorities put in place realistic means of transport to support teachers as they attend CPTD programmes outside of their workplace. This recommendation comes as a result of a complaint by teachers about transport funds to common venues, at which they had to attend workshops, which were far from their schools and imposed financial implications. There was not yet a policy in place on funding for out-of-school travel for CPTD workshops in South Africa, at the time of the study.

Therefore, those who are in leadership should provide an array of financial and resource materials for specific programmes of SBTPD. Mathula (2004) argues that the DBE has the responsibility to

ensure that all resources required for teaching and learning are available in order to support, encourage and train teachers. Supporting this view, Leu and Ginsburg (2011) state that all SBTPD initiatives and programmes require considerable financial resources. It was compelling for this study to investigate how the availability of resources affects the implementation of SBTPD.

2.5.6. Monitoring and evaluation

According to the South Africa School Act (1996), the DBE authorities including school principals are tasked with visiting schools to monitor teachers' progress with regard to implementing the curriculum through teaching (Republic of South Africa, 1996). Teacher development has the ultimate purpose of initiating transformation in schools and classrooms, changing teachers' perceptions and principles and transforming learner performance positively (Guskey, 2000). In order to get positive results from this activity and to ascertain the changes in teacher development, teachers need feedback and monitoring. One of the findings in Mpahla and Okeke's (2015) study on the strategies for implementing CPTD in rural schools was the non-availability of subject advisors in schools for monitoring and support of teacher development programmes.

Smith and Gillespie (2007) state that TPD succeeds when there is a correlation between content and the methods of applying that content in the teacher's most familiar environment. Further to that, the authors argue that there needs to be follow-up activities placed between content and the methods to strengthen that correlation. This study envisaged to explore the monitoring strategies for SBTPD that are supposedly employed by the school principals and the CM to monitor the implementation of SBTPD. Ginsburg (2010) asserts that departmental officials, district officials, school principals, indeed, all those mandated with the monitoring of SBTPD, need to participate in the SBTPD programmes. The author's argument is that their participation would afford them the same knowledge, skills, and commitment that teachers are developing through their engagement in SBTPD programmes as they implement reforms and improve their classroom practices within their schools. Panday (2007) adds that those who monitor should consider the content that is taught and not only the teaching methods. The same view is shared by Liu and Hallinger (2017), when they suggest that school principals, in particular, have a duty to go through teachers' weekly plans, learners' performance records and perform classroom visits on a regular

basis. This could be done in an effort to inspect if their TPD objectives are being met so that teaching could be adjusted accordingly.

Nabhani, Nicolas and Bahous (2014) claim that, oftentimes, school leadership do not monitor teachers' professional development programmes and how much they as such overlook their impact on teaching and learning. One of the findings from their study on the views of principals on teachers' professional development, conducted in Beirut, was that PD programmes not only impacted on teachers' teaching methods and content but also on their motivation and attitude towards TPD. Furthermore, the teachers' attitudes towards TPD were negative because it required more time and effort. The authors further state that TPD is not expected to produce expected results without proper and structured follow through by the school principals or relevant supervisors. When there is no follow-up and support from authorities, it is bound to make PD in the whole school and, particularly, in classroom practices unreliable and unconvincing. One of the ways through which principals can get to know what happens in classrooms, and one way through which teachers can know if they are doing the right thing in their classrooms, is through reports, feedback, criticism and analysis. Therefore, this study had to investigate how those in management monitor the implementation of SBTPD, what structures they have in place and what aspects of SBTPD they actually monitor.

The ensuing section discusses some of the challenges encountered in the implementation of SBTPD.

2.6. SOME CHALLENGES IN IMPLEMENTING SBTPD

In post-apartheid SA, education has experienced some major changes with a view to bring about key social and educational transformations. However, despite the many policies and regulations to transform education, the area of school-based professional teacher development is still confronted with the many challenges that make its implementation arduous. Schools, as the centre where the implementation of SBTPD is expected, are still confronted with a number of challenges regarding the implementation of SBTPD. Some of these challenges include, but are not limited to, lack of qualified personnel to manage and monitor the implementation of SBTPD, professionalisation of teaching, the policy dilemma, lack of collaborative learning, teachers' reluctance to participate in

SBTPD activities, changes in curriculum design, lack of funding of SBTPD programmes and the dearth of opportunities for advancing in the teaching career.

2.6.1. Lack of qualified personnel to manage and monitor SBTPD implementation

In many sub-Saharan African countries, educational policies suffer a shortage of qualified staff to supervise and evaluate TPD programmes, and a scarcity of management personnel qualified in TPD programmes (Tiendrebéogo, Meijer & Engleberg, 2003). According to Maslow's (1943) theory of human motivation, it is not difficult to monitor staff that is inherently motivated (Everard, Morris & Wilson, 2004). In schools, teachers who are intrinsically motivated enable school leadership to attempt to provide necessary support and monitor their SBTPD. Nevertheless, the teachers still require professional monitoring and support to remain up to date with the ever-changing system of education developments. Without a structured follow-up of some kind, TPD can never yield any desired results. Nabhani et al. (2014) claim that the implementation of such practices is the responsibility of management and points directly to the quality and effectiveness of school leadership. In their study on the views of principals on teachers' professional development, Nabhani et al. (2014) found that participants cited the lack of having structured routine procedures for follow-up on TPD programmes as one of the challenges that yields undesired goals in schools. This points directly to the lack of qualified personnel to manage and monitor SBTPD implementation. In Mpahla and Okeke's (2015) study on the approaches for implementing continuing professional development plans in one rural education district, it emerged from the district officials who were sampled, that they were not qualified and did not have any credentials to facilitate and therefore could not deliver on the job. This exposé is confirmed in De Clercq and Phiri's (2015) study when they assert that one of the challenges to effective SBTPD in post-apartheid SA is the abuse by district officials who are not qualified or committed to teacher development and who then opt to delegate their tasks to cluster leaders so that they do not their expected fieldwork of visiting schools.

The revelation that district officials have no qualifications for facilitating TPD programmes in schools needs serious consideration. If such people are not qualified to facilitate such important programmes, the question arises as to how they manage and monitor its implementation. The

question remains to be asked if the correct procedures were followed when hiring candidates who have a duty to develop and train teachers at a critical in the South African education system.

For teacher education and development to bring change into South African schools and most importantly classrooms, change in teacher views and perceptions, and change in learner academic performance, teachers need monitoring and feedback from relevant and qualified personnel (Guskey, 2002). Mpahla and Okeke's (2015) study also found that district officials concentrated on leadership and management matters when they went to schools and became oblivious to SBTPD monitoring since they lacked the necessary skills to perform the required monitoring to support teachers in their practice. Delpont and Makaye's (2009) study, conducted in Zimbabwe on clustering schools to improve teacher professional development, found that poor management and monitoring of SBTPD programmes was a hindrance to its effectiveness, particularly in rural schools. It was compelling for this study to find out how the school principals and the circuit manager monitor the implementation of SBTPD, as well as what structures they have in place, how often do they monitor the implementation of SBTPD in schools under their jurisdiction and what challenges they come across as they perform their monitoring duties.

2.6.2. Lack of teacher professionalism

The Norms and Standards for Educators (Republic of South Africa, 2000) policy document demands that a teacher become a subject specialist, a leader, a lifelong learner, an initiator, an assessor, a motivator and has a pastoral responsibility (Department of Education, 2006). Within the SA context, this requirement cuts deep into the essential qualities that a teacher should have, as a number of teachers do not have the methodology, content and moral belief of what they teach in classrooms. De Clercq (2013) describes teacher professionalism as the concepts professional competence, independence and self-control that teachers display at their work places. De Clercq (2013) further argues that a discourse on the promotion of professionalism in schools has been neglected by the South African Council of Educators (SACE), which is in charge of all the TPD policies, and that is the reason the understanding and experiences by teachers on teacher professionalism have been confusing.

Researchers concur that teachers should be committed to the teaching profession and competent in the teaching practice so that they can make confident decisions when teaching learners (Samuel, 2008) and possess the elements of adaptability, boldness, reflection, objectivity and autonomy (James, 2009). Therefore, this study investigated from teachers the role of professionalism on SBTPD and how this impacted on its implementation.

De Clercq (2013) further states that teacher professionalism has to be strengthened as an urgent matter since this cannot be done through narrowly conceptualised TPD programmes. The challenge is for SACE to collaborate with other professional bodies to administer and supervise the progress of teacher learning, teaching practice and the implementation of quality teaching and learning. The Department of Education has been confronted with the deprofessionalisation of the teaching profession, which Milner (2013) describes as when unqualified and under-qualified teachers perform professional teaching duties to the detriment of learner performance. One of the main duties of SACE has been to ensure that relevant and qualified personnel is employed to teach learners.

In a study on professionalism in SA education that researched on the challenges of developing teacher professional understanding, individuality and voice, De Clercq (2013) indicates that the context as well as the legacy of neglect under apartheid, caused black teachers from disadvantaged schools to suffer from ineffective teacher development, lack of respect for authority, dependence on external assistance for teaching content and methodology. On the other hand, their white counterparts profited from quality teacher development programmes, descent treatment from the Department of Education, quality facilities and resources, setting them for better implementation of teacher development policies, including the CPTD policy. Most rural schools in SA face unique challenges relevant to their contexts. As Mpahla and Okeke (2015) indicate, differences in the provision of resources for rural and urban education has increased in most emerging countries, including SA. Education differences in rural and urban contexts are recognisable and in some schools, educational changes and the implementing of TD policies, is found to be more challenging. Thus, it was imperative for this study to investigate from the CM, school principals and the teachers how the unique challenges encountered by rural schools impact on the implementation of SBTPD programmes as well as the professionalisation of the teaching profession.

2.6.3. The policy dilemma

SBTPD is a result of a myriad of policies that are expected, implemented and enacted in schools. The contexts within which teachers in SA today are working and teacher development is practised, are ordered by elite policies that are implemented in contexts that are not the same educationally and socially. Educational policies are not implemented and legislated within a vacuum, but instead are enacted by individual institutions with their own unique experiences and circumstances related to the educational world around them (Barrett-Tatum & Smith, 2017), which is why they have to be localised and contextualised. Policies are plans that occur before action and implemented through a well-organised procedure. Robinson (2003) asserts that it is important for scholars, educationists and policy designers to consider the environment and the location of rural schools so that customised policies can be formulated according to the CPTD needs for teachers and the schools. A study on community-based teacher professional development in isolated areas in Indonesia by Harjanto, Lie, Wihardini, Pryor and Wilson (2017), the authors identify a one-size fits-all policy as one of the challenging issues to effective teacher professional development, particularly in schools found in rural contexts. This study then had to investigate from school principals as to what impact the rural location of their schools has in the implementation of the current SA CPTD policy.

Moon (2007) claims that the teacher professional development policy is disjointed, inadequate and, most of the time, simply undersized. In this framework the author identifies some significant matters that generally and often go unattended and pose a challenge to SBTPD. Six, in particular, are relevant to reconceptualising teacher education. These are set out in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. A summary of problem areas threatening SBTPD implementation

- the way resources are directed
- the way in which primary teachers use qualifications as a means either to enter other forms of employment or to graduate to secondary teaching
- teacher status, particularly at the primary level, is increasingly problematic
- the form and nature of the teacher education curriculum for those who can gain access to it
- where qualification upgrading courses exist, they are often focused wholly on the ‘individual teacher qualification needs’ without any reference to the impact such an upgrading process could have on immediate colleagues or the school as a whole
- the inability to develop programmes at scale

Adapted from Moon (2007), pp. 360-363

Though there is a firm policy for TPD in the SA education system, some of the key problem areas listed by Moon (2007) apply. For example, the issue of resource allocation and individual qualification needs. According to the DBE (2011), most rural communities are isolated, distant and comparatively poor. Schools in those rural areas are underprivileged and disadvantaged, running short of basic needs which include water, electricity and modern communication strategies. Among these challenges, Van der Westhuizen (2012) concurs that such schools are destitute and lack most of the resources that facilitate teaching and learning. In his study on rural education and education policies, Gardiner (2008) states that educationists and policy makers have never reflected on how the inclusive education policy of the state is designed to meet the dire needs of schools in rural contexts. Consistent with this view is Burton and Johnson (2010) who assert that many teacher programmes including TPD programmes generally remain ineffective in rural schools since these systemic challenges are never addressed. Moreover, in Van der Westhuizen’s (2012) study on earning equity in a university classroom, it is noted that these rural schools are described as lacking in different educational facilities, yet have to produce the same results as well-resourced schools.

It is important to note that improving professional competency of teachers demands activities that are related to the special circumstances of rural schools. What is observable is that the implementation of SBTPD in these rural context is difficult than in other schools (Gardiner, 2008), because the grounds of implementing this policy have not been levelled. This study was compelled to investigate from school principals and teachers the challenges that their schools face as a result of these inequalities and how they deal with such challenges.

2.6.4. Lack of collaborative learning among teachers

Existing key educational transformation calls for intensive and substantial teacher collaboration. In a study conducted in Tanzania on professional development through teacher collaboration, Kafyulilo (2013) claims that a lack of teamwork, constructive criticism, an active staff compliment and an ethos of collaboration among teachers, teacher development is a futile exercise. Void of professional learning communities (PLCs), effective TPD cannot be implemented. Mishra and Koehler (2006) state that any professional development programme should do more than what transpires in workshops in terms of content, methodology and teaching resources, when wanting to develop teachers successfully. It is for these daily classroom practices that teachers can make use of collaborative learning. It was thus relevant for this study to find out what collaborative practices teachers use in schools and how they overcome the challenges brought about by lack of collaborative learning.

Isolation is one of the major inhibitors of growth in teacher professional competence. Collaborative learning results in mutual goals, responsibility, decision making and accountability for all results. In Coe, Carl and Frick's (2010) qualitative research study on continuing professional teacher development, conducted in a rural Western Cape primary school, it is noted that the teaching culture in SA, as in most countries, has been a culture of isolation. The authors further indicate that, teachers are used to the practice of teaching in isolation, and that it has been seen as a normal teaching practice. CPTD programmes have failed to curb the problem of isolation among teachers, therefore collaboration and teamwork is considered as one of the measures that could be used to address the problem.

Consistent with these assertions is the assertion by De Clercq and Phiri (2015) that constructive learning does not take place in a vacuum, but in a social specific context as in a school. Therefore, collaborative learning is an imperative for successful SBTPD. However, Jita and Ndlalane (2009) claim that clustering schools for the purposes of collaborative learning does not guarantee effective SBTPD, as this necessitates specific preconditions. The authors further argue that effective collaborations have its focus on improving teacher performance to increase learner achievement. To achieve this goal, professional interactions within the school should be led by teachers themselves and should be based on their skills, knowledge and a shared culture of collaboration.

However, Kafyulilo (2013) cautions that collaboration should not be forced upon teachers (contrived collegiality), but they should be taught about the benefits of collaborative practices among colleagues. The author further states that teachers should see the good benefits of collaboration from their efforts as they implement what they have been taught about it. The questions that arise for investigation for this study are these: how do teachers collaborate and how do school principals ascertain that collaboration within and beyond the schools takes place, what challenges do the teachers face as they collaborate and how do they deal with those challenges, as well as the benefits of collaboration for SBTPD?

2.6.5. Teachers' reluctance to participate in TPD activities

Teachers have preferred to use a straight, methodical and passive approaches to teaching because of constraints such as lack of facilities and resources, limited education, new changes in the education system and controls regarding the language of teaching and learning (Bryan, 2011). One of the findings in Nabhani et al.'s (2014) study on principals' views on teachers' professional development was that teachers' negative attitude towards TPD was an obstacle to its implementation. According to Nabhani et al. (2014), teachers were not receptive to growth and renewal. A sizeable quantity of teachers was resistance to change from ancient methods to modern ones. Evidence shows that the manner in which teachers' skills, knowledge, competence and responsibility improves, indicates that they are still stuck in the old, passive approaches to teaching that has resulted in no improvement in learner academic achievements (Steyn, 2011; Pitsoe & Maila, 2012).

Another threatening challenge is the changing of teachers' and school leaders' attitudes towards participating in TPD activities. Teachers have to be taught to be taught to avoid these accepted traditional methods and this rarely produces good results for their teaching practice. It is worthy to note that teachers become accustomed to their ways of teaching and learning based on their experience in the classroom. To counter such circumstances, teachers have to undergo timeous, regular and continuous training that involves both theory and practice.

According to Steyn (2013), adults do not want to be fed with information but they prefer being involved in the process of learning. Imposing knowledge and ideas has poor effects and results from the learning process. Kелania and Bowers (2012) assert that motivation is an important aspect of a successful teacher development programme. School principals have a responsibility as motivators to teachers in the space of teacher development. Although teachers are responsible for their own development, but, school principals have a role to play in ensuring that teachers participate in their learning process in the school. Teachers need to possess self-motivation in high doses so that they shift from complacency. An encouraging attitude from teachers towards SBTPD is an essential requirement for supplementary and continuing professional development (Review Committee on Curriculum 2005, 2000). Chapman (1997) proposes that the reason behind teachers' negative attitude towards participation in SBTPD is that they are afraid and they dislike change. Teachers regard change as bringing complication into their work environment. However, the restructuring of teacher education programmes requires innovation through new content, methods, and procedures. These demand a new mind-set and places practical demands from all involved.

Bryan (2011) suggests that the teachers, the school and the community should embrace a continued change in perception, attitude, practice and a fully resourced approach to effectively implement SBTPD. This fully resourced approach should consider teachers' personal styles of learning, desisting from treating them as submissive recipients of help, building towards a particular standard and level of activity and personal growth for teachers. In a study of professional development during transition from the apartheid regime towards the new dispensation, conducted in a SA rural school, Bryan (2011) argues that teachers do not develop in isolation and recommends that schools instil a culture of collaborative learning in the whole school community.

Guskey's (1989) theory of teacher change states that changes in behaviour of teachers comes after a change in attitudes, beliefs and perceptions. Thus, teacher development is required to be

continuing, precise and progressive throughout the teachers' career. Carter and Richards (1999) indicate that approach-changing practices may be demanding and time-consuming for teachers and thus may be difficult to implement for teachers. These challenges may have an impact on the teaching and learning taking place in and consequently negatively affect the implementation of SBTPD. Therefore, it was appropriate for this study to investigate teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD as well as what informs those attitudes.

2.6.6. Changes in curriculum design

Curriculum restructuring in teacher education is a topical issue in many countries (Moon, 2003). The aim has been to make sure that teachers take the shift from traditional approaches to teaching to new forms of teaching. Bryan's (2011) study on professional development, in a period of transition in rural Limpopo indicates that education transformation has necessitated that teachers arm themselves with new skills and methods which they never had or used before.

Teachers are threatened with a multiplicity of curriculum changes, contextual, managerial and administrative challenges in their practice. The changes demand that teachers participate in professional development activities, thus, teachers need to be motivated and understand the rationale behind their participation. The changing curriculum in the SA context has negatively influenced teachers' personal and professional lives. In transforming the curriculum, more focus needs to be paid, mainly in disadvantaged communities, on the actual classroom teaching skills implemented by teachers, specifically methods geared towards raising learner academic improvement. Reconceptualising teacher development programmes into the daily activities of teachers seems to be an effective strategy.

In a study on professional development by way of teacher collaboration conducted in Tanzania, Kafyulilo (2013) recommends that when teachers are involved in curriculum design, it enhances the connection that exists between learner needs, the teaching context and the curricula itself. The argument is that teachers are change agents themselves in this education transformation, who are supposed to be involved in curriculum design. Teachers are the implementers of the curriculum, they are the agents who select which sections of the curriculum are to be taught to learners, they are armed with methodology to impart the curriculum to the learners, therefore, they have to be

involved in the process of designing the curriculum, since it directly influences their SBTPD through teaching and learning. SBTPD has multiple impacts on the teachers' performance in the classroom and thus, the involvement of teachers in curriculum design would mitigate the challenges experienced in SBTPD implementation.

Teachers are the major role players in curriculum implementation, and it is important that they should understand how different elements of the curriculum are combined to effectively enhance learner performance. A study conducted by Moon (2007) on building a new research agenda through school-based teacher development in Sub-Saharan Africa found that, in other countries, curricula remains systematised around the traditional concept of specialties in subjects, whereas in SA curriculum has been translated into an approach based on learner outcomes, with success in the classroom and improved learner achievement at the core of requirements. Despite these significant differences, a curriculum that is adjustable to local contexts, related to teacher professional activities, structured, providing continuous activity for both teachers and learners and promotes collaboration between schools, contributes significantly to the success of in-school teacher development programmes. It was therefore, compelling for this study to investigate from school principals and teachers how changes in the curriculum affect the implementation of SBTPD in schools and how involved teachers are in the design of their curriculum.

Tibbitts and Weldon's (2017) study on determining a democratic future in post-apartheid South Africa through the history curriculum and teacher training argues that, when post-apartheid orientation workshops were conducted in an attempt to usher in the new curricula, there was no attempt to provide the kind of training that would enable teachers to begin to transform classroom practice. Though these new curricula have been properly piloted and resourced, their implementation has not always been carefully thought through. Tibbitts and Weldon (2017) further argue that the stresses and strains of the new curricula over-burdened principals and teachers in largely different educational contexts. In support of these views, Jansen and Taylor (2003) state that using the cascade model in training teachers for the new curricula was short-lived and detached from classroom realities and was therefore predestined for failure. The quality of teacher development in training teachers for the new curricula, were short and impractical (Pillay, Smit & Loock, 2013). Therefore, this study investigated from school principals and teachers how curriculum changes affected the implementation of SBTPD in the schools.

2.6.7. Lack of funding for TPD programmes

De Clercq and Phiri's (2015) qualitative study on the encounters with school-based teacher development programmes in South Africa declares that one of the main TPD challenges is to mobilise all types of resources to deliver relevant and sustainable TPD activities. One of the findings of Mpahla and Okeke's (2015) study on teachers' strategies for CPD implementation, is that there was a complaint from teachers about transport costs to and from places where the Department of Education had organised for teachers to meet in order to facilitate its TPD programmes. The SA school system does not have a comprehensive policy on how out-of-school teacher development programmes are supposed to be funded by schools. Education authorities ought to consider this as a way to fix its CPTD implementation structures and systems. One of the reasons of formulating a funding policy that would cater for teachers attending any TPD activity away from their schools, is that teachers complained about the funds. A funding policy would be the solution to this problem since it is money-related (Mpahla & Okeke, 2016). In an exploratory study on teacher perspectives on professional development, Van Niekerk and Muller (2017) assert that the allocation of sufficient funds for CPTD in the school budget is another important factor; otherwise nothing might come of the good objectives regarding CPTD. Moon (2007) claims that the problem of the lack of funding for SBTPD is prevalent in emerging countries characterised by limited financial and material resources and schools with teachers who are without a teaching qualification or who are underqualified. The author further claims that government systems are aware of the funding problem but are yet to respond. Thus, this study had to investigate from school principals how their out-of-school TPD programmes were funded, how the type of funding they used impacted on the effectiveness of SBTPD, as well as how the absence of a financial policy for SBTPD impacts on its implementation.

Secondly, Delpont and Makaye 's (2009) case study on how teacher professional development can be improved through clustering schools, conducted in Zimbabwe, revealed that, teacher activities are restricted by the restriction of funds. In this case study participants identified lack of funding and shortage of resources as the primary limitation to effective SBTPD. This means that the clustering of schools failed to implement its teacher development activities due to a lack of funds and resources. Clustering of schools facilitates collaboration which is an essential element of effective SBTPD. Thus, the poor funding and resourcing of schools has a negative impact on the

implementation of SBTPD. The authors further suggest that the Department of Education has to own the funding of schools, particularly for SBTPD, to support collaboration and cluster activities, in addition, the authors concur with Mpahla and Okeke (2016) in that an explicit financial policy must have clear guidelines on how the funds should be used to support teacher development programmes. Case studies are not designed to make generalisations to the entire population, but my study took from this case study to investigate from school principals how the funding for SBTPD, or lack thereof, impacted on the collaboration and clustering of schools for SBTPD.

Moon's (2007) study on building a new research agenda for school-based teacher development in sub-Saharan Africa indicates that, in some African countries, those who are responsible for designing teacher training courses, seminars and workshops even talk in terms of venues where these workshops can be held. Within the in-service programmes and the implementation of the CPTD policy, it is a norm, in most countries, that teachers are taken away from schools and classrooms for extended periods, usually for workshops and trainings. The author further asserts that in most cases, their learners are left without a teacher for the period that their teacher is away on training. According to Mpahla and Okeke (2015), off-site teacher professional development programmes do not accommodate needs for a specific teacher, classroom and school. This view validates the point that PD is a contextual phenomenon as it tends to be effective when supported and implemented by specific people in a specific context. In their study on CPTD in one rural education district in SA, Okeke and Mpahla (2016) concur with Mpahla and Okeke (2015) because they found that teachers spoke in one voice that out-of-school strategies for CPTD deprived them of classroom time as they had to leave their learners.

All this points to the lack of funding policy specifically designed for SBTPD programmes. When these teachers are taken out of school for TPD programmes, learners are left untaught and the few financial resources that the school has are spent on these out-of-school teacher development trips. It was therefore, important for this study to investigate from school principals and teachers how they dealt with learners and subjects with absent teachers because of attending SBTPD programmes, as it impacts on classroom practice and learner attainment.

2.6.8. The dearth of opportunities for advancing in the teaching career

The prevailing view is that, during the implementation of SBTPD, teachers should present themselves as change agents and renew their obligation to the ethical purpose of their teaching job. However, not all agree that this should be the end goal of the implementation of SBTPD. In a critical discourse analysis, Akalu (2016) claims that this is a normative depiction of SBTPD and does not clearly paint an accurate illustration of the political dynamics that are at play when TPD programmes are designed to control teachers in the name of development. My line of reasoning is that well-designed and implemented TPD programmes contribute to teacher professionalism and provide opportunities for growth and development for all teachers involved. In a study on troubling the narrative about the importance of teachers, Larsen (2010) found that policy makers and scholars often designed policies that highlighted the practically absolute role of teachers in improving learner performance without considering other important aspects such as their growth in their career. Through SBTPD teachers have been tasked with the burden of resolving school and societal challenges vis-à-vis their opportunity to grow and be promoted. SBTPD does not exist to serve the only the growth of learners and retard the growth of teachers' careers.

In De Paor's (2016) study on monitoring the impact of school-based continuing professional development, the author advocates a constructivist approach to TPD, whereby teachers construct new meanings of what TPD is for themselves. Teachers are then at liberty to examine their views on the perceived impact of SBTPD on their lives. SBTPD should be considered as an approach that teachers can use to improve their own teaching practice, to remedy and improve on strategies that seem not to be working, as a springboard to launch the enactment of education policies and expedite any change that might be beneficial for teachers and their practice.

SBTPD programmes should be planned such that they respond to the needs of teachers and they also prepare teachers for growth and future prospects. Work-based learning, in-service-training and on-the-job support should emerge as a response to the demands of the global marketplace for new opportunities that might arise. Research findings have indicated that teachers become involved in teacher professional learning (TPL) through practice and experience, intending to meet present and future demands (Lieberman & Miller, 2001). However, Zein (2017) indicates that quality PD is not only about meeting the needs of teachers, but, there must be practical approaches

to confront and provide for teachers' PD needs to cater for much more than improved learner outcomes.

2.7. CONCLUSION

This chapter has reviewed literature on school-based teacher professional development, not only in South Africa, but globally as well. In conclusion, school-based teacher professional development is an indispensable element of a wide system of teaching and learning that supports both teachers and learners to improve their competencies that they need to survive in this ever changing world. While the largest portion of the country of South Africa is rural, with some schools still at the receiving end of the inequalities that existed prior to 1994, literature suggests that the existence of high quality school leadership has seen some schools thriving in the implementation of SBTPD and eventually resulting in improved learner achievement. A combination of the success factors for SBTPD as well as sensitivity to the needs of teachers and learners and to the contexts in which teaching and learning takes place can result in successful implementation of SBTPD. Successful implementation of SBTPD requires a clear and structured system that will render a holistic approach in supporting teachers across the professional scale of teaching and learning, teacher learning that is linked with their experiences and enforces their growth and development. The following chapter presents and discusses the theories used in the study.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed relevant literature. This chapter is concerned with the three theories that make up the framework of the study. As defined by De Vos and Strydom (2012), a theory is a set of interconnected and abstract concepts, constructs, ideas, definitions statements, principles and propositions that attempt to envisage and verify a particular phenomenon. This study is underpinned by the three theories: Wenger's (1999) social learning theory, Knowles' (1984) and Speck's (1996) adult learning theory, and Liu and Hallinger's (2017) theory of learning-centred leadership. School-based teacher professional development is learning by teachers within a school context. Wenger's (1999), Knowles' (1984) and Speck's (1996) theories conceptualise differently how teachers as adults, by virtue of being in a social context learn. Liu and Hallinger's (2017) theory emphasise the specific role of school leadership in administrating, managing and monitoring learning among teachers in SBTPD. I connected the three theories to make up the structure for this study since they collectively furnish the reader with an insight as to how schools should exist as learning organisations. Wenger's (1999) social learning theory focuses on learning as a practice for active and social participation. It is worth noting that the adult learning theory is two-pronged and comprises both Knowles' (1984) and Speck's (1996) adult learning theory, which emphasises that adults want to shape their own learning and that their learning and their everyday activities are interrelated and important. Knowles' (1984) adult learning theory (andragogy theory) is one variant of the adult learning theory which is significant for this study and is grounded, particularly, on the view that the teacher is a learner who needs to be involved in their learning and who already carries a lifetime of experiences. This variant of the adult learning theory is discussed at length in this study. Learning-centred leadership (Liu & Hallinger, 2017) is capacity building in promoting learning in all members of the school community. The following sections describe the three theories in detail and how I have used them as lenses for the study.

3.2. WENGER'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

In the social learning theory (SLT), Wenger (1999) focuses on learning as a form of social participation. Learning is a social construct and is a product of a social structure. Wenger posits that people engage in conversations, reflections, activities and other forms of social participation. During these engagements, artefacts such as words, tools, methods, concepts and stories are produced. Wenger (1999) refers to the production of these social artefacts as reification. Reification refers to the act in which relating to and communicating with people is an intrinsic phenomenon, therefore, the author further stresses that shared learning is what keeps the teacher groups together. For meaningful learning in social contexts to take place, there must be a correlation between participation and production of these artefacts. This is because the process of social learning is a dynamic and active one. As time passes, the interchange between participation and reification builds upon itself a social history of learning, which fuses individual and collective elements. The social history of learning is characterised by understanding, ability to engage effectively and the appropriate use of resources accumulated through such history. In the course of time, a history of learning changes into a spontaneous and full-of-life social construction among the participants, leading to the formation of a community of practice (CoP).

A community of practice is a social organisation of people that exist within a wider society with the aim of learning from each other. A team of people who share an expertise or work together forms a community of practice. A community of practice normally comprises more than two people, including members of the same communities knowing one another together with their skills that could assist their productivity (Wenger, 2000). Lave and Wenger (1991) posit that a CoP evolves unavoidably since members have mutual and shared interests around a specific field. A CoP can be formed deliberately with the aim of amassing knowledge aligned with a specific subject or domain. Members develop and grow personally and professionally through learning and sharing information and experiences with one another in the group. A CoP is made up of a group of people who are active practitioners, for example, teachers in a school. Wenger (2000) states that CoPs are the foundation of the larger group which is learning system. Wenger (1998) asserts that CoPs are defined by three elements, which are joint enterprise, mutuality and shared repertoire. Joint enterprise refers to a project where members are united by a common goal which is the essence of their bond. It is a joint enterprise because it is understood and is continually renegotiated

by its members. Teachers within a school should be united in a process of learning and are joined together through the sharing of experiences, skills as well as challenges they come across during the process of learning. Mutuality means that members develop relationships, trust and establish norms for their social learning. Mutuality binds the members together into one social entity. Colleagues are able to motivate and critique each other, a process central to their professional learning. A shared repertoire means that members of the CoP have shared resources, for example, language, routine, artefacts, sensibility and styles. A successful repertoire means that colleagues can obtain these resources and can use them properly for their professional learning and development.

Wenger (1999) posits that the concept of CoP is relevantly applied in education because schools and education districts, as learning organisations, are faced with increasing knowledge challenges, for example, a lack of collaborative practice among colleagues that may affect the functioning of the CoP. The school is portion of a larger learning system and is part of the learning service that happens in the world. By its very nature, learning is a social phenomenon and means that the learner must experience participating in daily life experiences in order to achieve it. As teachers in schools teach, so are they involved in the process of learning. Lave and Wenger (1991) refer to professional development of teachers as situated learning. Situated learning is to do with the acquisition of professional skills by individuals, improving on their research skills and how, through participation, they become members of a CoP (Hanks, Lave, Wenger, 1991). Situated learning has at its core the interrelationship between the process of learning and the social context in which it takes place. This type of learning includes participation where problem solving is part of the learning activity. There are shared values in a CoP. For Wenger (1999), learning is situated within everyday work practices. In situated learning, prior knowledge is connected with contextual learning, as learning occurs. Echoing Wenger's views are Wenzlaff and Wieseman (2004), who state that teachers learn in class while they are teaching, however, they are situated in other opportunities where learning takes place, some of which are workshops, trainings, information-sharing sessions, meetings and teacher professional discussions. The scholars further posit that, for meaningful situated learning to occur, teachers need to form and participate in CoPs. Therefore, for the successful implementation of SBTPD, teachers should form CoPs in their organisations.

CoPs do not operate in an island, they involve other groups and structures in a wider system. Wenger (1999) asserts that CoPs may involve other establishments such as schools, societies, organisations and professional associations. The existence of a CoP is dependent on the members and their contributions and what they can benefit from the CoP. The goal of the CoP is to offer opportunities for members to share their practices, learn from and support each other. Wenger identifies three levels of participation of members in a CoP. The first level is the core group, which participates strongly in the CoP using conversations and developments, taking the leadership role in guiding other members. The second level is the group which attends regularly. The third level of participation is the marginal group, who are submissive participants and are still learning from the intensity of their involvement. Wenger indicates that the third group stands for the majority of the population. CoPs provide prospects for discussions where members share and appreciate being together and producing results for the benefit of the group. In SBTPD, CoPs should offer a renewed standpoint on learning and education largely, as teachers engage in collaborative practices to enhance learning for themselves and for their learners. Wenger (1999) suggests that CoPs are the starting point in an attempt to influence the role of educational institutions and the design of learning opportunities regarding SBTPD. Wenger's conceptualisation of CoPs resonates with collaboration, one of the essentials of effective SBTPD. Through Wenger's theory, teachers in schools can be afforded an opportunity to collaborate with each other. Effective implementation of SBTPD demands collaboration. Desimone (2009) refers to the concept of collaboration as collective participation and asserts that it takes place when there is a joint attendance of teacher professional development programmes by teachers from the same school in order to gather professional knowledge and improve learner achievement. Professional knowledge forms an integrated set of knowledge and skills, which members engage on achieving and learning how to use them (Kirkpatrick & McLaughlan, 2000). Whitworth and Chiu (2015) posit that collective participation, as in CoPs, allows teachers to develop professional learning communities (PLC) and to discuss matters relating to curriculum design, changes and implementation.

Wenger's (1999) social learning theory delves into the deep threads of social participation which include connectivity among group members. This involves brokering relationships between teachers, as the need to talk and help each other develop and being connected to one another is a necessary element of effective SBTPD. Carlyon (2015) explores the concept of collaboration in CoPs. Collaboration enables teachers to share their existing knowledge, experiences, practice,

perspectives, insights and even their anxieties. For their own benefit and for improving learner outcomes, teachers are required to display an attitude leaning towards collaboration. To enhance professional development in schools, Postholm (2016) suggests that collective collaborative learning should be part of the school culture. Resonating with Wenger's concept of situated learning, Postholm (2016) asserts that the school should be a space where the whole school community works collaboratively for school development. One of the arguments in De Clercq's (2013) study on professionalism in South African education is that SBTPD is being monopolised by the Department of Education and contested by teacher unions with their conflicting agendas. As a result, one of the conclusions is that collaboration should not be between teachers only, but also between independent professional teacher associations to strengthen the entire education system. Therefore, in the SA education system, strengthening SBTPD is a matter of priority (De Clercq, 2013). Meijs, Prinsen and de Laat (2017) claim that teachers are already social learning minded and generally like to explain and share their knowledge, they also interact through collaboration, for example asking for and giving advice to their colleagues. Concurrently, they aspire to be able to plan, regulate, manage, implement and be in complete control of their development, particularly the results of their PD. The concept of 'learning' is an action word that requires teachers to be at the centre of their own PD. There is a shift in how PD should be conducted, teachers need to learn in schools, form groups for their own development, and not depend on seminars and workshops which are not even conducted in their schools to develop them (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Wenger, Trayner, and de Laat (2011) identify two ways in which learning may take place in schools among teachers for SBTPD, through CoPs and learning networks. While CoPs are concerned with mutual and reciprocal interactions developed around a common theme, learning networks focus on connections among teachers, and there must be continuous communication, mutual problem-solving as well as the building and continuous production of knowledge. Ideally, a combination of both processes works for SBTPD, but Wenger et al. (2011), as proponents for SLT, prefer social learning for teacher development.

In a qualitative study on social learning as a means to teacher professional development, Meijs et al. (2017) indicate that social learning is deemed an approach to learning within the field of PD that may result in innovation and compels the teacher to actively participate in obtaining knowledge. This view is consistent with Ravhuhali et al.'s (2015) view that successful PD is owned by the teachers themselves. Since SBTPD addresses teachers' learning and teachers' own work,

Ravhuhali et al. (2015) maintain that teachers should be part of their own learning. A plethora of research studies concur that collaboration is an essential element of the successful implementation of SBTPD (Postholm, 2012; Yuen, 2012; Carlyon, 2015; Svendsen, 2016; Postholm, 2016). In SLT, successful collaboration demands that teachers interact with others.

In their study on teacher professional learning as a social practice, Nolan and Molla (2017) indicate that, for the SLT to be relevant for SBTPD, it needs to be associated with teacher professional learning for teacher practice only. When SLT is embedded within teachers' pedagogic work, it results in relevant thinking, improved knowledge, skills and continuing improvement of teachers' knowledge and practice.

Reciprocated learning has been communicated as a beneficial means to TPD and is considered a valued complement to formal SBTPD (Lieberman & Wood, 2002a, 2002b; Dresner & Worley, 2006; Meijs et al., 2017). In SLT, teachers learn from each other through observation, imitating and modelling. Learning involves cognitive and intellectual stimulation that occurs within a social context, therefore, it is possible for teachers to participate in SBTPD that occurs in a social context, for example, the PLCs. SBTPD can be formal or informal and teachers are given an opportunity to observe one another in the classroom as well as observe behaviours and their consequences, for example, in Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) or peer teaching and learning to observe a particular instructional strategy. As teachers learn for the purposes of professional development, they can use the learning results by making observations, extracting information from those observations and using that information to draw conclusions or make decisions that will yield positive results for learners.

SLT seems to present a suitable theoretical framework that integrates cognitive and social aspects of professional learning. SLT is responsible for the development of teachers' educational knowledge through ways that have been developed through social educational processes. Through the SLT, teachers obtain an opportunity to define concepts and communicate knowledge and to work together, improve on that knowledge and seek out advice when there are problems. When teachers know that they have to plan and implement their own PD, their focus shifts from the traditional ways of being developed, for example, workshops and trainings, and they focus on building and being their own source of learning (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). In their study on re-thinking CPD through changing representations and position in professional practices, Boud and

Hager (2012) argue that learning is regular part of working and it helps teachers to solve their daily problems and challenges. The authors further assert that additional learning takes place when they rely on their colleagues as resources over and above the official programmes. This argument and assertion are corroborated by Lovett and Cameron (2011) who, in their study on schools as professional learning groups for novice teachers, assert that the largest portion of teachers and school principals' PD derives from their experiences with their learners, colleagues, and their daily interactions.

Lieberman and Pointer Mace (2010) claim that teachers have not always agreed to the outdated styles of SBTPD that include workshops (on-site and off-site), seminars and training sessions. In describing social learning as a new kind of learning within the field of TPD, Meijs et al. (2017) further think that it could result into innovation and improved on-the-job learning. Currently, knowledge that is more specific can be distributed to people without having to actually physically meet. The use of computers and other related devices for social learning is recommended. Duguid (2005) refers to Networks of Practice (NoPs) where data can be disseminated to various people without meeting them. The use of e-mails and other social media platforms can enhance social learning and increase the social capital (more teacher participants) leading to sharing of knowledge and collaborations beyond the confines of a particular school.

SBTPD is about teachers learning as they engage in teaching practice. In SLT, effective learning is best achieved through collaboration. Hunzicker (2011) indicates that collaboration in SBTPD makes teachers to engage in active learning and that makes SBTPD effective. Learning becomes active when teachers participate physically, cognitively and emotionally through discussions. When teachers solve problems together, listen to each other, take each other's ideas and views, then learning becomes an interactive process. Thus, SLT is appropriate to frame this study since it advocates for learning together among teachers. Interaction means that new skills are learned as members of a learning group generate new knowledge and share it among themselves and with others (Earl & Katz, 2007), and improved teaching practice leading to school effectiveness. SLT is a practical theory for SBTPD in that teachers can solicit assistance and support from one other and exercise compassion and consideration for one another, as they learn.

Wenger (1999) posits that, in SLT, social learning occurs spontaneously but mostly during practice and more deliberately during self-planned meetings by teachers. In Chapter 2 of this study (see

section 2.5.3.2), Kennedy (2014) asserts that teacher autonomy in TPD relates to reallocating authority and control in the direction of teachers through identifying and implementing their own SBTPD activities. This assertion is in agreement with Meijs et al. (2017), as they postulate that, in social learning, teachers hold more authority or self-reliance.

Ryan and Deci (2000), in the Self Determination Theory, assert that autonomy is one aspect that can be used for inciting motivation. One of the findings in Hunzicker's (2011) study on a checklist for effective professional development for teachers is that, when teachers are given liberty to control their PD, they also thrive in their work. Autonomy creates an environment in which teachers can explore, exchange information and test that information, and De Jong and Den Hartog (2008) assert that this leads to more innovative behaviour and productivity. Darling-Hammond, Chung-Wei, Andree, Richardson and Orphanos (2009) concur that, when teachers are involved in educational decision-making and exercise professional autonomy over their SBTPD programmes and activities, it results in stable and productive CoPs and PLCs.

In this study, I investigated the degree to which participants were actively involved in communities of practice. I also investigated the extent to which they networked and collaborated within the schools and with other colleagues in other schools. In the actual teaching work, there are opportunities for teachers to learn in their social circles, such as subject meetings and clusters with other schools. Some of the learning that occurs in a social context is not formal but consists of teachers learning from others through observation, imitating and modelling. For example, some teachers learn as they observe, imitate and model their school principals and some school management team (SMT) members as they teach learners, conduct meetings and as they lead them in school. Overall, in this study I sought to answer this question: Do the schools under study use CoPs with regard to SBTPD implementation?

Adults learn differently from children and as teachers in schools, they are involved in learning as they conduct teacher professional development (TPD) programmes. The following section discusses adult learning theory as a lens to interpret how teachers learn and develop themselves.

3.3. ADULT LEARNING THEORY

3.3.1. Speck's adult learning theory

In the theory of adult learning (ALT), Speck (1996) emphasises that adult learners want to shape their own learning and want to consider that their professional development learning and their day-to-day activities are related and important. For effective SBTPD, Speck's theory provides the following 'checklist':

- When adults regard the learning purpose as important, relevant and genuine, they commit to the learning process. How that learning is used in the 'real world' is central and relevant to the adult learner. The real world is the actual teaching practice. SBTPD activities need to be applied in the physical teaching and learning activities in the school. Yuen (2012) found that there is a need for situated, work embedded and contextual learning in SBTPD. Teachers are keen to learn within the school, if the learning is related to their work, will develop them and will assist them improve on their teaching practice.
- Adults need to create and plan their learning activities and will oppose any learning that criticises their capabilities. SBTPD needs to give teachers authority over the planning and implementation of the activities for their own learning. Teachers want to be involved in the planning of their own professional development activities. Professional development should be the responsibility of teachers, the implementers, to promote their learning (Ravhuhali et al., 2015).
- Adult learners need direct correlation between their professional development and their daily activities. For the success of SBTPD, teachers' PD activities need to be inserted into their everyday classroom teaching practices. SBTPD is viewed by many as courses, trainings and in-service activities, but should rather be regarded as the outcome of teachers' activities or thoughts and considerations of their daily experiences in the classroom (King, 2016).

- Adult learners need clear and actual work experiences to which the learning can be appropriate. Carlyon (2015) asserts that teachers' existing knowledge and experiences are essential in any professional development programme.
- Individuality and character is part of adult learning. PD programmes must be organised such that there is support, guidance and motivation for members throughout learning. For effective SBTPD, teachers need to receive continuous support from their managers and their peers. Liu and Hallinger (2017) suggest that school leadership should provide direction and the necessary support to carry out PD activities in the school and to ward off resistance, non-compliance and any form of judgement.
- Constant communication on how they are doing is necessary for adult learners. Learning must be structured such that it allows for feedback to adult learners. Active learning and context are some of the characteristics of effective professional development (Svendsen, 2016). Teachers need to be engaged in professional learning throughout their entire career and continually work on their competencies.
- Adults need to be grouped into small groups for effective learning to take place. In this manner, they are able to apply, analyse, synthesise and evaluate what they have learned. Small group activities afford an opportunity to communicate, ponder on and simplify their learning and experiences. These small groups allow for collaboration with other teachers, which is an essential element for effective SBTPD. Collective collaborative learning is essential to enhance professional development and members of the school, as practitioners in a learning organisation, have a responsibility to work collaboratively for school development (Postholm, 2016).
- Adult learners present with them to learning process with an array of previous practices, information and abilities. This combination of qualities must be provided for in the planning of professional development. Carlyon (2015) posits that many PD programmes fall short in acknowledging teachers' existing knowledge, experiences, practice, perspectives, insights and even their anxieties. Hence, collaboration and mentoring are essential to effective SBTPD (Postholm, 2016).

- Adult learners need to be helped in transferring their learning to their daily teaching practice through support activities, such as coaching and mentoring. This transfer assists in sustaining the learning. Successful SBTPD programmes need to have the element of continuity. If teachers are continually professionally developed, they will cease to be lifelong learners and this will hinder the delivery of effective teaching and learning in schools (Ravhuhali et al., 2015).

A study on learning in formal teacher professional development in Cyprus by Karagiorgi, Kalogirou, Theodosiou, Theophanous and Kendeou (2008) found that, when adults were learning, there was a shift from subject-centeredness to problem centeredness. This had come because of adults bringing their previous experience, knowledge and skills to enhance their learning. One of the principles of ALT is that when adults learn, they want to combine their learning with experiences and the environment has to be emotionally and noticeably comfortable. During the learning process, adult learners compare themselves to their colleagues in group discussions, thereby facilitating collaboration, which is an essential element of a successful implementation of SBTPD. Karagiorgi et al. (2008) asserts that personal learning styles may enhance participants' learning experience in a group. In the SLT, one of the principles was that teachers needed to be involved in their own SBTPD, and this is in line with ALT's principle that adults prepare, implement and assess their own learning. Therefore, self-directed learning is important in ALT and in SLT. Teacher autonomy is one of the success factors of SBTPD and, as Brookfield (1986) argues, when adults are cognisant of their independence in the learning process, they participate with their whole beings and become personally invested in the learning process as a whole and that leads to the success of their SBTPD programme.

Hall (2004) refers to ALT as experience-based learning. This is in line with the assumption by Speck (1996), that in ALT, as adults learn, they draw on the masses of experience they have come with. Speck (1996) further states that as adults learn, there are four fundamental individual dispositions that are displayed, which are intelligence, curiosity, reflectiveness and wilfulness, and argues that these dispositions are important in managing and leading teacher professional development.

One of the findings in Zepeda, Parylo and Bengtson's (2014) study on analysing major professional development procedures through the lens of adult learning theory was that continuity was ensured through the provision of both internally and externally provided TPD programmes. Continuity is one of the success factors of effective SBTPD (see section 2.5.4). Well-planned, scheduled and continuing professional learning are the characteristics that make TPD effective and valuable (Zepeda et al., 2014). The authors further advocate teacher autonomy for adult learning in professional development, if SBTPD is to be effective.

I consider adult learning theory as a suitable approach to decide on the effectiveness of the implementation of SBTPD, since teachers are at the centre of this work influencing learner achievement through their teaching practice and instructional quality. Zepeda et al. (2014) posit that professional development is actually some type of adult learning that supports all members in the school, including support staff, teachers and learners. SBTPD is about teachers learning to learn with an aim to improve learner outcomes, therefore, ALT incorporates active learning, experiential, self-directed learning and project-based learning (Zepeda et al., 2014). The authors further assert that, to be effective, adult learning should be built on control, relevance, formation, collaboration, personalisation, deliberation and inspiration, since these are success factors of SBTPD. As I stated in Chapter 2 (see section 2.5.3.2.), teacher autonomy is one important factor of the effective implementation of SBTPD, as, through their past experiences, adults are independent learners who are focused on achieving goals and practical, and have vast previous experience and knowledge that must be recognised.

ALT appears to present a suitable theoretical framework for this study, because teachers as adults should be prepared to participate in learning that they have designated themselves. Adults learn effectively when they are included in the planning stage of their learning. Teachers' PD is one kind of learning that happens in the service of teaching or during workshops and meetings.

Fogarty and Pete (2004) suggest five important characteristics of in-depth PD:

- Sustained: training is implemented over time.
- Job-embedded: training occurs and/or continues on-site.
- Interactive: training invites, involves and engages participants.
- Collegial: training builds and supports a community of teachers.

- Integrated: training that is wide-ranging (web-based, online, text, face to face).

ALT needs to be incorporated in the planning as well as the implementing phase of any PD programme (Donaldson, 2008). Therefore, the job-embeddedness of any TPD programme that employs the use of ALT is critical. Leonard (2010) and McCabe (2011) assert that SBTPD must align with the mission, vision and goals of the institution so that there are accountability demands on the teachers in the school. ALT emphasises collaborative learning and Ghaphery (2001) argues that it influences instruction as teachers perform their teaching duty. In incorporating this theory into the study, I investigated from participants how related their teacher development activities were to what they did in classrooms, and whether they were able to apply what they had learnt in workshops and other platforms.

I used andragogy theory (one of the variants of the theory of adult learning, see section 3.1), pioneered by Knowles (1984), as a lens to explain how adult learning differs from that of children. As children learn, so are teachers expected to learn with an aim to develop and improve the learning of the children. As a variant of the adult learning theory and relevant to this study, this theory is discussed in the following section.

3.3.2. Knowles' adult learning theory (andragogy theory)

Based on a revolutionary theory that was initiated to demonstrate the differences between how children and adults learn. Knowles (1984) developed andragogy theory. The term andragogy means leading by adults in education as opposed to leading by children (Kearsley, 2010). Loeng (2017) refers to andragogy as learning in adulthood. Juxtaposed to pedagogy, andragogy is the art and science of adult learning (Knowles, 1980). Knowles' theory explains how adults learn based on five assumptions, which are self-concept, adult learner experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn. Adopted from Knowles (1980), the author briefly explains the assumptions of andragogy theory:

- Self-concept: As a person matures, his or her self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directed human being.

- Adult learner experience: As a person matures, he or she accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.
- Readiness to learn: As a person matures, his/her readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his/her social roles.
- Orientation to learning: As a person matures, his/her time perspective changes from one postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his/her orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of problem-centeredness.
- Motivation to learn: As a person matures, the motivation to learn is internal.

In a study on the modern practice of adult education, Knowles (1970) conceptualises adult education as a collaborative, unrestrictive, liberal activity, whose main objective is to realise the meaning of knowledge; a search of an awareness that seeks to uproot the prejudices that guide our conduct; an approach to learning that causes education to coexist with life and therefore promotes life as an exploratory experiment. In his book on the meaning of adult education, one of the pioneering theorists on the learning of adults, Lindeman (1926) identified several key postulations about adult learners that have been recognised by modern empirical research and that build upon the foundations of modern adult learning theory; these are:

- (1) Adults will only be motivated to learn if the learning satisfies their needs and interests.
- (2) Adult learning is centred around life and life experiences, not subjects and academic content
- (3) The only methodology for adult education is experience. It is the valuable resource for their learning.
- (4) Adults want to control and regulate their learning. They expect the teacher to reciprocate engagement rather than to transmit information to them.
- (5) Adult learning needs to make provision for differences among learners as these are inevitable as people age. These differences may manifest in style of learning, time in learning, place and pace of learning.

Lindeman's (1926) ideas on adult education emphasise the importance of participation of adult learners in social action. In line with Wenger's SLT, the author believed that successful adult learning supports adult learners to contemplate on their personal principles, views and

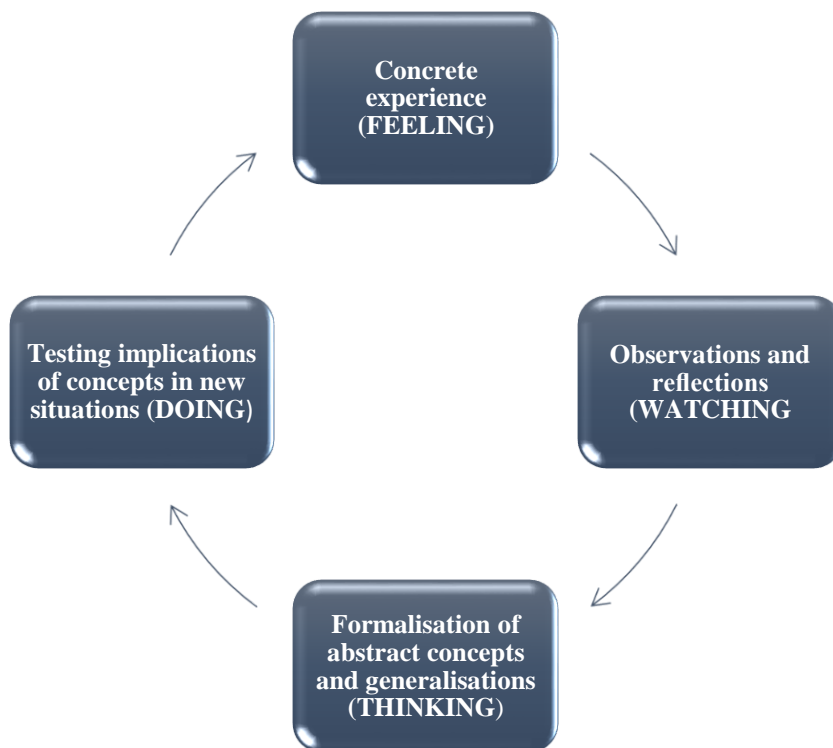
expectations. For Lindeman, teachers' learning needs to be centred around what they do in schools, which is teaching. Further to this, adult learning begins where academic learning stops, that is the reason it is associated with age, experience, self-direction, motivation and is life-centred. One of the important success factors of Knowles' andragogy theory is internal motivation to learn. Lindeman insinuates that adult learners depend largely on motivation in order to learn since they have interests and needs that can be satisfied by learning. Speck's adult learning theory (1996) indicates that adult learners need to apply their learning into specific and actual experiences, therefore, for the success of any teacher development programme, teachers' experiences, successes, anxieties, fears, knowledge and skills need to be considered. Learning-centred leadership (Liu & Hallinger, 2017) emphasises that school leadership that is focused on teacher learning for the improvement of learners' outcomes, will ascertain the provision of teacher differences, as Lindeman assumes, with regard to approach, time, locality, and speed at which learning takes place.

In SBTPD, schools are supposed to be learning organisations. When teachers learn with an aim to improve their practice, Taylor and Hamdy (2013) suggest that this type of learning emphasises autonomy and individual freedom. Thus, andragogy theory is a humanistic theory as it encourages personal development and is learner-centred. Taylor and Hamdy (2013) further state that, when the theory of andragogy is incorporated in schools, it helps produce teachers who possess the ability for self-fulfilment, and teachers who are self-reliant and have intrinsic motivation. Taylor and Hamdy (2013) refer to Kolb (1984), to explain how teachers learn using the andragogy theory. As adults, teachers learn because they want to learn (motivation to improve teaching practice is the driving force). In Kolb's structure, the learner (the teacher in the school) has real experience which they use to contemplate. Based on this act of contemplating, teachers are able to articulate theories and give their appropriate views. Then they combine their views by applying them in new and untested territories. Eventually, this activity results in a larger pool of concrete experiences, and the cycle restarts.

Kolb (1984) cycle of experiential learning indicates that learning is an endless process based on experience and an active autonomous process that is relevant, not only in the group contexts but also in everyday life. Through the theory of andragogy, teachers learn to create knowledge through all of the four quadrants of Kolb cycle. Each of the five assumptions of this theory – self-concept,

experience, readiness, problem-centred and motivation, as mentioned earlier – supports methods about how adults learn. Teachers are adults who have amassed a wealth of experience from their career lives, family experiences, and previous education and as such need to be free to provide some direction for themselves as well as to connect current learning situations to their experience/knowledge base (Knowles, 1984).

Figure 3.1. The Kolb Cycle of Experiential Learning



Adapted from Kolb (1984)

The theory of andragogy provided an appropriate lens for this study since it represents teachers as learners in an organisation, which is the school, learning for the improvement of their own practice as well as for enhancing learner outcomes. As indicated in Chapter 1 (see Section 1.1.), SBTPD develops collective knowledge for both teacher and learner, but where teachers continually master the art of teaching and learners continually becoming motivated to learn. Andragogy helps individual teachers move from being dependent to self-directedness in learning. Therefore, the phenomenon of teacher autonomy is central to the theory of andragogy. For SBTPD, learning for

teachers is geared towards their own self-development and is thus perceived to positively affect their personal and professional development. Tam (2014) asserts that, based on their age, it is normal for adults to experience learning difficulties and, thus, proposes that mature adults need the following five types to get motivated and encouraged, these are: surviving, expression, involvement, influence and excellence. Tam (2013) explains the five types of needs. Coping or surviving needs refer to how an individual copes with the changes that come with old age. Expressive needs refer to the involvement of an individual in developmental activities. Contributive needs or involvement refer to the willingness of an individual to make a change in peoples' lives. Influence is about having a positive influence in others and society at large. Lastly, transcendence or excellence refers to conquer situations and face more challenging one because of the age advantage. Related to these five types of adult learning needs, in an earlier study on older adult learning, Hiemstra (1976) suggests an example of programmes such as Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) for surviving; taking up courses of interest to allow one to be able to express oneself; management, development and training for involvement; active participation in community for reflection and studying about peoples' way of life for divine existence. One of Knowles' (1984) assumptions on the andragogy theory is readiness to learn; according to Knowles (1984), this assumption is because when teachers enrol in a course or programme for their own TPD, there needs to be a reason for learning something new and putting the new knowledge into practice. For their learning to be of value, it has to be applicable into their daily work and responsibilities as teachers (Knowles, 1984).

Savicevic (2008) asserts that andragogy views adult human beings as social beings who are formally and informally involved in life-long learning. For SBTPD, teachers need to be constantly involved in some form of learning for their continuous teacher development. In their study on the support of professional development during transformation, Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (2011) posit that during the learning process, teachers are taught new skills in and perspectives on their practice, while they continue to unlearn instructional practices that have dominated their lives for a long time. SBTPD that engages teachers as learners and exposes them to some doubts about its effectiveness, has a number of characteristics. Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (2011) identify these features:

- It must engage teachers in concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection that illuminate the processes of learning and development.
- It must be grounded in inquiry, reflection, and experimentation that are participant-driven.
- It must be collaborative, involving a sharing of knowledge among educators and a focus on teachers' communities of practice rather than on individual teachers.
- It must be connected to and derived from teachers' work with their learners.
- It must be sustained, ongoing, intensive, and supported by modelling, coaching, and the collective solving of specific problems of practice.
- It must be connected to other aspects of school change.

This kind displayed above, indicates that there is a change from the traditional version of teacher development. It creates an outward appearance that what teachers learn demands that there must be a shift from how their learning is practised. There needs to be policies that are designed to develop teachers' capacity to be responsible for learners' as well as their own learning.

I found andragogy theory appropriate for this study since it advocates adult learning. In SBTPD, teachers learn by doing, reading, and reflecting (just as learners do); by collaborating with other teachers; by looking closely at learners and their work; and by sharing what they see with learners and their colleagues. As teachers learn with and from each other, they make use of PLCs, which are advocated for in Wenger's SLT (see section 3.2.). Talbert and McLaughlin (1994) and Lieberman (1994) assert that some powerful form of teacher learning comes from belonging to PLCs that extend beyond classrooms and school buildings. The authors further give examples of PLCs that teachers can form or belong to in an attempt to enhance their SBTPD through learning, such as school/university collaborations engaged in curriculum development, change efforts, or research, teacher-to-teacher and school-to-school networks, teacher involvement in circuit, district, or national activities, and policies that support extra-school learning communities. SBTPD must allow teachers to share what they know and what they want to learn and to connect their learning to the contexts of their teaching.

School leadership has a serious responsibility in ensuring that teacher learning takes place in the school, in supporting teacher learning and in creating and sustaining environments where teachers are free to own up to any shortfall that they encounter, as well as to reveal any aspect related to their teaching. This is in accordance with learning-centred leadership, which is discussed in the following section.

One other quality of the andragogy theory that is important for SBTPD is transformative learning (Corley, 2011). The author further explains that transformative learning delves into how people think about themselves in relation to their environment. For teachers involved in SBTPD, transformative learning refers to the application of their learning experiences to their requirements and objectives for growth and development as well as the analysis and progress of their learning process.

One of the assumptions of andragogy theory is the intrinsic motivation to learn that is characteristic of adult learners. Appova and Arbaugh (2018) provide a plethora of ‘motivations to learn’ for teachers that validate their involvement in SBTPD. These are:

- Motivation to learn to positively influence learners and their learning
- Motivation to learn with/from other teachers
- Motivation to learn to become a ‘better’ teacher
- Motivation to learn to fulfil accountability requirements
- Motivation to (constantly) seek and join learning as a ‘habit’
- Motivation to learn in order to gain more knowledge about topics of teachers’ own interests
- Motivation to pursue further learning if funds, time and resources are available.

According to Heystek and Terhoven (2015) and McMillan, McConnell and O’Sullivan (2016), for teachers to want to learn and be eager to involve themselves in PD activities, there needs to be assurance with regards to career progression and growth, collaboration, and an improvement in inter- and intrapersonal relations. The existence of CoPs and the provision of opportunities for collaborative practices during learning are critical in encouraging teacher engagement in professional learning. This theory was appropriate to frame this study as it suggests that adults

have different professional and learning needs and so do teachers in SBTPD, as Vanassche and Kelchtermans (2014) and Desimone and Garet (2015) indicate that they differ considerably in how they respond to the same PD programmes, as a result of their teaching experience, subjects and different learning contexts. According to the theory of andragogy, teachers are adults who are involved in life-long learning. Labone and Long (2016) suggest that, therefore, the term ‘development’ in TPD should be replaced with ‘learning’ since teachers are engaged in SBTPD through in-service learning opportunities that are a part of their regular work, which provides learning opportunities that teachers assist teachers to integrate it with their classroom experiences. In integrating andragogy theory in this study, I investigated from participants what their motivation and source for learning within the school was and what school leadership did to promote the school as a learning organisation for teachers too. I also investigated the extent to which participant teachers self-directed their PD.

3.4. LEARNING-CENTRED LEADERSHIP

Learning-centred leadership (LCL) is defined as a practice where school principals encourage, direct, and provide for the process of learning for teachers and learners in their schools (Hallinger & Lee, 2014; Leithwood & Louis, 2011; Liu & Hallinger 2017). It was conceptualised by Hallinger, Liu and Piyaman (2019) as comprising four dimensions, which are: building a learning vision, providing learning support, managing the learning programme and modelling. One of the findings in their study of the capacity of principals’ leadership to have an influence in teacher learning was that it is the responsibility of leadership to make the school an environment that provides motivation and sustained involvement of teachers’ continued learning. It is in this period of transformation that education reforms and LCL must be based on the continued learning of teachers.

In their study on learning-centred leadership as another methodology to leadership in education contexts, Male and Palaiologou (2012) argue that the concept of LCL must be prudently scrutinised, for the reason that it has restrictions and is only based on results. The authors further claim that the history of the LCL model is that it became popular in the United States of America (USA) and England, where the aim was to advance the standard of education and improve learner

performance. School leaders have a duty to establish learning contexts that strengthen and reinforce the expansion of the intellectual and social prowess of teachers for the whole school community. In a study of education and globalisation, Bottery (2006) states that the global economy requires people who have the ability to continuously learn and exist in an environment ruled by creativity and imagination.

A plethora of research has confirmed that the quality of school leadership is crucial to school improvement, continuing teacher development and improved learner achievement (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins, 2006; Goldring, Huff, Spillane & Barnes, 2009; Reardon, 2011; Jansen & Blank, 2014; Liu & Hallinger, 2017). From the perspective of LCL, successful school leaders anchor their work ethic on issues of instruction to learners for the purposes of school improvement. In a school characterised by LCL, as Reardon (2011) asserts, there exists a culture of learning that is evidenced by the existence of CoPs during the process of social learning among teachers, where both learner and teacher learn for improved learner achievement. Such improved learner performance ultimately depends on enhanced teaching practice (Goldring, Porter, Murphy, Elliott & Cravens, 2009).

Information and capability are also key reconciling factors between TPD and the school principals' leadership. Tan (2014) asserts that the school principal has different roles to play in the practice of LCL for effective SBTPD, and these include supporting and partaking in teacher learning and development, sharing leadership to foster collaboration, encouraging collaborative inquiry among teachers and developing a learning-centred school culture. These LCL practices may have the greatest impact on learner outcomes. The success of the implementation of SBTPD through the practice of LCL requires that the professional development of teachers and teachers' work must be aligned to the goals of the school (Hallinger & Heck, 2011, Dimmock, 2012).

According to Goldring et al. (2009), effective CoPs are intensely involved in the educational and social life in the school. In line with Wenger's SLT, the authors further indicate that schools that are organised as communities with the intention to learn collaboratively, have prospect of succeeding academically, as opposed to schools that are organised administratively. The functioning of CoPs, a culture of learning and a professional outlook of teachers in a school, are all dependent on the type of school leadership in that school. Learning-centred leaders have a

dominant responsibility in modelling the importance of collaborating with the extended school community to facilitate the academic and social learning objectives of the school (Murphy, Elliott, Goldring, & Porter, 2006). Learning-centred leaders are directly involved in the implementation of SBTPD, for example, they participate in other structures within the school to ensure the development of a professional culture of learning and a changed behaviour among teachers (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, & Hampston, 1998).

One of the achievements in the implementation of SBTPD is support for all those involved in the implementation by those mandated to manage and monitor the implementation. In the implementation of SBTPD, teachers require support from school leadership who, in turn, expect support from the district officials. Support is one of the major enablers of the culture of learning and professional behaviour among teachers in schools. Therefore, Goldring et al. (2009) indicate that learning-centred leaders initiate conducive conditions, they acquire and utilise all resources necessary to nurture educational and social learning. The authors further suggest that LCL can be practised using the following six important processes in order to promote the effective implementation of SBTPD. These key processes include planning, implementing, supporting, advocating, communicating and monitoring. The following section is the explication of each key process as well as how each can be enacted in relation to the other components.

3.4.1. The key processes of LCL

3.4.1.1. *Planning*

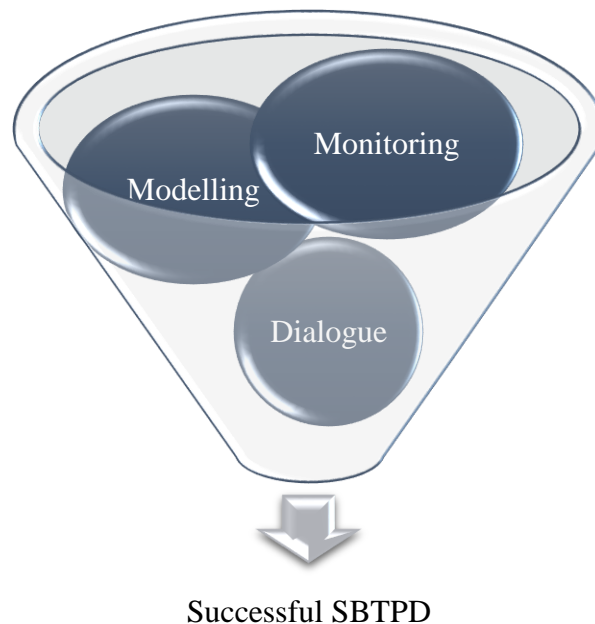
Planning is a leadership process. Goldring et al. (2009) defines planning as pronouncing a clear direction of how policies are to be implemented in attempting to improve teacher practice and learner performance. The participation of teachers in continuing SBTPD is a good example of high quality planning for instruction. One could juxtapose this planning to a situation where teachers choose workshops and out-of-school options suggested by the Department of Education. Planning is the engine that drives the actual implementation of SBTPD. Planning is the mechanism of improving schools through a mutual culture of collaboration that is necessary for the effective implementation of SBTPD. In the practice of LCL, school leadership needs to incorporate planning

as a way to ensure systematic accountability in the school and to monitor the curriculum and instructional quality to improve learner performance.

3.4.1.2. *Implementing*

To realise high standards for learner performance, learning-centred leaders put into practice what they have planned. In this key process, school leadership consults with teachers to implement policies and practices for SBTPD. Learning-centred leaders become involved in policy implementation to promote the key activities in their school. For example, school principals should possess leadership skills that will remain with them for a long period of time and they must be able to demonstrate these skills in leading their schools. This is called declarative knowledge (Goldring et al., 2009), meaning that the school principal utilises the knowledge they have on learning-centred leadership and SBTPD. In this key process, school leadership involves school staff to implement SBTPD policies by guiding and judging teacher performance through job-embedded professional development (Derrington & Kirk, 2017). The effectiveness of LCL can be experienced when school leadership begins to implement it through modelling, monitoring and dialogue, as identified by Southworth (2003). The combination of these three elements has proven to be most powerful in the implementation of successful SBTPD, as Southworth (2004) indicates.

Figure 3.2. Elements of LCL for successful SBTPD



A funnel of the three elements of SBTPD as implemented by the school principal for successful SBTPD

3.4.1.2.1. Modelling

Modelling means the leader leads by being exemplary. School principals as leaders know that teachers and learners look up to them as examples. Research shows that teachers watch their leaders' actions closely. Modelling is an indication that school leadership is interested in the core tasks of the school, which are teaching, and learning. Southworth (2003) asserts that leaders who show an interest in colleagues' professional development are modelling that teaching and learning matter.

3.4.1.2.2. Monitoring

Monitoring involves the analysis of and inspecting on progress, for example, school performance trends, teacher evaluation and examination scores. Leadership is stronger and more effective when

there is information on the dynamics of SBTPD and data on all the teaching practices taking place in the school. It is interesting to state that teachers are keen observers and what school principals do in front of teachers is the very foundation of their credibility. Monitoring is an important way of developing evidence-informed practice, which mirrors exactly what teachers are doing in the school.

3.4.1.2.3. Dialogue

In this context, dialogue refers to conversations between colleagues about the core business of their existence in the schools which is teaching and learning; the school principal should facilitate this phenomenon of dialogue among teachers in the school for professional development. Professional dialogue among staff members can occur in a variety of settings, including staff meetings, reviews of practice, analysis of data meetings and planning meetings and classroom visits. School leaders ensure that dialogue meetings take place and the agenda is teaching and learning. Dialogue is one element of a collaborative culture for effective implementation of SBTPD.

3.4.1.3. *Supporting*

Supporting is a key process to ensure that all the resources for teaching and learning are available at all times (Goldring et al., 2009). Support is an essential element of the successful implementation of SBTPD. Prinsloo (2008) and Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu (2010) indicate that job-embedded support is an important feature within the successful implementation of TPD in schools. Goldring et al. (2009) provide strategies that can be used by school leadership in ensuring that support through LCL is practised in their schools. Learning-centred school leaders provide support to teachers' professional development through giving them support in their attempts to give quality education to learners by ensuring that they have all the necessary resources (from a monetary and technical perspective), providing new sources of information and ensuring that teachers have access to opportunities that sharpen their teaching skills (from a social and human capital perspective), demonstrating personal interest in teachers and availing themselves to them, giving

support for high-grade teaching and learning by guiding teachers in integrating professional development skills and their teaching practice behaviours.

3.4.1.4 *Advocating*

Advocating refers to the promotion of the different needs of all members in the whole school (Goldring et al., 2009). Through advocacy, school leadership ensures that LCL promotes the successful implementation of SBTPD by working with the whole school community to ensure that the culture of collaboration compliments the diversity of all members in the school. Advocacy is fundamental to the process of being accountable in the school, since teachers become accountable for teaching and learning for the whole school community. Qian, Walker and Yang (2013) assert that learning-centred school leaders, together with their teachers take part in professional development activities and this is representative of collaboration which is essential for SBTPD. According to Hallinger, Liu and Piyaman (2019), this type of demonstrating by school leadership communicates the message that ‘whole school learning’ is vital. In contrast, Hallinger et al. (2019) state that, in most developing countries, school principals are not aware of impact they could make if they were to practise LCL in their schools. This view is supported by Hallinger and Lee (2014), Walker and Hallinger (2015), Hallinger and Walker (2017), Tran, Hallinger, and Truong (2017) as they all assert that, in third world societies, school principals have not begun to assume the role of leadership for learning for the effective implementation of SBTPD. Hallinger et al. (2019) then suggest that policymakers should contemplate repositioning the role of the school principals to incorporate ‘leadership for learning’.

3.4.1.5 *Communicating*

Learning-centred leaders communicate explicitly with all shareholders and communities in and outside of the school about high expectations of TPD and learner achievement. In most instances, successful leaders often share the message of what is expected to achieve successful SBTPD implementation to all teachers in the school. When this message has been made clear to all people in the school, it allows for a well-defined and purposeful announcement of the goals and visions

of the school. Goldring et al. (2009) assert that communication is the key element in growing a culture of learning and a professional conduct from teachers and learners. Communities of practice (COPs) require direct and regular communication between teachers, leaders and learners for effective functioning. Bryk, Camburn, and Louis (1999) indicate that when teachers engage in robust dialogues and extended conversations, functional CoPs emerge. In their recent work, Harris and Jones (2018) assert that teachers and school leaders, arguably, desire their schools to be learning organisations, therefore, this aspiration demands that there should be a major shift in beliefs, perceptions and a greater commitment to self-evaluation and ultimately effective commitment. The authors further state that collective responsibility, working together, boldness and a shared ambition are essential elements to SBTPD that cannot occur without effective communication. Learning-centred leaders perform a critical role in building a school where learning is central for both learners and teachers, leading to school effectiveness, school improvement, organisational learning and system improvement (Harris & Jones, 2015; Leithwood et al., 2017; Robinson, 2018).

3.4.1.6 *Monitoring*

Goldring et al. (2009) define monitoring as a well-organised collection and scrutiny of data to make informed decisions about any action that concerns continuing professional development. As an important process for the effective implementation of SBTPD, learning-centred leaders practise LCL through monitoring the effectiveness of SBTPD by evaluating the improvement in teachers' teaching methods and positively influencing teacher professional development and learner performance. School principals who practise LCL collect and use information in order to find areas of development in the content knowledge and methodology of teachers. Put differently, school leaders perform the monitoring act to enhance the implementation of SBTPD in their schools.

Male and Palaiologou (2012) indicate that the model of LCL is more popular in England and the USA than in other countries, as the intention in the former countries has been on raising educational levels and improving the academic achievement of learners. The goal of SBTPD is learner attainment, and LCL is an appropriate concept to frame this study, as learning-centred leaders of schools tend to pay attention to their interest on holding teachers responsible for student

learning and academic improvement (Mazzeo, 2003), as well as providing teaching support and monitoring teacher development (Leithwood et al., 2006). Male and Palaiologou (2012) further assert that behaviours associated with LCL have only wanted to afford teachers opportunities to function successfully. Palaiologou (2011) claims that some of the success factors of SBTPD, which are collaboration, teamwork and the sharing of knowledge, become natural in a school where the school principal practises LCL. Hallinger (1992) and, more recently, Reardon (2011), who assert that LCL is compatible with the theory of instructional leadership, which focuses on collective interpretations, skills, and commitments of teachers, all of which are essential elements of successful SBTPD, support this claim.

Effective school leaders focus their attention on important issues of instruction and school improvement (Reardon, 2011). The author further maintains that LCL is grounded on six standards that assume a desirable disposition of knowledge and performance of an effective leader. These are the school's vision, school culture, learning atmosphere, diversity, principles, and professional development. Expertise in LCL means that the school leader will use their organisational skills to enhance teaching and learning, this means that the school leader goes beyond using subject content and methodology and even their problem-solving skills to improve instructional knowledge in the school (Goldring et al., 2009). One of the findings in their study, as Goldring et al (2009) report, is that school principals have an opportunity to enact their leadership skills through TPD when they use LCL in their schools. Research studies have linked school principal leadership to circumstances in schools that support teacher learning. One of the influences that LCL has on the school principal's leadership skill is the support and involvement in teacher learning and development and promoting collaborative inquiry among teachers (Tan, 2014), which are all essential requirements for successful SBTPD.

A learning-centred leader transform the school into a thriving school setting in which teaching and learning is the key focus. The school community must place academic learning at its centre. Research encourages the idea that functional CoPs are deeply embedded in the instructional and social life of the school, hence the use of SLT, ALT and LCL to ground this study.

School leadership has a key responsibility in how a school integrates learning and professional behaviour of teachers through professional learning communities (Goldring et al., 2009). In SBTPD, a learning-centred leader allows teachers to own their professional development, so that they can improve on their teaching practices, experiences and insights. Placing SBTPD in a learner-centred community, opens space for more collaborative practices which are essential in continuing teacher development. To facilitate LCL, teachers need to be immersed in a learner-centred environment where they are removed from isolation tendencies. LCL supports collaborative practices and encourages a shift to new ways of teaching and learning through promotion of a new form of collegiality and risk-taking.

When SBTPD is placed within LCL, teachers are supported at various phases of growth and change (Kayler, 2009). Teachers become able and willing to use LCL for their own development as professionals. As such, teachers are also able to use their learner-centred experiences as a powerful tool for their development and implementers of learning content. Further to this, effective SBTPD takes place when teachers receive an opportunity to create their own knowledge content and their competence is applauded as they engage in constructivist learning. In their recent study on combining in-service professional development and compulsory teacher evaluation, Derrington and Kirk (2017) posit that when the teacher is learner, the learning environment builds on teacher's strengths, interests and needs for professional development for achieving success in their teaching practice, leading to improved learner performance. This view is consistent with that of Earley (2017), who asserts that a learning-centred leader will foster a learning climate in the school with clear teaching and learning objectives. Learning for the whole school community is a responsibility of higher priority than other aspects of their roles in the school. LCL is suitable to use as a conceptual framework for this study since it is concerned with developing, supporting and evaluating teacher quality, which includes promoting teachers' PD and encouraging collaborative work cultures that are fundamental to effective SBTPD.

In applying this theory, I investigated from the school principals how they monitored SBTPD, to what extent they supported teachers in their PD, as well as how they enacted LCL through processes that supported both teacher development and student learning.

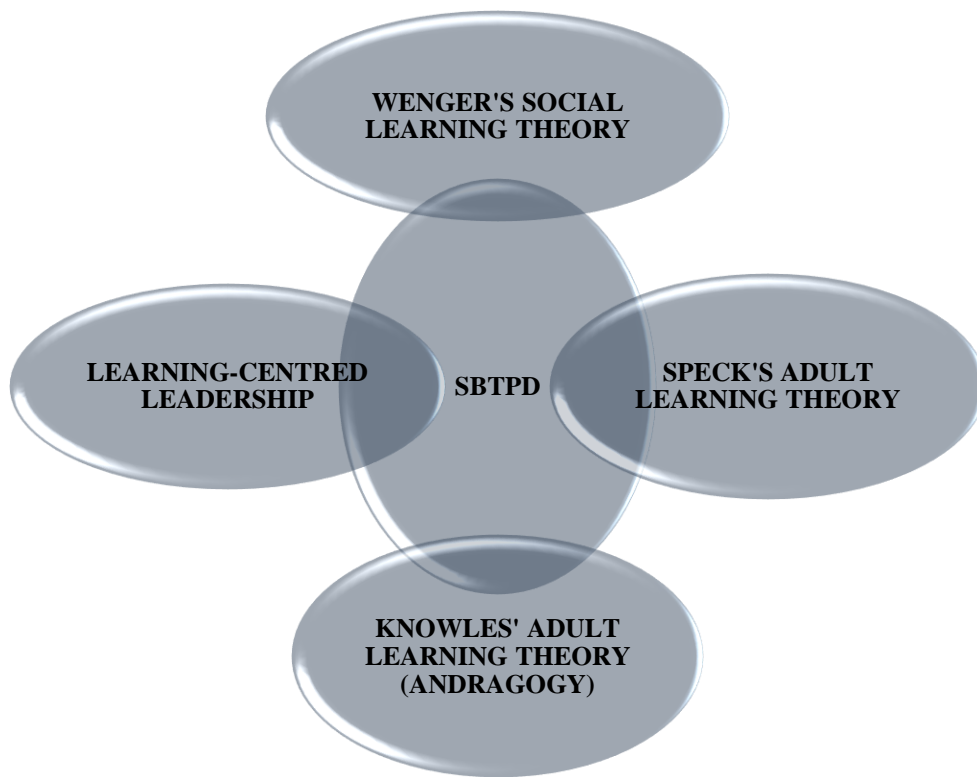
3.5. SYNERGISING THE THEORIES

The three theories I applied in this study offer different but significant contributions to the interpretation of how school-based teacher professional development should be implemented in schools. Wenger's (1999) social learning theory focuses on learning as a form of active and social participation. The teaching profession requires teachers to be part of a social context where they are expected to learn. Speck's (1996) adult learning theory (ALT) emphasises that adults want to shape their own learning and that their learning and their daily activities are related and relevant. Teachers want to have teacher developmental workshops which are particularly suited to the needs of their schools. Both off-site and on-site workshops afford teachers with skills and knowledge to assist them in translating what they have learnt into improved classroom outcomes for the learners. Knowles' (1984) adult learning theory (andragogy theory) explains how adults learn, based on five assumptions, which are self-concept, adult learner experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn. Teachers, as adults, are armed with life experiences and their motivation to learn is central to their ability to positively influence learners and their learning while becoming better teachers. A characteristic feature of Liu and Hallinger's (2017) learning-centred leadership (LCL) is leadership that focuses on learning as well as capacity building in promoting learners of all people within the school community. TPD is about learning (Postholm, 2016) and the common thread among these theories is learning. SBTPD is learning by adults in the schools. The nature of work that teachers do in schools forces them to work together in a social context. These three theories illustrate the manner in which teachers are supposed to interpret the available understandings and utilise the particular skills offered during SBTPD programmes on teaching practice for student outcomes.

The application of the theories in this study allows for an advanced comprehension of the processes regarding the implementation of SBTPD in schools. Ainscow and Sandil (2010) assert that, for teachers to stay close to their moral purpose of teaching and learning, it requires social learning in order to influence attitudes, beliefs and improve teaching practice, which is supported by social learning theory. The theories that explain adult learning encourage a culture that values knowledge, growth and self-directed learning for teachers. Teachers are problem-solvers who challenge, question and adapt to try and to actively solve the problems for their learners. With the internal

motivation for learning that teachers are expected to have, they need to see the application for their practice so that they continue to be active participants. All the theories in the study are blended together to produce a combined perspective on the implementation of SBTPD to enable teachers to develop the knowledge and skills they need to improve instruction, address challenges in learning and improve learner outcomes. Below is a diagrammatic representation of the synthesis of the theories of this study for SBTPD.

Figure 3.3. The Theoretical Framework



3.6. CONCLUSION

The theories collated brought together in this theoretical framework were appropriate to frame this study since they all concur that SBTPD is about teachers learning to learn in order to teach better. Social learning theory, adult learning theories and learning-centred leadership all place emphasis on teachers' experiences, autonomy, observation, self-directed learning and the importance of a collaborative culture when designing and implementing SBTPD programmes. Motivation to learn

and the involvement in planning, conducting and evaluating own learning is another essential feature of effective SBTPD that is espoused by all the theories in this chapter. SBTPD is a rigorous practice, involving approaches, activities and links to outcomes, therefore, teachers need to employ extensive thinking and activities, so that they know what they are doing and measure their actions. The eclectic mix of theories provides a basis for the understanding of the dynamics of implementing SBTPD in schools while providing a basis for the research design and methodology that is discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 4).

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented and discussed the theoretical framework of the study. It is the research design and methodology that enables the reader to understand the entire research project. Research design and methodology can be defined as the descriptions and the justification of the approach, the tools and the process that the researcher uses in carrying out a research project (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). This chapter presents and justifies the research design and methodology of the study. The chapter comprises the paradigm, the research design, the research sites and how participants were selected for the study. I then discuss how I generated and analysed data. Furthermore, I explain how I considered the concept of trustworthiness, as guided by Guba and Lincoln (1985). Towards the end of the chapter, the ethical issues are addressed.

4.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM

Mertens (2009) and Creswell (2007) define a paradigm as an attitude of viewing the world that is made up of expectations, traditions, rules and norms that control and direct peoples' actions and thinking. Nieuwenhuis (2010) describes a paradigm as a chain of beliefs about life that lead to a particular and accepted philosophy. Nieuwenhuis (2010) further asserts that a paradigm refers to important conventions and resolutions, such as beliefs about the nature of reality (ontology), the basic belief about knowledge (epistemology) and how the researcher goes about finding out what they believe needs to be known (methodology). Similarly, a paradigm is a lens that can be used to interpret reality.

This study was underpinned by the interpretivist paradigm. This paradigm sees the world as constructed, interpreted and made up of experiences people attach to their everyday interaction with one another and with their social structures (Ullin, Robinson & Tolley, 2005). The paradigm is based on the view that in order to comprehend the meanings that people assign to their reality,

they must be understood from the perspective that this reality is socially constructed (English, 2006). A paradigm consists of three main elements namely: epistemology, ontology and methodology. Guba and Lincoln (1994) assert that the researcher needs to set clear their epistemological, ontological and methodological assumptions prior to undertaking any research project. Epistemology is the theory of knowledge, especially with regard to its methods, validity and scope, as well as the distinction between justified belief and opinion. Ontology is the very nature of reality or existence, while methodology refers to the principles on which strategies and procedures for research are based. Each of these three elements is discussed in detail below.

Conflated from two Greek words, *episteme* (knowledge) and *logos* (study or knowledge), epistemology refers to knowledge about knowledge (Duberley, Johnson, & Cassell, 2012). The epistemological position of the interpretivist paradigm is the intersubjective construction of knowledge through interaction (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Interpretivist research adopts the view that reality is a social construct whereby the researcher' duty is to reveal this reality to the world. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), the interpretivist nature of a study helps in understanding the subjective world of human experience. The authors further assert that the interpretivist paradigm provides a framework for researchers to study and be able to conceptualise peoples' opinions, principles, meaning-making, experiences, attitudes and self-studying. The interpretive character of the study means that the researcher is committed to depend on the opinions and perceptions of the participants about the phenomenon under study and recognise how the research would impact on their backgrounds, life and experiences (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). A personal encounter with the participants assisted me to gain information on how they understood and experienced SBTPD. Through individual face-to-face interviews with the school principals and the Circuit Manager (CM), and through focus group discussions (FGDs) with the teachers, I was able to gain thick descriptions of how they understood and experienced SBTPD. The meaning given to the phenomenon of the study is socially constructed through the views of the participants. Thus accordingly, I investigated the phenomenon of SBTPD from the viewpoint of various role-players in education.

Made up of two Greek words namely *ontos* and *logos*, where *ontos* means 'being' and *logos* means study, knowledge or theory, ontology is about the nature of being, becoming, existence and the

nature of reality (Duberley, Johnson, & Cassell, 2012). The ontological position of the interpretivist paradigm is that reality can be comprehended in the form of multiple truths and contradictory social realities (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Guba and Lincoln (1994) further state that knowledge is generated in conversations between researcher and participants, therefore reality is a subjective phenomenon. Participants' constructions of their realities are alterable, as they are produced from human intellect and they may change as the participants become more knowledgeable and experienced. Greenbank (2003) asserts that the interpretivist tradition supposes that meaning is subjective and research is accepted as value-laden, resulting in multiple realities. In this study, the interaction between myself as researcher and the teachers, the school principals and the CM allowed for their interpretation as to what they understood and experienced about SBTPD.

As I reported in Chapter 1 (see section 1.6.), the purpose of the study was to explore how teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understood and experienced SBTPD and also what informed how they understood and experienced the same. Consistent with the interpretivist paradigm, the focus was on participants' interpretations, social actions, beliefs, knowledge, experiences and perceptions. As I interviewed participants about SBTPD, I realised that there was no absolute truth and participants made up their own images, definitions and explanations of what their realities were. They understood and made meaning of realities in their individual minds (Denscombe, 2002). I was able to gather different views, perspectives and insights of teachers, school principals and the CM about SBTPD. Guba (1990) declares that the multiple realities derive from the context and experiences of those who construct them.

According to Bloomer and James (2003), in the humanities, the aim of research is to gain access into people's own understanding of their situation. The development of social constructions through interaction is the methodology that is consistent with the interpretivist paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This exchange between the researcher and the participant can be achieved through the use of qualitative data generation strategies, such as interviews, observation and review of documents (Denscombe, 2005; Creswell, 2008). Accordingly, the data generation methods I used in this study included face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions.

Through conversations with the participants, I gained access into their world and engaged with their real world of practice. The interpretivist paradigm aims to understand the different versions of the world around the individuals through participant-researcher interaction (O'Donoghue, 2007). Interaction is a naturalistic method of data generation that is consistent with methodology in the interpretivist paradigm (Creswell, 1998). Cohen et al. (2007) posit that the interpretivist paradigm is indicated by the rapport between the researcher and the participant, as the researcher makes every attempt to identify with and understand the participant. Through using in-depth interviews and dialogue, I made every attempt possible to obtain data from each participant on the dynamics of SBTPD.

Grounding the study within the qualitative approach

One of the distinguishing characteristics of the qualitative approach is that the researcher immerses oneself in the natural setting of the participants (Merriam, 2002). As a researcher I had to be sensitive to the contexts of my participants as I had to immerse myself into their work and lives to be able to generate the data required. Part of immersing myself as researcher into my participants' experiences meant that I had to be familiar with their world (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), as I had to analyse documents related to SBTPD as part of data generation. In qualitative research, the researcher immerses themselves in the research (Cohen et al., 2007). As I generated data, I had to take into account their locality and the time and had to arrive at the research sites at times determined by the participants. Participants' responses were recorded and transcribed, which resulted into thick descriptions as I had to interview the CM, four school principals and twenty-eight teachers in all the four schools.

One other distinguishing characteristic of qualitative research is what researchers refer to as the emic perspective (Berger, 2015; Escobar, 2016; Rossman & Rallis, 2016). The emic perspective refers to examining perceptions, feelings and experiences of participants, to uncover the meanings participants give to their experiences. Cohen et al. (2007) refer to the emic perspectives as 'insider accounts' as participants are well positioned to explain and interpret in their own words. In this study, I interviewed different participants on the phenomenon of SBTPD so that I could get their different truths, descriptions, explanations and insights on the same subject matter. Also, referred to as the interactive approach, another advantage of qualitative research, as observed by Maxwell

(2012), is that qualitative research has a flexible structure as the design can be constructed and reconstructed to a great extent to suit the research process as it progresses.

Nieuwenhuis (2010) states that qualitative research methodology affords ability to the researcher to generate rich and thick data that will, in turn, enable them to uncover and understand the phenomenon under investigation. In this study, the data were generated by using multiple sources as mentioned above (Creswell, 2008) to ascertain that data are rich and thick. Savenye and Robinson (2008) assert that, in qualitative research, individuals or groups are studied within their own environments in an attempt to experience reality from the participants' frame of reference. Fraenkel and Wallen (2008) concur that qualitative research is carried out in the participants' regular environments. In this study, I conducted the interviews in the participants' schools. The face-to-face interviews and the FGDs were conducted in the schools as the research sites. The schools were the appropriate setting since it is where teachers and the school principals interact with SBTPD. With the CM, the interview was conducted in his office.

Merriam (1998) presents five attributes embodied by qualitative research that apply appropriately to this study. Firstly, it is that the main tool for data generation and analysis is the researcher. As the study progresses, during data generation the researcher has to process, classify and analyse data. The researcher, as the main element in the processing of data, becomes a part of the investigated world (Cohen et al., 2007). In this sense, I recorded, listened, transcribed, read and analysed the data on my own without help from any research assistants. Generating data on my own afforded me the opportunity to bond with it, thus developing deep understanding thereof.

Secondly, in qualitative research, individuals construct their social reality in interaction with their social world. This explains the subjectivity in the nature of qualitative research. Based on the participants' perspectives, the qualitative researcher strives to understand participants' lived experiences and how they make sense of their world. I interacted with the teachers, school principals and the CM with an aim of tapping into their lived experiences regarding SBTPD. To achieve this, I ensured that the focus of my questions was on reasons, motives, values, goals and assumptions of the participants (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). This afforded me, as a researcher, to obtain extensive information about the dynamics implementing SBTPD.

The third attribute is that qualitative research is conducted in the field (Merriam, 1998). I personally visited all schools and the circuit office during the process of data generation. Owing to their natural character, qualitative studies need to be positioned in their natural settings, where the environment is deeply linked to the content of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). In the natural setting, the researcher and the participant interact face-to-face (Creswell, 2007). In this study, data was generated in schools located in the selected rural circuit with the aim of eliciting information on SBTPD. The schools and the office of the CM provided the natural setting.

Fourthly, Merriam (1998) asserts that qualitative research is basically an inductive approach that develops hypotheses, concepts or theories as opposed to testing existing theories. Owing to the inductive approach, the data generated gave rise to the development of themes and concepts that were necessary to respond to the research questions (Yin, 2011; Harwell, 2011). The inductive approach enabled me, as a researcher, to provide deep interpretations of the phenomenon under study. Marshall and Rossman (2011) approve of the inductive approach in research studies that seek to develop a theory or model to adequately address an educational problem. The third sub-question of this study seeks to explore what can be learnt from the dynamics regarding the way forward in the implementation of SBTPD. This question appropriately embraces the inductive approach as it seeks to find the model or building blocks or what should be put in place for SBTPD to be implemented effectively.

Lastly, since qualitative research is concerned about meaning, process and understanding, its product is primarily descriptive (Merriam, 1998). Agreeing with this assertion, Denzin and Lincoln (2005) claim that the one of the characteristics of qualitative research is textual data. Such data may be citations from participants or documents (Merriam, 1998). This study is consistent with the qualitative method, because the interviews generated volumes of word-based data that informed the findings.

The descriptions I have provided in the preceding paragraphs are consistent with the list by Ryan (2006, p. 10) as he outlines a summary of the features of the qualitative research approach, as follows:

- It seeks to provide an in-depth picture

- It generally deals with smaller numbers than quantitative research
- It tries to interpret historically or culturally significant phenomena
- It can be used to flesh out quantitative data
- It tries to isolate and define categories during the process of research
- It is appropriate when the questions posed by the researcher are difficult for a respondent to answer precisely
- It tries to illuminate aspects of people's everyday lives
- It values participants' perspectives on their worlds and
- It often relies on people's words as its primary data.

One of the advantages of the qualitative approach is that the phenomenon of the study can be evaluated with great detail. This allowed for the generated data to have an enhanced level of detail to it and enabled me to bring together insights from the data during analysis. Since the qualitative approach operates within structures that are fluid, it provided much flexibility on the research design and process. A range of modes of inquiry are consistent with qualitative studies, some of these being phenomenology, ethnography, case study, grounded theory and critical studies (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Nieuwenhuis, 2011). This study used the case study design. The rationale behind the use of the case study design is presented and discussed in the subsequent section.

4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Mouton (1996), a research design refers to the logic that makes known how the proposed study is to be conducted. It is a detailed plan of the exploration of the phenomenon under study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Consistent with these definitions, a design is the researcher's plan for the study, which involves the following elements: the kind of data to be generated, the tools to be used in generating the data and the selection of participants and the research sites (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). One of the important purposes of a research design is that it assists in evading situations where there are inconsistencies and contradictions between data generated and the main research question (Yin, 2009; Heck, 2011).

One of the modes of inquiry consistent with the interpretivist approach is a case study, the design which I employed in this study. The term “case study” refers to a restricted number of cases to be studied, these could be an individual, a sect, an event, a programme, a process or an institution which are then studied extensively (Yin, 2003). Creswell (2008) defines a case study as an investigation of a confined example (by time and place) where a researcher uses several strategies to produce thick data to respond to the research questions. A case study approach selects an environment bounded by space or a restricted number of persons as the focus of the study. This study was a case study of a selected rural education circuit in KwaZulu-Natal. Case studies, in their nature, examine and investigate relevant actual phenomena using a comprehensive and appropriate examination on a restricted number of cases, and the relationships within the cases. Creswell (2014) asserts that case studies are a mode of inquiry which is used in many fields of study, where the researcher cultivates a detailed investigation into the case.

Stake (1995), Babbie (2004) and Johnson and Christensen (2008) suggest that researchers of case studies seek an in-depth and holistic understanding of a specific case which they have selected, irrespective of how many participants or sites there are. The case for inquiry in this study was the implementation of SBTPD.

The case study method has these features: it is based on factual situations (Merriam, 1998); intentionally deals with interconnected situations (Yin, 2003); is mainly applicable to studies that ask extremely related and important questions (Yin, 2003; 2017); has a preference for procedure and consideration (Merriam, 1998); and offers varied perceptions and provides explanations (Merriam, 1998). Creswell (1998) indicates that, because a case study is conducted in a natural environment where the aim is to understand the natural processes in that specific environment under study, it affords the researcher an opportunity to acquire a complete understanding of the study in investigation.

Therefore, the case study approach was appropriate for this study, since the aim was to investigate a topical phenomenon on the dynamics of implementing SBTPD. Case study research purports to advance the understanding of a particular setting (Cousin, 2005). As a concluding consideration, I used a case study design because it has a special quality of allowing researchers to use various data sources and data generation methods (Heck, 2011; Robson, 2011; Nieuwenhuis, 2011). Some of the sources of evidence that can be used in a case study include interviews, document examination,

observation, archives analysis, physical artefacts, *et cetera*. I was able to use interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs) as data sources for the study. The use of these sources of data allows for a deep insight into the phenomenon under study and also permits data triangulation using all inquiry techniques, which enhances the trustworthiness of the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Nieuwenhuis, 2011; Yin, 2011).

Case studies can involve single or multiple cases (Meyer, 2001). This study was a multiple-case study. Stake (2006) defines a multiple-case study as explorations of a particular individual or group at different research settings. Moore, Lapan and Quartaroli (2012) state that multiple-case or multisite case study research is used to expound on complicated phenomena which may include contemporary events, issues or programmes, with an aim to uncover novel and profound understanding of such cases. Consistent with this statement, this study was a multiple-case study of four primary schools. Creswell (2007) states that a case study research involves the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e. a setting, a context and time). The author further states that the bounded system is not only about time but also the connectedness and interwoven nature of the parts of a system, which makes it qualify as one thing, a case, in the context of this study, a circuit. However, Silverman (2010) and Lichtman (2011) corroborate this view and state that each case has boundaries or parameters which must be identified at an early stage of the research. The time boundedness of the cases was a period of two years. This was the time I was going to spend on the field conducting research. I used the multiple-case strategy not so much with an aim of comparing SBTPD programmes and processes in different institutions within the selected rural context, but rather in an attempt to explain and link them to one another in order to understand the dynamics influencing the implementation of SBTPD. Selecting a multiple-case study against other qualitative strategies was based on the premise that the research problem of the study is topical and I intended to develop a sound understanding of the implementation of SBTPD in order to theorise into a broader context. Several recent research findings confirm this view. Ajibade (2016), Phorabatho (2013), and the Department of Education (2007) reveal that SBTPD has a great influence on learner performance and should be structured to assist both the teacher and the learner in their learning and allow for collaboration among teachers, and that many district officials and school principals do not have extensive knowledge on monitoring and giving support for SBTPD. Therefore, I used the multiple-case study since it allowed for a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics of implementing

SBTPD in the schools located in the rural context and provided thick data that could guarantee trust in my findings. In the following section I present the discussion on the research sites.

4.4. THE RESEARCH SITES

A research site is a physical, social and or cultural setting where the researcher conducts the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Selection of research sites includes identifying a site chosen to find participants for the study as well as providing rationale to selecting that particular site (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Referred to by others as sampling, it refers to a process used by researchers to decide on a particular portion of a population for study purposes (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Depending on the kind of study, it refers to a process of choosing a particular group to represent a population for the study (McLeod, 2014). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) further emphasise that the selection of the research site largely depends on the researcher's trusted judgement in that the site will generate relevant data for the study. I conducted the study in one rural education circuit of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

The research sites were primary schools situated in a deep rural area fraught with numerous lacks which include, but are not restricted to, unemployment, education, health, income and material and infrastructure. The community is burdened with social ills such as poverty, diseases, teenage pregnancy and crime. The schools in this circuit are supervised by one CM and they share the plight of functioning under these similar terrible conditions. Within the context of rurality, teachers have to contend with the multiple trials and difficulties that provide a number of barriers, suffering and a loss of hope, and this demands attention to teacher professional development. As the rural conditions remain unchanged, this might have devastating effects as rural schools may not deliver on the required results. Based on the rural character of the selected circuit, as explained above, and ease of access to me as a researcher, the education circuit was purposively selected and therefore relevant to provide information useful for the study. The particular characteristic of rurality of the selected circuit made it an information-rich platform to generate data for the study. The study aimed at investigating the dynamics of implementing SBTPD in a rural circuit, hence making it information-rich to respond to the research questions. Gray (2009) asserts that qualitative research is based on non-probabilistic selection because it attempts to gain an understanding on specific practices that are found in a particular context.

Therefore, I sought to investigate the implementation of SBTPD within the selected education circuit, based on its rural character at that point in time.

The selected circuit comprises 16 primary schools, under the supervision of one CM. Creswell (2008) contends that qualitative researchers choose a few individuals or cases to study. I used purposive selection to select four primary schools as research sites. I purposively chose schools that were clearly situated in an entirely rural section of the circuit. These schools were selected on the assumption that they would have rich information regarding the phenomenon of the study. Therefore, purposive selection appeared to be the most suitable form of selection in these particular conditions (Walliman, 2009). The choice of a few cases was based on the understanding that qualitative research would provide an in-depth picture of the phenomenon under investigation.

Having decided on the site, I also had the responsibility to select the participants, to whom I turn in the following section.

4.5. SELECTION OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

In each school I included all teachers as research participants. In this context the term ‘teacher’ refers to a school-based teacher involved in over-all classroom teaching, including the school principal. Out of the four primary schools, each school had an average of nine teachers. The teachers included the Post Level 1 teachers, the Departmental Heads (DH) and in one school, a deputy principal (DP). Teachers were purposively selected as participants because they are the implementers of SBTPD; they are the practitioners of SBTPD in their respective schools. They were the appropriate participants from whom to elicit data to respond to the research questions. The teachers at all levels (with the exception of the school principals) were part of the FGDs because they all teach learners.

There were four primary school principals for the study. From each of the four purposively selected primary schools, the school principal was a participant. Three of the school principals were males and one was a female. The school principals were participants because they are the custodians and the managers of programmes that are intended to augment the professional aptitude of teachers in their particular schools. The school principals are accountable to the Department of Education, as

the employer, and to the parents of learners for the educational achievements of the learners in their respective schools. The school principals are responsible for leading schools and ascertaining that they are learning organisations where teachers continually learn and improve their teaching practice. There was also one Circuit Manager (CM). The CM is the supervisor of the schools in the selected circuit. The purpose of including the CM as a participant was that he is responsible for ensuring that SBTPD was taking place in schools under his supervision and was bearing the necessary fruit. The CM had the responsibility for managing and monitoring SBTPD in schools in the circuit and for ensuring that teachers under his leadership implemented SBTPD programmes that were designed to enhance teaching practice and ultimately improve learner academic performance.

4.6. DATA GENERATION METHODS

In this study I employed two data sources, namely interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs). Multiple sources of data in a case study enhance the credibility of the data generated (Yin, 2003; 2012) as well as the trustworthiness of the study (Niewenhuis, 2011). Esterberg (2002) posits that findings, analysis and conclusions of the study become more rigorous when multiple data sources have been used. They allow for triangulation, which is defined by Cohen et al. (2011) as using different methods in an empirical study to generate data. Triangulation also enhances the trustworthiness (credibility) of the findings. One of the advantages of triangulation for any research study, as stated by Cohen et al. (2011), is that, when different data generation methods yield the same results, it boosts the researcher's confidence.

Interviewing has a variety of forms that include face-to-face individual interviews and face-to-face group interviews. In this study I used semi-structured interviews for both individual and group interviews. Cohen and Crabtree (2006) assert that the use of semi-structured interviews optimises the strength of the data generated, since the researcher can probe further from the interview schedule. I crafted different semi-structured interview schedules in advance with the aim of guiding the face-to-face interviews with the CM and school principals and the FGDs with the teachers respectively. Having prearranged themes to control the interviews (Treadwell, 2014), helped me to think explicitly about what to cover during the actual interview and assisted me to

control the interview so that it did not degenerate into a general conversation about SBTPD, as well as to leave room for unseen issues. While Greef (2010) argues that the questions should be coherent and can be arranged from broad to specific to allow for the gradual flow of the interview, Baxter and Babbie (2004) counter-argue that the interviewer can use their professional discretion in posing questions to the participant, depending on the flow and the rapport between the interviewer and participant. Baxter and Babbie (2004) further assert that using a semi-structured interview schedule allows the interviewer to paraphrase questions for the participant, thereby maximising in-depth responses and further seek clarity on areas indicated by the participant's answer, with the aim of elucidating on complicated issues. I arranged the questions thematically in the interview schedule, guided by the literature, but I had the freedom to probe further from participants, guided by their responses.

4.6.1. Individual face-to-face interviews

Heck (2011) indicates that interviews are the main source of data in case studies. Interviews are a personal encounter with the participants, which assist in obtaining detailed information and in pursuing particular issues of consideration that may result into positive recommendations (Shneidermann & Plaisant, 2005). Kvale (1996) posits that qualitative research interviews provide explanations and clarifications about the main issues in the lived experiences of the participants. Gillman (2000) indicates that, though the principal duty of qualitative research interviews is to obtain clarity on what the participants say, they seek both meaning and facts. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) allude to the following as some of the advantages of qualitative individual interviews:

- Qualitative interviews actively involve the participants in the research process, thereby, empowering the participants
- They allow free interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee
- They allow opportunities for clarification so that relevant data is captured
- They maximise description and discovery
- They offer researchers access to people's ideas, thoughts and memories in their own words, rather than in the words of the researcher.

Thus, qualitative individual interviews were fitting for the study, as they afforded me the possibility to interact closely with the school principals with an aim to generate as much data as possible from them. Face-to-face interviews give intricate details to qualitative phenomena (Flick, 2018). Knox and Burkard (2009) refer to face-to-face interviews as in-person interviews and state that these interviews yield better quality data than any other form of interview. I interviewed the CM and the four school principals through face-to-face individual interviews. Scholars emphasise that one of the disadvantages of face-to-face interviews is their susceptibility of the interviewer to partiality and unfairness and that biases, typecasts, external outlooks and/or opinions of the interviewer may modify responses from the participant (Kvale, 1996; Gillman, 2000; Cohen et al., 2011). To circumvent this challenge, I used the same interview schedule with all the school principals to ensure uniformity in the questions but gave room for contextual differences.

Carr and Worth (2001) assert that, when in the same room with the participant, the researcher can read non-verbal data that include physiognomy, signals, and other tone of voice communications that may supplement the meaning of all the data that are being recorded. Mannerisms and countenance become more clearly defined and understood and they enrich the meaning of the spoken words. Being in the same room with the participants ensured that I maintain a good rapport with them so that I could read through their spoken and unspoken words. I had obtained consent from the participants to audio-record the interviews in advance, and afforded me the opportunity to fix my attention on the interview itself and also focus on the other type of communication presented by the participants. Building rapport with the participants maximised the opportunity to gather as much data as possible from the CM and the school principals (Shuy, 2003). The author further posits that rapport enables participants to freely release their experiences more effectively. I found this to be true in my study, since I had built a relationship with my individual and group participants in order to allow them to express themselves freely so I could elicit all the data I needed. I had planned to conduct two one-hour long interviews with each of my individual participants, but, because of the rapport and the flow of the interviews, the interviews were one session, which lasted for an average of two hours. According to Musselwhite, Cuff, McGregor and King (2007), one of the advantages of face-to face interviews is that the length of the interview may be extended significantly to allow for increased commitment of participation from the participant. I interviewed the school principals and the CM once, in the comfort of their school

and circuit offices, respectively. All interviews were audio-recorded and after each interview, I transcribed the data so that the preliminary analysis could ensue. Another source of data used in this study was the FGDs, which I discuss in the following section.

4.6.2. Focus group discussions

FGDs are also referred to as discussion groups or group interviews (Robson, 2002; Greef, 2010; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Williams and Katz (2001) define focus groups as a congregation of people of mutual attributes brought together by an intermediary to gather information on a specific matter. Particularly in case studies, FGDs assist the researcher to obtain specific and direct information through the opportunity of witnessing and communicating a wider opinion of what and how reality is (Berg, 1995). It is the use of interaction that takes place between members, which distinguishes focus group interviews from other interview techniques.

I had envisaged having two focus groups per school, but owing to the number of teachers in the schools, I ended up having one focus group per school, which included all the teachers, except the school principal. Therefore, in total, the study involved four focus group discussions from the four schools, which were part of the study. There was an average of nine teachers in each school, therefore, in each school I needed a group of seven teachers to form part of the FGD. I included all post-level one (PL1) teachers and the SMT members in the FGDs. This was done on purpose so that as a researcher I could capitalise on their shared experiences and gather more data. Some of the potential side effects of including all levels of teachers in one FGD were that SMT members could want to dominate the discussion, resulting in the PL1s feeling intimidated. Another side effect could be that both PL1s and SMT members would use the FGD platform to fight their own internal school battles. I did not experience any repercussions in including all levels of teachers in the FGD. The focus group method was straightforward and was not intimidating.

One of the important group dynamics that a researcher should strive for, is homogeneity of the group (William & Katz, 2001), to make certain that participants are relaxed around one another and are free to speak in the presence of each other, thus facilitating responses that are more open. Semi-structured interview schedules were used with the all the four focus groups. The interview schedules helped to ensure consistency of questions across the groups (Patton, 2002). Two days

before the focus groups sat for the discussions, I gave them the interview schedule so that participants could study and know what was expected of them. Stewart, Shamdasani, and Rook (2009) appropriately suggest that this practice has the potential to encourage compliance and produce high quality responses from participants. The interviews were held at the schools. I had one interview session with each FGD, which took an average of 90 minutes. In concluding with the FGDs, the recorded data were transcribed and the initial analysis of data followed.

There are different opinions as to the number of participants in a focus group from various scholars. While Hakim (2000) suggests that a focus group should have between four and twelve people, Merriam (2009) and Cronin (2011) suggest six to ten people in a focus group, Kelly (2006), Chilisa and Preece (2005), Rule and John (2011) suggest six to 12 people and lastly, Bernard (1995), Morgan (1997) and Johnson and Christensen (2004) suggest six to 12 participants in a focus group. However, for whatever number is preferred, a warning to researchers is given by Babbie and Mouton (2009) that the number of participants in a focus group should not be so small that there is a moment of silence during a conversation, whereas Chilisa and Preece (2005) warns researchers that they must avoid large numbers such that the discussion generates into chaos, important issues are not covered and participation by all is impossible. Nieuwenhuis (2011) and Babbie (2004) indicate that many focus group interviews usually possibly assist in obtaining different perspectives on the phenomenon under study.

One of the most refreshing benefits of employing FGDs for this study was their ability to access a range of ideas, knowledge and linguistic conversations within a given context. The teachers are practitioners of SBTPD, they are the people who were able to hold down a guided discourse on the dynamics of the implementation of SBTPD as it is a phenomenon in their everyday life as teachers. The teachers are the people who could respond on their understandings, experiences and conceptualisations of SBTPD in an effort to respond to the research questions. According to William and Katz (2001), the focus group method of data generation has two basic but important expectations, firstly, it is that individuals within the group can supply critical information on the topic. Nieuwenhuis (2010) and Greef (2010) support this view in their assertion that, as participants respond in the group discussion, they feed off each other through their responses, thus contributing to the productivity of the discussion and the data being generated. The second assumption is that responses gathered from focus group contexts may produce data that is different

from the data generated through other methods. This view is corroborated by Nieuwenhuis (2010), who postulates that, in FGDs, when group participants communicate freely and share ideas with each other, the researcher is able to generate in-depth data that is not attainable from individual interviews and document reviews. Both assumptions proved true for this study. For the first expectation, the FGD with the teachers did provide rich data that was necessary to respond to the research questions. For the second expectation, FGDs provided much data in addition to the data I had gathered from the individual face-to-face interviews with the CM and the school principals.

As one of qualitative research data generation strategies, FGDs can successfully become versed with the many realities of participants' perceptions and understandings and allow researchers to get a glimpse into their social world that they would not normally experience (Krueger & Casey, 2000). With the dynamics of FGDs comes empowerment of the participants. William and Katz (2001) assert that participants in a group are afforded the opportunity to work collaboratively with the researcher and to communicate their apprehensions, interests and accomplishments about the phenomenon of the study. In this study, as I guided teachers through the discussion, they were free to voice out their concerns, anxieties, comforts, fears, activities and achievements about SBTPD. The group interviews provided a platform to empower teachers to elaborate on the very phenomenon that is at the core of their being as teachers, that is the continuing growth, through SBTPD, on their career as teachers while striving to improve outcomes for their learners.

One of the challenges associated with focus group interviews is selecting appropriate participants. I asked school principals to assist me in assembling a group of teachers to form the FGD. Researchers have to observe research ethics and protocols, for example, pass through gatekeepers (such as school principals) to gain access to their intended participants (William & Katz, 2001). For this study, I needed all teachers as participants and the challenge was to assemble a particular group of participants at a specific time because of different commitments. To circumvent this challenge, I arrived two days before the group meeting to ensure that every member of the group would be available for the FGD. This ensured the presence and well preparedness of all members of the FGD; it also ensured that all group members were anticipating the interview. One other challenge with focus group interviews is the dominating factor of one or two participants and non-participation from some group members, affecting the group dynamics as the interview progresses (Robson, 2002). As a seasoned teacher and workshop facilitator, I put to use my management and

facilitation skills to circumvent this challenge and ensure that every member of the group was afforded a reasonable chance to voice out their opinions, views and thoughts and answer questions on SBTPD. The nature of the group setting is such that participants are obliged to express in public what they usually regard as private, and neither the reaction nor the discretion of the group can necessarily be predicted (Wellings et al, 2000). To avoid this, I advised group participants to feel free to disclose or not to disclose any information as they saw fit.

One other challenge about focus groups is that they are not a primrose path to use. The data generated from them can be weighty and sometimes unmanageable, as they are complicated (Heck, 2011), but they were unchallenging to assemble and, hence, not laborious to analyse. It is worth remarking that English was the language used for both face-to-face interviews and FGDs and all participants freely expressed themselves.

The use of FGD for qualitative data generation has some advantages. Firstly, FGDs are economical and cost effective (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Nieuwenhuis, 2010; Greef, 2010; Heck, 2011). They produce voluminous data in a short stretch of time as compared to individual, separate teacher interviews. They can generate insights that might not otherwise have been available in a basic interview. The interviewer as the facilitator in the group is able to probe a single response to generate more responses, thus more data from the group. Nieuwenhuis (2010) posits that participants, furthermore, feed off each other's' views to provide rich and thick data for the study. New views and opinions are explored at the same time and this enriches the study. Secondly, FGDs do not only explore people's understanding and competences and what they think but can be used to scrutinize how they think and why they think that way (Kitzinger, 1995). Two of my sub-research questions were to examine how teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understand and experience SBTPD and why they understand and experience SBTPD the way they do. Therefore, FGDs were appropriate for this study in an attempt to respond to the research questions. Thirdly, focus groups prompt involvement from people who have no desire of being individually interviewed, for example those who are overwhelmed by decorum or the privacy of an individual interview. Lichtman (2013) and Heck (2011) indicate that group interaction tends to release inhibitions in participants that might have discouraged them from participating fully in the FGD. The focus group method was basically straightforward and not intimidating.

Below is a diagrammatic summarised representation of data generation for this study.

Table 4.1: Representation of data generation methods, instruments and sites

Institutions →	Circuit	School	School	School	School	Total
Methods and instruments ↓	office	A	B	C	D	5
Face-to-face individual interviews (with CM and school principals, using semi-structured interview schedule).	1	1	1	1	1	5
Focus groups (with teachers using semi-structured interview schedule),		1	1	1	1	4

Table 4.1. presents the summarised version representative of the data generation methods and the participants in the study. Having explained how data were collected, in the following section I discuss the data analysis procedures that the current study undertook.

4.7. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Gray (2009) defines data analysis a process of giving arrangements, categories, and meanings to data generated in a research study through an organised but laborious process. One approach of analysing qualitative data is thematic analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Hayes, 1997; Creswell, 2009; Braun & Clarke, 2006) which I adopted in this study. Thematic analysis is a qualitative data analysis method that involves recognising and isolating, examining and reporting on themes, patterns and categories as they emerge from the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is applicable for data from different instruments with participants in different environments,

effectively, and it reflects the reality of the data generated (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Hayes, 1997 & Creswell, 2009).

Merriam (1998) advises that generating and analysing qualitative data simultaneously is most appropriate, since it assists the researcher to remain focused when generating more data. Once the data were generated, I started transcribing and preliminary analysis began. Data analysis in qualitative research means that there is an inextricable relationship between data generation and data analysis. This means that as data was being generated, the process of analysing also commenced. It was during this time that I read the transcripts and made notes and reflections of what had been read. Marshall and Rossman (1999) caution that, when data becomes voluminous, it can be overwhelming and suggest that the researcher uses the preparatory research questions and introductory review of literature that was established in the research proposal, to chart a way forward in the data analysis process. This view is shared by Cohen et al. (2011), who posit that it is not surprising for qualitative studies to gather enormous amounts of data which can lead to data overload. To circumvent this, the researcher needs to begin early to analyse the data. I then grouped data into themes, categories, subgroups and subthemes through underlining similitude, dissimilarity and any interrelation, connections, inconsistencies and incongruity in participants' responses. I used a model of thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006) and supported by Miles and Huberman (1994) which is detailed below:

Familiarising self with data: I listened to the recordings, transcribed all interviews, read and re-read transcriptions and data gathered through document analysis in written format, to get a thorough comprehension of the content of the data. Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to the first step as data reduction, which means to analyse the generated data word-for-word.

Generating initial themes: Once I had familiarised myself with the data, I used manual coding to locate lead codes that gave direction and suggestion of the discussion between myself and the participants. At this stage I highlighted and underlined the data, which meant taking excerpts from the participants' full text (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Searching for themes: In this step, I began to interpret the codes that I had arranged. While alluding my thought processes between codes, themes and subthemes, I sorted data I had extracted and organised into themes. Using domain analysis (Cohen et al. (2011), which is described as grouping

together items and units into related clusters, themes and patterns, a domain being a category which contains several other categories, I established themes, which meant breaking the data into smaller segments, making them clearer and more understandable (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Reviewing themes: It was at this stage where I had to decide whether to merge, brush up, split up or reject preliminary themes. While there should be coherence between data themes, there also needs to be evident and identifiable differences between the themes. Through searching the data, I evaluated plausibility of my developing understanding of the themes. This entailed searching through the data during which I challenged my understanding by searching for negative instances of the patterns and incorporating these into larger constructs (De Vos, 2010). I ensured that the themes related to the highlighted and underlined extracts in all the data sets. I generated a thematic ‘map’ to guide me in clearly distinguishing the themes. Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to this stage as evaluating the themes. This means ensuring that all themes represent the entire text of generated data. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest involving an outside reviewer at this stage. The aim is to build trustworthiness in theme coding.

Defining and naming themes: At this stage, I further enhanced the themes by naming them with concise statements that give meaning to the content of the theme. Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to this stage as data display. This stage helps to view and enhance the data more clearly for the study and to avoid data overload. The intention of displaying the data is to give meaning to the data generated.

Producing the report: At this stage, I rearranged the analysis into a readable report by relating the analysis content to the research questions, literature and the theoretical framework, by not merely describing the themes, but discussing and supporting them with evidence from the generated data that responded to the research questions. Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to this stage as drawing conclusions, which means identifying interrelations between data generated and literature while building a coherent and consistent piece of writing that fits with the theoretical framework of the study.

The section below presents an in-depth account of trustworthiness as ensured in this study.

4.8. TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness refers to the trust and assurance that a researcher has for their study and its findings which is defined by the reviewers and evaluators of the study (Robson, 2011). The concept of trustworthiness is a highly significant aspect of qualitative research (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). Trustworthiness may be described as fitting between what is recorded by the researcher as data and the actual occurrences in the field being researched (Cohen et al., 2007). Lincoln and Guba (1985) assert that trustworthiness is about ways in which the researcher convinces the reader that the findings are trustworthy and the entire research report is worth reading. When the study findings are perceived to match real life experiences, then they are trustworthy (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). To ensure the trustworthiness of a study, qualitative researchers prefer credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 1985; Krefling, 1991; Creswell, 1998). I used the following strategies, as guided by Guba and Lincoln (1985).

Credibility: Credibility refers to the degree at which the findings of a research come close to reality and are judged trustworthy and reasonable (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Member checking is one of the primary methods of ascertaining credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is the process where the researcher verifies their accurate understanding of participants' responses (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) refer to this as confirmation by participants. In this instance, after each interview, I transcribed and sent the transcripts back to all participants so they could verify their responses. Fortunately, participants did not divert from the responses they had given. This activity allowed the circumvention of misinterpretation and misrepresentation of what the participants had brought to the understanding of the phenomenon of the study.

Transferability: Transferability refers to the ability to generalise the research findings into other contexts beyond the study (Christiansen, Bertram & Land, 2010). To enhance transferability, I detailed the research methods, contexts and assumptions underlying the study, gave a complete depiction of the context of the study and made transparent the methodology, methods, tools, analysis and procedures the study followed. Although, in the quantitative approach, the researchers try to illustrate how their findings can be generalised within the population that was studied, in some qualitative studies, the responsibility to decide on the transferability of the findings remains with the reader (Babbie et al., 2004). It is through thick descriptions of data from each case that

readers can make their own judgements on transferability of the findings (Gray, 2004). In this study, it is through the purposive selection of both the circuit and the researched schools (see sections 4.4 and 4.5), as well as the provision of thick descriptions of data that the reader can make their own judgements on the transferability of the research findings. Guba and Lincoln (1985) concur that in qualitative research, thick descriptions and purposive sampling may establish transferability. If the findings are credible and transferable, they are also likely to be dependable and confirmable (Babbie et al., 2004).

Dependability: Merriam (1998) defines dependability as a technique of trustworthiness that establishes the research findings as consistent and repeatable. To achieve dependability, I explained the theoretical orientation of the study from the beginning. To avoid common mistakes posing a threat to trustworthiness, I obtained data using multiple sources, which is referred to as triangulation; I did crosschecking and verified data by listening to the audio-recorded interviews with the individual participants to authenticate, add to or subtract to what they said (Heck, 2011). I also presented data generated through verbatim quotations.

Confirmability: Refers to the extent to which research findings can be corroborated by other people and the generated data (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Seale, 1999). Confirmability is the degree of how the data and the findings agree with one another. I detailed the process of data generation, data analysis and the interpretation of data, did member checks, verified authentic data, kept notes on judgements I made regarding the data, made sure of uniformity in coding data (Nieuwenhuis, 2011), minimised researcher bias and avoided generalisation.

Ethical issues deal with concerns around harm, personal and professional sensitivity to the research participants. The subsequent section discusses ethical issues that were observed during the study.

4.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Dahlberg and McCaig (2010), entering a “field” can be a difficult task, especially when trying to secure participants for a particular research study. In terms of data generation protocols, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) specify that before data generation, there are applicable protocol to follow and ethical procedures to consider to gain permission and access to

the targeted population. Denscombe (2002) defines ethics as a system of moral principles that individuals can use to judge their actions. Ethics are philosophies about what is wrong or right from a moral standpoint (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Defined by Robson (2002) as a set of rules for conduct and a code of principles, all appropriate research ethical considerations were deliberated with all participants prior to research commencement. It is important to note that research ethics are founded on certain principles, and for this study's purposes, I shall discuss the literature from the perspective of what actually transpired.

Acceptance and access: Strydom (2002) cautions researchers that gaining initial permission to the research site does not entitle them to access all information and, as such, permission should be negotiated from time to time as the need arises. Permission from gatekeepers and informed consent from participants ensures researchers of acceptance and access to the research site, but as Cohen et al. (2011) warn researchers, gaining access to the institution is not an entitlement. Researchers have the responsibility to prove themselves worthy as researchers and as respected human beings to continue gaining access to the research site and its facilities. Prior to conducting the study, I obtained ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal and permission to conduct the proposed study from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (see Appendices A and C respectively). Secondly, I obtained permission to conduct interviews from the Chief Education Specialist (CES) and principals of schools, as gatekeepers. I visited the school principals and the CES with a letter seeking permission to involve the teachers and the CM respectively as participants in the study. I presented the contents of my research study, including the methods, to all prospective participants. I was afforded an opportunity to clarify the methodological orientation of the study from the onset. The gatekeepers convened meetings with my prospective participants, where I held preliminary meetings with them and expounded on the study. I explicated and shed light on the expectations. The prospective participants were furnished with questions that were included in the interview schedules and were also informed that their involvement in the current study would be completely on a voluntary basis. Times and places for interviewing were jointly put in place and consented upon.

Informed consent: Johnson and Christensen (2008) describe informed consent as an acceptance to be involved in a study after being educated about the study's purpose, procedures, risks, optional procedures and confidentiality. Babbie (2010) defines informed consent as a means of standard

process that the researcher follows to ensure that participants understand potential hazards, threats and risks of the research study. Informed consent means that participants choose to or not to take part in the study without any push, deception, pressure, or any forms of control or bullying. Cohen et al. (2011) posit that informed consent has for four features which are: competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension. Participants should not feel coerced by anyone to participate in a research study and should understand the implications of the research. Written informed consent was acquired from the CM, school principals and all teachers who were part in the research project. Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2011, p.80) itemise these factors that require clarification in the informed consent:

- the purpose, contents and procedures of the research
- any foreseeable risks and negative outcomes, discomfort or consequences and how they will be handled
- benefits that might derive from the research
- incentives to participate and rewards from participating
- right to voluntary non-participation, withdrawal and re-joining the project
- rights and obligations to confidentiality and non-disclosure of the research, participants and outcomes
- disclosure of any alternative procedures that may be advantageous
- opportunities for participants to ask questions about any aspect of the research
- signed contracts for participation.

In this study, all the above items were explained (refer to Appendix I). Before the participants gave informed consent, I informed them of the nature of the research. Important issues surrounding the interviews and FGDs were discussed. Since the study was a school-based research project, it was important to divulge conditions and assurances that are prearranged for school-based research projects, as guided by Cohen et al. (2011). These are displayed in the following figure, Figure 4.1

Figure 4.1. Conditions and guarantees proffered for a school-based research project

1. All participants must be given the chance to remain anonymous
2. All the data must be given strict confidentiality
3. Interviewees should have the chance to verify statements at the stage of drafting the report (respondent validation)
4. Participants should be given a copy of the final report
5. Permission for publication must be gained from the participants
6. If possible, the research report should be of benefit to the school and participants.

Adapted from Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 83).

Cohen et al. (2011) indicates that the dignity of participants in any research study is of supreme importance. Samaras (2011) highlights the importance of acknowledging the rights of participants to privacy and anonymity by the researcher. Therefore, to obtain informed consent from participants, I assured them of the following aspects in respect of being part of the study: anonymity, privacy, confidentiality, voluntary participation, that no harm would be imposed by the study (physical or psychological), that data would be used for research purposes and dissemination of the research findings, that data generated would be of value to the society, that there would be no rewards or incentives for participating, that they were free to withdraw from the study, if they so wished and that would be no negative consequences for their withdrawal. I had asked participants' consent to be audio-recorded during interviews and they gave consent. Any objections to the contents of the consent form were appropriately respected.

Privacy involves all the elements of anonymity, concealment and correct way of storing research data (Creswell, 2009; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Silverman, 2011). I ensured anonymity by

pseudonyms in the place of participants' names and the names of the institutions. Confidentiality was guaranteed by ensuring participants that not one person would have contact with individual data or the participants' names except for the researcher, and that generated data was not linked to any individual participant's name (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). I observed ethics in the field through not disclosing confidential information generated from different participants. The researcher is able to identify participants and their responses but decides not to do so publicly in respect of the concepts of privacy and anonymity for research purposes (Babbie, 2010). Assuring the participants about confidentiality and anonymity made them relax and they talked about SBTPD and leadership issues without fear that their identities would be revealed.

4.10. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I began with a discussion on the research paradigm that underpins the study and the research design that is adopted by the study. I then proceeded to detail the research sites and how participants were selected. I outlined the data generation methods and the reasons for the choices made as well as the importance of triangulation, and then described the methods for data analysis. In addition, I expounded on the issues of trustworthiness, as this is a qualitative research study. I concluded the chapter by explaining how the issue of ethics was considered. The next chapter (Chapter 5) of this report is aimed at providing a detailed presentation and discussion of the findings of this study.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter detailed the research design and methodology of the study. This chapter presents and discusses the findings. I generated the data through two methods, namely, individual face-to-face interviews with school principals and the circuit manager (CM), and focus group discussions (FGDs) with teachers. It is worth indicating that I converged data from each of these sources on every given theme. The findings discuss participants' understanding and experiences of SBTPD. The chapter unfolds through seven sections (with sub-sections). After introducing the chapter, I profile the research sites and the participants. From there, I present and discuss the following themes a) the state of SBTPD in schools, b) approaches to SBTPD, c) enabling factors for SBTPD and d) challenges impacting on SBTPD, followed by the conclusion. I sought to employ a bottom-up approach (from teachers, to school principals and to the circuit manager), in reporting the responses since teachers implement SBTPD and the school principals and the circuit manager manage the implementation thereof. I include verbatim quotes of participants' responses to enhance the trustworthiness of the findings. I present the themes as emerging from the data and in response to the following research questions:

- a) How do teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understand and experience school-based teacher professional development?
- b) Why do teachers, school principals, and the circuit manager understand and experience school-based teacher professional development the way they do?
- c) What can be learnt from the dynamics regarding the way forward in implementing school-based teacher professional development?

Given the research ethics explained in Chapter 4 (see section 4.9), I identify participants through pseudonyms. The identification of participants in this study is as follows:

Schools – School A to School D

Focus Group Discussion – Group A to Group D

School Principals – Pa, Pb, Pc and Pd

Circuit Office – CO

Circuit Manager – CM

It is important to explain that the data presented for group A, B, C or D is a collective voice of the participants. However, I have identified where there are dissenting voices.

5.2. PROFILE OF THE RESEARCH SITES AND PARTICIPANTS

This section presents in detail the research sites and participants.

5.2.1. The research sites

This section presents the demographics of the four selected schools, including the Circuit Office (CO) which comprised the study. I present these demographics in Table 5.1., followed by a concise summary of each of the research sites.

Table 5.1: Background Information of the selected schools

Name of school	Quintile	Number of teachers	Number of learners	Number of classrooms
School A	1	10	311	8
School B	1	9	336	9
School C	1	9	274	7
School D	1	11	327	9

The information in Table 5.1. is crucial for the study since it describes the state of the researched schools. All four schools were comparatively small. School A had damaged buildings and the road heading towards it was eroded. It had no library or computers and was geographically remote from the few houses that could be located in the area. School B, according to the principal, used to be a big school and the number of teachers and learners had been declining in the five previous years.

The school principal attributed this decline in numbers to learners being removed by their parents to another school because of free transport provided there. School C was an old school with noticeable vandalised buildings and other facilities in the premises. There was an obvious shortage of floor space in this school since one of the classrooms was a multi-graded class as it housed both Grades 6 and 7. School D seemed well-off and had all the essential educational resources, for example, a media centre and computer classroom. All schools belonged to Quintile 1 and therefore, were no-fee schools. Quintile 1 schools are those regarded as the poorest of all schools (Republic of South Africa, 2014). All had one class of each of the Grades R to 7 classes. The Circuit Office (CO) is situated in the nearest town where all these schools are serviced.

5.2.2. Participants

This section presents the demographic characteristics of the participants in the study. Table 5.2 provides the demographic characteristics of the individual participants, arranged in the sequence in which I interviewed them.

Table 5.2: School principals and the circuit manager

Participants	Gender	Age	Length of service in the Education Department (in years)	Highest professional qualification
Circuit Manager	M	64	43	MEd
Principal A	M	45	16	BEd Hons
Principal B	M	39	17	BEd Hons
Principal C	F	46	25	MEd
Principal D	M	50	26	BEd Hons

Key: M=Male, F=Female, BEd Hons = Bachelor of Education Honours, M.Ed.= Master of Education

Table 5.2. presents the participants in individual interviews. The table indicates that, in terms of age and professional experience, all participants were mature individuals in the teaching profession who were assumed to have experienced SBTPD and understood all programmes and activities implemented in the teaching field.

Tables 5.3 to Table 5.6 present the demographic data of the focus group participants in the study. I present the FGD participants in the order in which I interviewed them.

Table 5.3. Focus group discussion participants – School A

Age	Gender	Highest educational qualifications	Years of teaching experience
60	F	PTC, BA(Honours)	40
45	F	MEd	20
43	M	JPTD	19
42	F	BA, PGCE	18
37	F	BA, PGCE	13
34	M	BEd	8
27	F	BEd	4

Key: PTC=Primary Teachers Certificate, BA=Bachelor of Arts, JPTD=Junior Primary Teachers Diploma, PGCE=Postgraduate Certificate in Education

Table 5.4. Focus group discussion participants – School B

Age	Gender	Highest educational qualifications	Years of teaching experience
55	F	SPTD, BA	30
45	M	JPTD, BA	26
43	F	SPTD, BA	21
39	F	BPaed	15
37	F	BEd Hons	10
33	F	BEd	9
26	M	BEd	3

Key: BPaed. =Baccalaureus Educationis (Pedagogics/Education degree), SPTD=Senior Primary Teachers Diploma

Table 5.5. Focus group discussion participants – School C

Age	Gender	Highest educational qualifications	Years of teaching experience
52	F	SPTD	27
45	M	MEd	19
41	F	BA, UED	15
40	M	BEd Hons	12
38	F	BEd Hons	7
34	F	BEd	8
28	M	BEd	4

Key: UED=University Education Diploma

Table 5.6. Focus group discussion participants – School D

Age	Gender	Highest Educational Qualifications	Years of Teaching Experience
44	M	MEd	20
42	F	BA, PGCE	19
41	M	BA, UED	14
39	F	BPaed	17
39	F	BEd	4
36	M	BEd Hons	14
27	F	BEd	4

Tables 5.3. to 5.6. show the FGD participants of the four schools in the study. The focus groups were made up of a total of 28 teachers from four primary schools. Each group had seven teachers. There were 18 female teachers and 10 male teachers and their ages ranged from 26 to 60. I profiled

the FGDs according to age, gender, qualifications and years of experience for the following reasons:

Age: The teaching profession requires a certain degree of maturity which is necessary to understand all programmes and activities implemented in the teaching field. Because of their ages and of having passed through tertiary level study, teachers are assumed to have attained a particular level of maturity and their appropriateness as participants who are assumed to have been exposed to some teacher development.

Gender: I captured information on the distribution by gender of FGD participants. The heterogeneity of the groups allowed for the obtaining of data from both genders so that the perceptions of both males and females relating to the implementation of SBTPD rural primary schools could be captured.

Qualifications: Teachers' qualifications are important to augment the substance of their content knowledge, instructional content knowledge and teaching competence, as well as for the dignity of the teaching profession. Hilton, Flores and Niklasson (2013) argue that teacher qualifications are one of the factors related to school but which have a great influence on learner achievement since they reveal teacher and teaching quality. The demographic data indicates that all the school teacher participants were professionally qualified staff who had undergone teacher training in education colleges and universities. I opted to profile the level of qualification as an appropriate determining factor of the knowledge the teachers might have had about SBTPD.

Years of teaching service: The years of service of a teacher in a school has, have a direct influence on the implementation of and their participation in SBTPD. It is expected that those teachers who have a longer service would possess more knowledge, experience and skills on SBTPD than those with relatively fewer years of service. The years of experience are an appropriate determinant of how long a teacher might have been exposed to SBTPD.

5.3. THE STATE OF SBTPD IN SCHOOLS

Three subthemes emerged from the data on the state of school-based teacher professional development in schools.

5.3.1. SBTPD programmes and activities currently implemented in the schools

Under this theme, the question I sought answers for was what the SBTPD programmes that schools currently had were. In discussion with the teachers from School A, it emerged that they had several activities that were solely for their own teacher development. Here is one view they shared:

First of all, we attend workshops that are provided by the department and we also have our own internal workshops as well, we have IQMS which we do every year, we also have staff development programmes, subject meetings, we are all signed up for CPTD and some of us have gone as far as submitting activities on that website, but some of us are just signed-up members. (Group A)

Another view shared by School A on the SBTPD activities, was that the motivation and leadership provided by the School Management Team (SMT) to all teachers improved their teaching practice and work ethic. This is how they expressed the perspective:

Our SMT provides motivational talks and also outsource people to come and motivate us through talks and workshops, this helps us improve and develop in our teaching and work ethic in general. (Group A)

Teachers from School B revealed that internal workshops and staff development programmes were part of their SBTPD. They shared this view:

The department provides workshops for us for every subject, so we attend them and get developed. We also have our or own internal workshops where the SMT develops us or outsource someone to capacitate us. The SMT also does mentoring of new teachers and the principal conducts staff developments time and again as the need arises. (Group B)

School C teachers reiterated almost the same activities.

We have on-site workshops, staff development meetings, IQMS, subject meetings, phase meetings. I will also count the cluster meetings as well because sometimes we organise them ourselves and we call for outside help. (Group C)

Similarly, in School D, teachers reported that they had similar programmes which were provided by the Department of Basic Education (DBE), as well as their own internal programmes. This was their view:

The department provided us with IQMS and CPTD, however we do coaching and mentoring of novice educators, we have staff development workshops, we have phase meetings and subject meetings. We cluster with other schools in subjects like Mathematics and Languages and we also do PLCs to help and develop each other as teachers. (Group D)

The school principals in all the researched schools revealed that schools had some forms of their own internal teacher professional development (TPD) programmes, and they had DBE programmes as well. This is what *Pa* said:

First of all, we have the IQMS, we also have a staff development programme where we mentor teachers, what happens is that all the experienced educators become mentors to the novice and new educators and we normally use the SDT that I talked about earlier. (Pa)

Pb reported that their TPD activities were a response to the needs of the teachers within the school and said:

We do have, but they emanate from after we have conducted our IQMS which is done annually. In that process, that is where we discover the professional needs for educators and we draw our programme in response to those professional needs for educators, for instance, now we the Jika iMfundo intervention that come along with CAPS that assist educators to actually implement CAPS, so we have a programme that is crafted which we follow and which assists teachers in their specific problems. (Pb)

Pc indicated that their on-site teacher development (TD) workshops were suggested and facilitated by the teachers themselves. He said:

Apart from attending workshops that are organised by the DBE which are at a central venue for all teachers of a specific subject, here at school, we have on-site workshops where we give each other different topics which are suggested by the teachers themselves and those topics are allocated to all teachers to go prepare and workshop all of us. We also have subject and phase meetings, where the subject head or the DH addresses and capacitates teachers on the work that they do in class. and that helps to develop them and learn more in their practice. (Pc)

Similarly, Pd briefly shared the same sentiments and these were his words:

We have internal workshops and staff development programmes. I can also count subject meetings as well as development because it is all about work and continued learning. (Pd)

When the CM responded to the question asking what SBTPD programmes do the schools under his jurisdiction implement, he revealed that while they provided teacher development workshops for all subjects as the employer, they also expected schools to have their own development programmes. These were his words:

As the employer, we have to ensure the continuous development of teachers in all subjects, that is why at the beginning of each term teachers are workshopped, subject advisors also visit schools timeously to offer support to teachers. But we also expect schools to have their own development activities which are internally driven. We also monitor the implementation of the IQMS and the CPTD policies as part of teacher development. (CM)

The above responses seem to reveal that participants were not certain of what they considered as SBTPD programmes from within their schools. What they were convinced of was their implementation of the IQMS and attending departmental workshops. Departmental workshops were not school-based, however, workshops seemed to be the order of the day when it came to the provision and implementation of SBTPD and schools seemed to have almost the same practices with regard to the implementation of SBTD. Workshops that were provided to schools were off-site and were meant to facilitate SBTPD. Beneath the participants' response to what they had as their TPD programmes, I could sense that they relied on IQMS, CPTD and workshops as guaranteed SBTPD programmes from the DBE.

According to Ngozoa and Southwood (2015) and Mpahla and Okeke (2015), TPD programmes in South Africa (SA) comprise mainly workshops, teacher trainings and seminars where there is little actual teacher involvement. Wenger's (1999) social learning theory indicates that social learning is deemed another learning approach within the field of TPD that could result in innovation and requires teachers to participate actively when they are in the process of obtaining knowledge (see section 3.2).

5.3.2. Teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD

Before one can approach and participate in a particular programme, one needs to have a positive attitude to ensure its success. In this theme I wanted to find out about teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD. Teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD may positively or negatively affect its implementation. Group participants from school A reported what had initially caused their negative attitude towards SBTPD, but revealed that, over time, it had changed because SBTPD was continuing and developing them to be better teachers. Three main perspectives emerged from Group A, the first one being that teachers' attitudes were influenced by the timing of the workshops. One view was:

The timing of the workshops causes a negative attitude, you find that you attend a workshop in Term 2 which is capacitating you for work that was done in Term 1 and that demoralises you when you discover a lot of wrong things you did and now you do not have a chance to correct it. (Group A)

From the same focus group, another perspective put the blame on the changing curriculum and rules from the Department of Education, particularly for the experienced teachers.

The ever-changing goals and strategies from the Department demoralise us as teachers, you find that experienced teachers cannot use their experience because the department is always introducing new things and what the teachers with experience already know, has become irrelevant, but attending workshops really bails us out most of the time. (Group A)

The third perspective attributed the evident change to gaining new and expert knowledge from SBTPD. This was the view:

It's not that we are negative about it, but SBTPD is beneficial because we improve communication and presenting skills, we gain new, improved and expert knowledge, and they help us to network with teachers from other schools. (Group A)

From Group B emerged two perspectives, one of which acknowledged that, for effective SBTPD, there had to be a need from within. This was the view:

We have a negative attitude towards SBTPD because before any programme takes place, there should be a need for it, all I am saying is we do not need to be developed time and again on the same thing. For example, if the principal wants to workshop us on teacher absenteeism, he should have seen it happening in the school, otherwise the attitude towards that developmental activity will be negative, we will be surprised because we are always present at school. (Group B)

Another perspective from the group was that SBTPD is only effective when it is intrinsically motivated, but when it is imposed by school leadership on the teachers, it is when they develop a negative attitude. This was their stance:

What causes our negative attitude is the department itself, it is doing what I can call a corrective development, they wait for some wrongdoing from the teachers before they implement a developmental programme, for example, on Friday we have a workshop on leave measures, but it is only because it has been discovered that there is a gap or a challenge in that area. (Group B)

From school C, participants acknowledged that the DBE dealt with the new changes through workshops and it had yielded positive results for both the teachers and the DBE. They shared this opinion:

Teachers are very keen to be developed. That is why we attend workshops and cluster meetings. I think this is informed by the many changes that the Department keeps on introducing, especially with the curriculum, so, we want to keep up with those changes and be on board with what is taking place. (Group C)

From School D, teachers shared a similar sentiment but revealed that it was because the programmes from the DBE were annual programmes and they represented continuity for the SBTPD. Their view was:

We have been implementing the IQMS policy annually and it has been good in that it is a continuous programme throughout the year. Well, when it was introduced, we did not like it but we have since changed our attitudes towards it because we can see the positive results it produces and also that we are the ones who drive it within the school. (Group D)

School principals revealed that they had experienced an improvement in the attitudes of their teachers towards SBTPD. *Pa* enthused about teachers suddenly becoming positive to participate in SBTPD programmes. This was his response:

Teachers are becoming keen for developmental purposes to an extent that they are becoming religious and interested in attending workshops and coming back to implement this knowledge and skills that they acquire from those workshops. They are quite positive about it. (Pa)

Pb acknowledged that, initially, teachers' attitudes toward SBTPD were not entirely positive but through motivation and teachers wanting to learn, they had since transformed to become better teachers. He said:

In the beginning teachers used to complain and I sat them down... fortunately, after this their attitude changed and became positive, they can see that whatever we teach, it must produce a good outcome for the learner at the end of the day. After that explanation, everybody embraces this change of approach and improved in their teaching practice. now, whenever there are workshops, they all want to go even if it calls for one teacher per subject because they want to be empowered. (Pc)

Pc shared an almost similar response as *Pb*. She responded that this positive change from the teachers was a recent phenomenon. She said:

...of late, teachers' attitudes have changed from negative to positive. They like and they want to attend workshops these days. They even ask for workshops and cluster meetings so

that they can be developed further in their subjects. But I want to state that this change in the teachers is recent. (Pc)

Pd indicated that teachers' attitudes had changed owing to the tracking of the curriculum and the stringent inspection of quarterly results of learners. He said:

Since the Department began tracking the curriculum coverage for the teachers and this analysis of learners' results per school each quarter, I have noticed a gradual shift in thinking and a sudden change in action of my teachers towards participating in TPD whether onsite or offsite, and it has helped our school perform much better. (Pd)

When I asked about the CM's observations on teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD, it emerged that the DBE had a role to play in positively influencing teachers' attitudes for effective implementation of SBTPD. While the DBE needed to change teachers' attitudes, the teachers themselves had to cultivate a need for their own development. This was his response:

My response to that is, as the employer we have to begin the process of changing teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD, my own assessment is that teachers at this stage are still learning teaching and learning ropes; they are using techniques and activities which would constitute for me survival strategies as a teacher, there is a real need for TPD at school level. My honest response is, in our engagement we need to infuse the need for this, whilst we as a department are providing this PD, the teacher himself must begin to see the need for this to be able to be the success that she wants to be in the class, so, it is a two-way process. (CM)

For these teachers, the changing and improving of attitudes was the first step towards the effective implementation of SBTPD. This statement confirms the assertion by the Review Committee on Curriculum 2005 (2000) in Chapter 2 (see 2.6.5.), that having positive attitude by the teachers towards SBTPD is necessary for advanced and continuing professional development. Kelania and Bowers (2012) in Chapter 2 (see 2.6.5.), caution that, though a change of attitude is crucial, motivation is instrumental to effect change in attitude.

Drawing from one of the assumptions in Speck's adult learning theory, that adult learning has ego involved, it may be argued here that ego and attitude are similar (see section 3.3). Teacher professional development (TPD) activities must be structured such that fear is reduced and support

is provided from both peers and managers. The improving of teachers' attitudes towards TPD, as revealed by participants in this study, was likely to impact positively on the improvement of learner outcomes as well as the implementation of SBTPD in SA schools. As participants responded on their attitudes, I could sense that they were guarded about what they said. I could see some serious issues behind their words. Their responses seemed to hide their real attitudes toward SBTPD. Some teachers revealed that though their attitudes toward SBTPD were negative, they acknowledged that they did participate in SBTPD programmes. Drawing from the participants' age, qualifications and years of experience, one assumes that they had been exposed to SBTPD in one way or form and were then protecting their dignity by hiding their real attitudes towards SBTPD. The findings revealed that teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD were slowly changing towards accepting teacher development aimed at developing them. Suffice to indicate that much still needed to be done to convince teachers of the importance of SBTPD. In Chapter 2 (see section 2.6.5), Guskey's (1989) theory of teacher change indicated that changes in teacher attitudes are stimulated by changes in teacher behaviour. While teachers had to feel the need for their own PD, school principals and the circuit management, as leaders, needed to accept their responsibility to act as motivators to ascertain that teachers changed and engaged in SBTPD with a positive attitude to yield the desired results.

5.3.3. Perspectives about the role of SBTPD in teacher professionalism

Teacher professionalism is one aspect that displays how developed the teacher is. De Clercq (2013) indicates that professionalism refers to the profession's internal excellence, influence, values and self-governing processes. When I asked participants how they thought SBTPD enhanced their professionalism, they revealed that teacher professionalism was part of TPD and the quality of the programmes offered improved their practice as teachers. A perspective from school A revealed that teacher professionalism meant using the prescribed methods for teaching to enhance learner outcomes. This was their overall view:

Teacher professionalism includes a number of factors which consist of punctuality at school, ethical conduct and the ability to translate what we teach into favourable and desired outcomes for the learners, which means we teach the prescribed content using the

correct methodology... this shows how developed a teacher is and one cannot improve on these unless they attend workshops and engage in TPD programmes. (Group A)

It emerged from school B that, for them, the lack of teacher professionalism was one of the indicators of the need for TPD. This was how they put it:

As teachers we are supposed to be professional at all times, whether in school or outside of school. but most importantly at school because that is where we work. When there is a lack of professionalism from teachers, is when that the School Management Team (SMT) must arrange for teacher development workshops or outsource someone from the outside to bring order into the school. (Group B)

From Group C, one perspective was that SBTPD went hand in hand with dedication and loyalty to the teaching profession and professional competence:

One of the measures of professionally developed teacher is commitment and competence. A teacher needs to display commitment by involving themselves in all teacher development activities. There are teacher development workshops that take place on weekends and during holidays and we have to attend them because they are organised to help develop us. Those are designed to test our commitment to the teaching profession. (Group C)

Another perspective from the same group revealed that SBTPD assisted in improving their different skills needed in teaching practice which counted as teacher professionalism:

When we have attended those teacher development workshops, we then need to display competence through using the relevant methods, the right resources and the correct and prescribed techniques for assessment so that our learners improve their results, and that counts for teacher professionalism. (Group C)

In school D, participants revealed that SBTPD improved teacher autonomy and their ability to work both as a team and independently and that counted as teacher professionalism. This is the view they shared:

SBTPD allows the teacher to display their teacher professionalism through their ability to exercise responsibility, a professional work ethic, ability to work independently without being constantly followed by the SMT and using the correct pedagogical tools and methods

to impart knowledge and skills to learners... and also allow the opportunity to be continuously developed. (Group D)

School principals shared similar sentiments as they responded to the question on how they thought SBTPD enhanced their professionalism. *Pa* revealed that the concept of teacher professionalism was an all-embracing concept that summed up a well-developed teacher:

For me SBTPD develops a teacher on integrity, which includes appearance, behaviour, commitment to work, respect for one's profession as a teacher, ability to relate well with the whole school community and teaching the right content using the correct methods, that's teacher professionalism. (Pa)

Pb revealed that SBTPD trained teachers on skills and knowledge needed for teaching and their professionalism was displayed as they applied these. He said:

To me teacher professionalism talks to the skills, knowledge and maybe the professional appearance may be incorporated for TPD...it means that one must have knowledge and skills that must be transferred to another person. Do they have the skill, knowledge and credentials to do the teaching job? Can they apply these correctly? Then we can say SBTPD has succeeded to improve professionalism. (Pc)

Pc emphasised acceptable behaviour from teachers as an indicator of teacher professionalism. He said:

I believe SBTPD has a role to improve teacher practice, delivery of subject content using the relevant methodology for that subject and help teachers develop acceptable behaviour patterns in front of the school community, which includes learners, teachers, parents and other stakeholders. (Pc)

From *Pd*, it emerged that the success of SBTPD could be measured by teachers' experience, how they responded to challenges in their practice and being not afraid to seek help. He said:

How the teacher imparts knowledge and skills to learners using the correct and relevant methodology and how they have the knowledge of the subject content that they teach. All those things combined translating into improved learner outcomes... the teacher seeking

help if they have challenges of any sort within their subjects. If the teacher is able to do all that then SBTPD has succeeded. (Pd)

From the CM, it emerged that if SBTPD was thoroughly practised, it would improve teacher confidence and professionalism. He said:

Both concepts are important and they contribute to the success of learners in the schooling system. Effective SBTPD results in confident teachers both from the knowledge and presentation of subject content and impacts on teaching and learning... the decline in teacher professionalism is two-fold. One, we have failed to utilise the law and education policy and two, we have become accepting of mediocre results, we need to stop and ask if that is not going to affect teaching and learning in the long run. (CM)

The findings seem to reveal that skills, knowledge, team work and working independently were some of the skills that made a professional teacher and could be developed through effective implementation of SBTPD. In the researched schools, in order to display their professionalism, teachers seemed to want to be constantly followed by the school management team (SMT) to confirm their work ethic. This finding is in agreement with the findings in the literature, for example, in the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) policy document, a professional teacher is required to be a leader and expert in their teaching practice (see section 2.6.2). SBTPD and teacher professionalism are inter-linked concepts where one is a result of the other. Drawing from the theoretical framework of this study, for example, Knowles' (1984) andragogy theory states that the teacher (adult learner) needs to master the art of teaching and learn new skills and perspectives of their practice (see section 3.4.1), and must be involved in the actual teaching, observation, evaluation and monitoring tasks that reflect and enhance learning and development practices.

5.4. APPROACHES TO SBTPD THE SCHOOLS USED

This section presents the approaches that were found to be used by the schools in implementing SBTPD. Three subthemes emerged from the data on how and why these approaches were used. In the succeeding sections I discuss each subtheme as it emerged from the data.

5.4.1. Attending workshops

Responding to what methods of SBTPD schools used, how they were used and why they were used to implement SBTPD, teachers alluded to workshops as the most common method employed by the DBE for their TPD. These were not on-site, the method generally utilised by the DBE to facilitate and expedite SBTPD. Attending workshops for teachers was both challenging for some and accommodating for some teachers. In discussion with teachers from School A, they said that they delivered better lessons after attending TD workshops. They shared this view:

Most of the workshops we attend are provided by DBE and facilitated by subject advisors, are for our subjects and teacher development, they help us in terms of difficult concepts that we come across in schools, they also help by grouping us into clusters. These workshops help especially if they are content-based because when we come back to school, we are confident and deliver better and exciting lessons to our learners. (Group A)

Another view from school A was that, though workshops were content-based, they did not help teachers solve school and classroom-based problems. This was the perspective:

Attending workshops is well and good, but they need to develop us on strategies of how to deal with learners who do not do homework and classwork, learners who do not submit assessment task and who do not write assessments. Workshops are good but they are not the only solution to improve learner performance, we have to be developed on these issues as well. (Group A)

In school B, the teachers revealed that the subject workshops were not timed appropriately. This was their view:

These workshops only help if one has to implement what one has been taught. The problem is that we are called to a content workshop to treat a topic which we have taught already

and now you have to go back and teach it. If they can time these workshops according to the teaching plan that they give us at the beginning of the year. (Group B)

Though they shared a similar view with group B, group C further revealed that workshops somehow enhanced their confidence as teachers. This was their opinion:

The workshops do help us as teachers to teach better in terms of using improved methods and content, they also boost our confidence, for example, some of us teach subjects which were not our majors at university, but because of attending these workshops we have become so confident even with assessments and helping learners who are struggling and even helping each other. Also, being grouped with teachers from others schools helps. (Group C)

In school D, teachers revealed that workshops were beneficial, both for novice teachers who were not familiar with the dynamics of the subjects and for experienced teachers who were new in their subjects. This is what they said:

We attend workshops and they help in enhancing our teaching skills but they also help especially to new teachers who are new in the field as well as teachers who have changed subjects, because sometimes we change subjects in the beginning of the year and then to learn methods for teaching those subjects, so workshops really come in handy, even those that we organise here at school, they are very helpful. (Group D)

Another perspective from Group D was that workshops needed to be held in schools. This is what they shared:

We have had so many workshops on the very same content that we teach every year, now we want them to workshop us here at school so that they can see whether what they talk about is doable or not. (Group D)

In discussion with the school principals, they felt that if teachers implemented what they learnt in workshops, learner performance would improve. *Pa* revealed that when teachers implemented correctly what they had been taught in the workshops, there would be considerable improvement in their teaching practice. He said:

Teachers attend workshops and when the teacher has attended a workshop, he or she comes back and informs all other teachers what was said in the workshop in the form of giving feedback and as SMT, we follow that teacher to check whether he/she is improving from what transpired at the workshops. According to me, some of the educators are correctly implementing what they are taught in the workshops, others just don't. If they did, we would notice by the results. (Pa)

Pb acknowledged that workshops help but insisted they would work better if they were on-site. He said:

There is a degree of some improvement through the DBE workshops. But I think we could have made much more great improvement if those workshops were here in the school so subject advisors could help us tackle problems head on. (Pb)

Pc revealed that workshops worked if monitored. This is what he said:

Attending workshops is good as long teachers implement what they were taught in the workshops. When teachers come back from workshops, they come back invigorated wanting to change and implement, so, ours as SMT is to monitor and assist that it happens. (Pc)

Pd said that workshops helped teachers to grow, improve and boost their confidence in the subjects they teach. He said:

Attending workshops helps because it allows the attendee an opportunity for growth in their subject. It gives one a chance to ask questions about their subject especially where they are having problems, because workshops are provided by subject advisors who are specialists in their fields. (Pd)

The CM revealed that departmental workshops were good but, if the government employed a sizeable number of subject advisors, there would be no need to take teachers out of school. He said:

My view is that there should be more subject specialists appointed to visit schools and offer on-site support. Our TPD activities that we engage in by calling teachers out, should just happen maybe once a quarter, but the regularity with which this is happening is negatively

impacting on the delivery of teaching and learning and is also impacting on the functionality of schools. (CM)

The findings suggest that teachers enjoyed attending off-site workshops because they wanted time-out from their schools and thought they would do better if the workshops were provided by subject advisors in their schools, so that they would speak to the specific needs and problems of their schools. The data also reveals that most workshops that teachers attended were content-based workshops and there was a need for methodology workshops. When teachers engage in SBTPD by means of workshops, they are supposed to learn and also compare that with their teaching through observing others as they collaborate as colleagues (see Section 2.5.3.1). Consistent with the literature findings (see section 2.2), data reveals that workshops provided more content training than methodology, since it is widely believed that many SA teachers lacked content. Although these off-site TPD workshops resulted in no change to their traditional classroom practices and did not provide solutions to other problems that teachers faced in schools, they still went out and attended workshops.

5.4.2. The cascade model

Responding to how teachers conducted the workshops as part of SBTPD, it became clear that the cascade model had become the regularly used model for SBTPD. Participants revealed that when a teacher had attended a workshop, they came back to school and cascaded the information to other staff members. This was the view of group A about the cascade model:

Usually what happens is that when one of us has attended a workshop, they report to all of us in the staff meeting about what was said in the workshop. They cascade that information so we would all be on the same page. (Group A)

Group B revealed that after attending workshops, they gave feedback to other staff members in the school. They shared this opinion:

After attending a workshop, the first stop is to report to our Departmental Head and give him all the material that was distributed in the workshop, then he will arrange a subject

meeting where the attendee will cascade to all the subject teachers so that everyone knows what was said in the workshop, then it is time for implementation. (Group B)

Group B also revealed that cascading of workshop information was not the same as attending the workshop itself. This is the view they shared:

When some teachers cascade information from a workshop they attended, it is not the same as when it was given by subject advisors or facilitators of the workshop. They tend to forget some information or they just skip it on purpose, but it is not the same, that is why it is better if subject advisors could just workshop teachers in their schools. (Group B)

In school C, they added that, if only one teacher had been invited to a particular workshop, all teachers for that particular subject would attend as a group because they wanted direct information from the subject advisors themselves:

We attend workshops as a group of teachers who teach the same subjects even though we may be in different grades, we started last year to attend as a group so that we all receive the same first-hand information from the subject advisors as it is delivered in the workshop, and it works for us because we are a small school. (Group C)

In school D, they said that they attended workshops which had been organised by the DBE and gave feedback to all who did not attend. This was their view:

After someone has attended a particular workshop, they cascade information to those who did not attend and the next stage is the implementation stage. (Group D)

Pa revealed that after the feedback, their responsibility was to monitor if the teacher implemented what they have been taught at the workshop. He said:

Based on what I have observed when the teacher has attended a workshop, he or she comes back and cascade to all other teachers what was said in the workshop and, as SMT, we follow that teacher to check whether he/she is improving from what transpired at the workshops. (Pa)

From *Pb*, it emerged that there would be fear of distortion and misrepresentation of information as it was being cascaded. He said:

I set a platform that the teacher will have to give feedback and conduct a workshop to all the teachers concerned and tell them what transpired in the workshop. Depending on what is cascaded by the attending educator, I sometimes confirm with the subject advisors. Then strictly monitor the implementation. (Pb)

From Pc, it emerged that the cascading made SBTPD easier for all in the school. He said:

After one has attended the workshop one has got to cascade to the relevant people depending on the type of workshop that was attended. After the relevant people have been given feedback and now are on par with what transpired in the workshop, it is time to implement. Well, it makes things easier for all teachers to be on par with what was said at the workshop. (Pc)

The same process of the cascade model was used in school D and this was how Pd put it:

But internally as well, all teachers are supposed to attend workshops as per departmental circular, all teachers who have attended must come back and give feedback to the whole staff after attending the workshop. Although there is always the danger of distortion of information, but we are used to this method and it is working for us. (Pd)

However, the CM had this to say about how teachers were trained as part of TPD. He said:

For now, the programme is outlined in the form of workshops and seminars where the teachers are called to a central venue and then will be expected to disseminate or cascade the information to all relevant parties in the school. So, that's the basic form where principals, DPs, DHs and teachers are called to workshops and seminars. Though this method is outdated, for now as the system is we use it. (CM)

The findings reveal that the cascade model of TPD was the most commonly used model of TPD in schools. The cascade approach was intended to enhance SBTPD since it involved specific teachers going out of class and attending trainings and workshops and then assembling meetings at their schools with the aim of conducting the same workshops to their colleagues (Kennedy, 2014). The findings reveal that some teachers favoured this approach for cost-effectiveness, as it reached a huge number of teachers within a brief space of time, which would circumvent the use of funds for travelling. Not all participants were in favour of the cascade model in SBTPD. The

use of this model posed a danger of distortion, dilution and misinterpretation of information, rendering the entire SBTPD programme ineffective (see section 2.4.4). There was also the danger of loss of information as it was being cascaded from one level to another. Most teachers had been exposed to this model of TPD so much such that they were comfortable with its dynamics.

Drawing from Speck's (1996) adult learning theory, for adults to learn effectively, they have to be part of the conception, preparation as well as implementation of their own TPD activities and be in small groups where they can share, collaborate and enhance their learning organisation (see section 3.3), which is not the case with the cascade model. In an attempt to reach a large number of teachers, part of the cascade model is holding workshops in settings which are different from the school or classroom environment. This, in due course defeats the purposes of SBTPD as schools are different from the workshop venues. The model does not differentiate teachers according to experience and hence its failure to meet the specific requirements for teachers since it takes teachers away from their familiar territory which is the classroom. Thus, the effectiveness of this method for the success of SBTPD remains questionable. Until now, it seems to be the mostly used model for SBTPD in schools.

5.4.3. Coaching and mentoring

Though these are two distinct concepts as defined in Chapter 2 (see section 2.4.6), they are management approaches that are meant for the development of staff for productive functioning. While coaching is based on skills, mentoring on the other hand creates a professional relationship between colleagues, but both concepts put their emphasis on the person rather than the subject, develop instead of enforce, reflect rather than direct and are a process rather than an event. Both coaching and mentoring focus on skills, building and maintain relationships as well as employees' performance, so that they reach their full potential (Serrat, 2017). These two approaches can be used effectively in the implementation of SBTPD. When I asked how they used coaching and mentoring for SBTPD, participants in School A revealed that the SMT members, the DH in particular, mentored new teachers through helping them acclimatise to the new subjects and school culture. This was their perspective:

We do use mentoring, specifically. Usually it is the DH who mentors new and novice teachers who have just entered the system through showing them how we do things at school. And some of the experienced teachers who need guidance here and there. It really helps with improving in our teaching. (Group A)

Participants from school B revealed that the DH appointed experienced teachers to assist new teachers and student teachers into the school system:

When there are student teachers that are here for teaching practice and observation, the DH appoints one of us to mentor that student teacher for the period that he/she will be in the school until he or she gets to grips with the work that we do, so, it really helps the student teacher to improve and, most importantly, no time is lost for the learners. (Group B)

There were assenting voices on coaching and mentoring as a development approach from group participants in school C. The participants felt that coaching and mentoring helped them develop in the planning of lessons and assessments and they felt that it was helpful in their PD. This was the view they shared:

I would like to talk about coaching and say that when we submit our files for Lesson Plans and moderation of assessments, we get constructive feedback from our seniors, feedback that helps us to improve the way we plan and set our assessments. So, I would refer to that as coaching because we are coached on how to do better so that we would improve and that is part of our development. (Group C)

Another perspective indicated that, though coaching and mentoring were normal duties to be performed by SMT members, it helped them in their TPD. This was the view:

I believe that coaching and mentoring are good but they are supposed to be normal duties especially for SMT members. They are supposed to coach and mentor all teachers under them, for regular development. So, for me it is normal duty in a day's work. (Group C)

Another perspective from the same group revealed that they used coaching to develop every area of their teaching practice in the school:

The DH coaches us about by guiding us in specific tasks and our DH is always there for us every step as we do different tasks in this teaching job, showing us how certain things are done. So, I think it really works for our development because it develops us in every area of our practice. (Group C)

In school D, group participants indicated that coaching and mentoring was a good tool for TD. They said:

Yes, we do use coaching and mentoring especially with new teachers and student teachers too, it helps them catch up to what we do here and how we do it. You also find that, if you were asked to mentor someone, you also learn from that experience and it helps both the mentor and the mentee. (Group D)

School principals revealed that they used coaching and mentoring as approaches to SBTPD. Pa revealed that they used these approaches mainly for novice teachers. He said:

We have a mentoring programme in our school, whereby all experienced and knowledgeable educators, mentor the novice teachers, we do this continuously, it is not the novice teachers only but, even those that are struggling because, as you know the curriculum changes now and then, so we mentor them in that regard. (Pa)

Pb revealed that coaching and mentoring could not be separated from induction, helping both the mentor and the mentee. He said:

Usually we have induction where anyone who comes into the institution have to be inducted according to their line of work and the operational systems of how things are done and the procedures of how we do things here. The mentoring depends on the position of the person, for example, if it is an educator, we are going to DH of that phase... in mentoring an educator in a specific subject, we make another arrangement like using an experienced teacher, but the principal has to be aware of such. I would say mentoring helps both mentor and mentee and improves teacher practice in this school. (Pb)

Pc indicated that everyone in the school needed to play a role in coaching, mentoring and induction of novice teachers, student teachers as well as experienced teachers. She said:

Some teachers are not new in the system but they are new in this school and they have to be mentored and inducted into the culture of our school, because school cultures are different. Novice teachers depend on the DHs for induction, coaching and mentoring. But we also use some of our experienced teachers to mentor student teachers, those who are still at university but come to our school for teaching practice. I have observed that coaching and mentoring, when done well, really improves teacher practice. (Pc)

Pd revealed that both the mentor and the person being mentored learnt from the coaching and mentoring approaches:

Most of the time it is the duty of the DH to mentor novice teachers and to assist teachers who are new in the school to acclimatise. So, the DH does the coaching and mentoring, helping the teacher to adapt to the new environment, and also assisting with the subjects and the material and everything pertaining to the work. I find that it helps these teachers because they adapt easily and gel well with the learners which makes teaching and learning effective, with coaching and mentoring, both the mentee and the mentor benefit from the relationship because they both learn something from that which is beneficial to their teaching practice. (Pd)

The CM revealed that coaching and mentoring could be used by school managers to avoid challenges and improve working relations in schools. He said:

School principals are supposed to coach and mentor their deputy principals and so on, but as a CM my duty is to induct newly appointed principals through an extensive induction programme, as well as to mentor principals who are already practising because there are new challenges every day in principalship. So, I would say coaching and mentoring really assists in improving the teaching skills and enhancing a collegial relationship between colleagues, so that we do not have to deal with unnecessary welfare cases from schools. (CM)

The data indicates that coaching and mentoring seemed to be largely limited to novice teachers and student teachers. Data also reveals that teachers looked forward to the coaching and mentoring sessions as they proved productive and encouraged collaboration. Finding time for coaching and mentoring and defining the roles of mentees and SMTs were some of the challenges encountered

by teachers during the processes. The data generated is consistent with the literature that the coaching/mentoring model of TPD enables colleagues to improve on their skills, performance and building professional relationships (see section 2.4.6). Wenger's (1999) social learning theory emphasises that there must be culture of collaborative learning, connectivity among colleagues and the concept of 'learning in action' (see section 3.2), which is espoused through coaching and mentoring. One of the key processes of learning-centred leadership is modelling, where the leader has to lead through example (see section 3.5.1.2.1). The data reveals that coaching and mentoring are line function approaches where the CM mentors the school principal, who mentors their next-in-command, and so on. Therefore, the data conforms to the literature and the theoretical framework of this study.

5.5. ENABLING FACTORS TOWARDS SBTPD

Four subthemes emerged on the enabling factors towards SBTPD.

5.5.1. Incentivising for SBTPD

Responding to whether it would help to give incentives for implementing SBTPD, group A, provided dissenting voices on this subtheme. This is one perspective from the group:

Yes, it feels good to be rewarded for work that you have done. Right now, what the Department is giving us is not enough, maybe if they increased the money, they would see a great change in the attitudes of the teachers towards teacher development, the money would serve as a great motivation for us. (Group A)

However, the participants in this group were not all in agreement regarding the manner of incentivising SBTPD. One other view was that participation in TPD was about learning new skills and not about money. This was the view:

I don't think so. It is a nice gesture from the department to get that 1% for IQMS, but it should not be the sole motivating factor to involve ourselves in teacher development. Teacher development needs one to be ready to be developed because they see a need for that. For example, when you need skills on how to teach fractions to your learners because you can see they are not doing well in fractions, you as a teacher you need to be developed

so that you improve your skill and improve learners' performance. The money has nothing to do with it. (Group A)

Another perspective was that giving incentives would be a good thing to compensate for the pain of having to go through the IQMS process.

For IQMS purposes, the incentive is a good thing because IQMS is not nice. We only do it because the Department wants it, they want us to submit those documents, but all in all, it is not nice to be observed as you teach and then you are scored, we only do it for compliance and it will serve them good if they increased the incentive because it will give us motivation to continue. (Group A)

From school B, group participants indicated that incentives and compensation for work beyond teaching and learning would be necessary. This is one view:

Incentives would serve a great deal. The work that we do is too much and there is too little time. For other teacher development activities that we plan on our own, there need not be any rewards but, for IQMS and CPTD there should be incentives... because they are an added responsibility, they take up most of our teaching time and they are planned and designed by the employer, so, it would be fair to get paid a little more for it. (Group B)

Another view was that incentives would provide motivation for teachers to participate in SBTPD.

Anything that is beyond teaching and learning should be compensated. Being involved in IQMS and CPTD requires a whole new planning, programme and time set aside, therefore a little more incentive would do justice to the whole programme of teacher development and will encourage all those who are not willing to participate to do so without any hesitation. (Group B)

In school C, group participants indicated that incentives for SBTPD would serve as a reward and motivation. This was their view:

Incentivising teacher development helps to improve a healthy participation in the programmes and increases our motivation to involve ourselves in these programmes, whether they are organised by us internally or they are departmental, the 1% that we receive is just not enough and we need more. When you go through any teacher

development activity, you take your time and go out of your way to prepare and for that we have to be rewarded as teachers because there is too much work that we do already and so little time. (Group C)

In school D, there were dissenting views on the issue of incentivising SBTPD. One perspective was that if the need for development was intrinsic, there would be no need for incentivising SBTPD:

When we are being developed, it is because we have identified areas of development within ourselves that we need help with, so if you are the one who needs help, I mean, why should you be paid for that? (Group D)

Another perspective was that even if the need was intrinsic, teachers would need incentives for SBTPD because it was time consuming and required a great deal of preparation. This was the view.

Before there is any teacher development activity there is a lot of preparation that comes with it, meetings after meetings, and there is teaching time that is wasted, therefore incentives would serve to motivate and encourage teachers as they engage in all teacher development activities whether departmental or internal, we need incentives, teacher development is an extra activity. (Group D)

Another perspective from group D indicated that incentives for SBTPD were a necessity owing to the work involved in TD. This was the view:

There is so much work that we have to complete for any teacher development activity, before any teaching and learning can take place, therefore incentives are a must from our employer because what we are getting is just not enough, the money must be equal to the task, some teachers teach on weekends and holidays, others conduct extra classes but they do not get paid, I mean, there is a lot that we still have to fight for in terms of incentives from the employer. (Group D)

In conversation with the school principals, it emerged that not all of them supported the incentivising of SBTPD. *Pa* revealed that even in the school, they incentivised and awarded teachers to motivate them. This is what he said:

I would say yes. As a school we have a policy which is called an Awards Policy which talks to awarding teachers who have excelled in the year, when teachers have done well, we give them certificates as well as trophies for their performance but, not to say that it actually helps but, it improves the working morale of the educator, and educators enjoy being incentivised because it shows them that the SMT is aware of their efforts as educators (Pa)

Pb preferred recognition than incentivising. He said:

Recognising the efforts that people make is much better, when teachers display professionalism or improve or excel in their different aspects, or just any activity that contributes to the functionality of the school, they must be recognised. Recognition can come in the form of the certificate at the end of the year, we also do that as a school where we award teachers for their efforts in different aspects. (Pb)

Pc revealed that incentives motivated teachers. She said:

I would say yes. Yes, in the sense that if you reward a person for a job well done, they get motivated somehow to do even better, so, yes, maybe if the department can give teachers who have performed better in their subject an incentive in the form of money, they would put more effort in their teaching and in a sense improve learner performance. (Pc)

Pd echoed a similar view to *Pc*. He reiterated that the work done by teachers in schools did not equal the current incentive the employer rewarded to teachers:

I would say yes. If the department would maybe increase the monetary value attached to the IQMS that we do every year as part of our development, maybe they will see more rewarding results, because teachers do want and need money and what they are getting is not enough for the work that is currently done in schools. (Pd)

The CM argued that the incentive that the DBE gave to teachers for IQMS was not adequate and should be increased on an incremental basis. He said:

Yes, it does help. In fact, the incentive is inadequate so I am of the view that giving incentives to teachers rather than rewards can help improve TPD by participating in activities, however, what they are getting is inadequate, it is insufficient. I mean that the allocation should be increased, I would say 5% on an incremental basis, if you couple that

with a pay progression, it would make a serving educator look forward to his or her occupation. (CM)

The data establishes that not all participants were for monetary incentivising of SBTPD. Some preferred other forms of recognition as they believed that monetary incentive had a value on its own and therefore, takes away the value of SBTPD. The data also reveals that teachers wanted to be compensated for having to go through the rigorous process of IQMS. That would inculcate some motivation on them to go through the process again. One of the assumptions of the theory of andragogy is the intrinsic motivation of an adult learner brought about by the fulfilment of basic professional needs, which include monetary fulfilment and career advancement (see section 3.4.1). In Chapter 2, the lack of a funding policy for SBTPD was identified as impacting negatively on its implementation (see section 2.6.7). It is in the funding policy that monies set aside for SBTPD would be included.

5.5.2. Funding for SBTPD

Responding to whether it would assist that all SBTPD programmes were funded by the DBE, most participants were of the view that the availability of funds would enable them to effectively implement all programmes that relate to TPD. From the research sites I visited, it emerged that the DBE provided funds that were budgeted for by schools for them to use in the implementation of SBTPD and those funds were found to be mostly used when teachers attended workshops. These workshops were off-site workshops that were provided by the DBE to facilitate and expedite SBTPD. In conversation with participants from school A, they revealed that the school provided funding to enable them to attend off-site workshops. This was their view on funding of SBTPD:

When we go to workshops, we get money from the school set aside for teacher development workshops, that money is used for transport for teachers who attend workshops. Even if there is no money, we still go using our own money and get reimbursed when money is available in schools. (Group A)

In school B it emerged that the funds set aside by the school for SBTPD got finished before the end of the year:

We are funded by the school for all programmes of SBTPD that we have which include PLC meetings, our staff development workshops and workshops that we attend in central venues with other educators. That is the reason those funds get finished before the end of the year, then when there is a need we fund it ourselves but we always get reimbursed.

(Group B)

Participants from school C revealed that being funded by the school made it easy for them to implement all SBTPD programmes:

The principal gives us money for workshops, we never attend workshops using our own funds. You cannot say you did not attend a workshop because you hand no money, the school provides for that always, it makes it easier for us to attend workshops in that way.

(Group C)

In school D, group participants echoed similar views with other groups in that the school provided funding for SBTPD and thus enabled the implementation of SBTPD. This was their view:

We are given money to attend workshops, conduct our own staff development workshops, for example, if we want to invite someone from the outside, that would incur expenses, the school provides us with the funds, if it happened that you used your own money, you get reimbursed, so there is no problem with that. (Group D)

The school principals revealed that they budgeted for TD SBTPD. From school A, it emerged from Pa that there was a finance policy that covered funds for SBTPD. He said:

Our finance policy for the whole school, as well as this one for mentoring educators, we spoke with the SGB to actually say that we need to fund the educators who are going for workshops and there is a policy for that, we keep the minutes, receipts and all documents. We budget for workshops and trainings so that we have funds set aside for such. So, yes, it assists. (Pa)

Pb revealed that school funds set aside for SBTPD sometimes ran out and teachers used their monies but would be compensated when funds were available. He said:

We always have a budget set aside for the SBTPD as sometimes teachers attend workshops off-site. The only problem is when the funds run out before the year ends then they have to

take out from their pockets, but we try very hard to avoid that and if it happens, we reimburse them when the school funds are available. (Pb)

From school C, similar views emerged that SBTPD was already budgeted for by the school. This is what *Pc* said:

Our finance policy, that covers transport fees for teachers to attend away workshops that are often organised at a central venue. So, that is how we fund TPD programmes, even for cluster meetings with other schools, we cater for that in the school budget. Unless it becomes depleted during the year, then teachers use their own money and are reimbursed when school allocation funds are available. So, I would say it would be of help if funds never ran out before the following financial year. (Pc)

In school D, it emerged that similar views to that of other schools were shared. SBTPD was funded through the school allocation. *Pd* said:

We do have a financial policy that includes money that teachers need for attending workshops. When teachers have to attend workshops and cluster meetings that are DBE driven, we fund their transport cost with the school allocation. The problem is that the amount is just never enough, so it would help to have more funds solely allocated for SBTPD. But if it happens that those funds get depleted during the course of the year, then teachers fund their own trips for TPD and we reimburse them. (Pd)

However, in conversation with the CM, it emerged that, for any type of SBTPD programme, schools exercised monopoly over the funds entrusted to them by the DBE. This is what he said:

From where I am sitting as a circuit manager, I do not have any funds for any school, schools manage their own funds. They are supposed to budget for teacher development programmes on their own with their finance committees. I do not have control over that, mine is to monitor the appropriate utilisation of the school allocation. However, it would

assist greatly to have all SBTPD programmes funded solely by the Department which should be happening in our schools. (CM)

In Chapter 2 (see section 2.6.7), I discussed how schools funded their TPD programmes, how the type of funding they used impacted on the effectiveness of SBTPD, and how the absence of a finance policy for SBTPD impacted on its implementation. The data generated reveals that schools did have finance policies that provide for the funding of SBTPD programmes enabling teachers to attend those off-site workshops as provided by the DBE. However, the data also revealed that the funding was inadequate, since the funds set aside for SBTPD activities got depleted before the end of the year which could be due to the amounts allocated for TD programmes as well as the remoteness of the schools, as the teachers had to attend all workshops planned by the DBE.

5.5.3. Monitoring

It appears that when SBTPD is monitored, it results in its effective implementation. Responding to what monitoring strategies were used, who monitored SBTPD programmes and which areas of SBTPD were monitored, it emerged from the participants that, when authorities monitored the implementation of SBTPD programmes, teachers seemed to be implementing some type of development programmes to improve their practice. In conversation with group participants from school A, it transpired that the SMT regularly monitored their TPD. They shared this perspective on monitoring:

It is monitored by the school principal through liaising with the different committees responsible for CPTD, IQMS and staff development programmes as well as through the SMT meetings with the DH where they will report about the subject meetings, PLC meetings and phase meetings, and about what transpires during those meetings as we discuss about subjects and developing each other. It shows that they care about us as teachers, not only about the learners. (Group A)

In school B, participants revealed that the SMT monitored their SBTPD programmes but random visits from higher authorities were expected at any time.

Other than our principal together with the coordinator checking on the progress of the IQMS, we sometimes get random visits from the National or Provincial Education office, if they want to check how we are conducting the IQMS programme. But it is very rare. Sometimes they can come after 3 or 4 years, so it is random like that. But it keeps us on our toes all the time because they do not tell when they come. (Group B)

School C group participants revealed that besides the SMT, subject advisors regularly visited the school for monitoring purposes. One perspective conveyed how the monitoring was done and the other elucidated on the benefits of being monitored. The first view was:

We are monitored by our principal, committee coordinators and some SMT members, but we also have our subject advisors who check the regularity and the quality of our subject meetings and our PLC meetings, or whether we do conduct subject meetings at all. (Group C)

The view on the benefits of monitoring was:

Though it is not a pleasant experience, but being monitored does help in that when they want their documents, we are not found wanting because we are always ready. It also allows us to check whether we are doing things right and also track our progress as we move along. IQMS has a strict programme that has to be followed plus all our internal TPD programmes, so, monitoring is not a bad thing after all. (Group C)

In school D, group participants revealed that every SBTPD activity they conducted was strictly monitored by all SMT members. Their view was:

Our principal is very hands-on in checking whether we conduct IQMS as per its rules because they are given a management plan at the circuit office, so, he has to ensure that it is followed. If he cannot, he usually delegates to the DH who works together with the SDT coordinator. They monitor the IQMS and ensure that we are all signed up for the CPTD, they also monitor and oversee all our staff development programmes. (Group D)

The school principals revealed that the DBE had equipped them with different tools to enable the monitoring of SBTPD so that teaching and learning could take place effectively. *Pa* said:

There are tools that we use to monitor SBTPD taking place at the school, in fact, I have a document where all educators have to make entries and specify whether they need help from the SMT or from the Department of Education, so such tools help us as SMT to see what are the areas of development for the teachers are. (Pa)

Pb revealed that together with the SMT, they had crafted a management plan on how to monitor SBTPD:

We have curriculum monitoring which we do, DHs monitor work for the teachers, identify the problems and challenges that the teachers come across in class, where they need to be developed, the DP sits and discuss the reports of these with the DHs, I sit and discuss these with the DP, and lastly, we sit as staff and solve our teaching and learning problems. Curriculum monitoring is done quarterly and monitoring educators' planning of their lessons is done weekly. (Pb)

Pc revealed that there was a regular and strict monitoring of SBTPD programmes. She said:

I have committees which report to me regularly about the progress of their engagements with the teachers, especially the SDT for IQMS. I monitor this quarterly to check which step of IQMS has been completed for the quarter because there is a developmental activity each quarter that has to be completed. I check with the DHs the minutes for meetings that they have for their subject meetings/PLCs. I also have conversations with the DHs about problems encountered when they do curriculum monitoring in their phases respectively. (Pc)

For *Pd*, it was revealed that they had a continuous programme to enable the monitoring to take place.

We have curriculum monitoring that is done quarterly, we have Jika iMfundo documents that helps the subject teacher, the DHs and myself to track whether the curriculum was covered by the teacher. We also have minutes for subject meetings where teachers meet to talk and discuss about content and methodology for each subject. There are also PLC meetings which serve almost the same purpose as the subject meetings. I hold meetings with the SDT to find out how the development of teachers is going with regard to the IQMS. (Pd)

In conversation with the CM, it emerged that the monitoring of SBTPD was part of a larger plan of monitoring the basic functionality of the school. He said:

When it comes to monitoring, as CM, I look at all areas of school functioning including curriculum management, IQMS, CPTD, school improvement plan, management of teaching and learning. In that aspect of SBTPD, I check whether the schools engage in staff development, I have to see their annual programme for staff development, I have to see through signed minutes that they hold these development programmes, I need to see the school IQMS file, I need to see the minutes for PLC meetings, subject meetings and one-on-one conversations for Jika iMfundo curriculum tracking. (CM)

The researched schools were small schools, which made easier the performance of the monitoring function for SBTPD. However, the findings indicated that monitoring in the researched schools took place but there was a noticeable absence of subject advisors to monitor the classroom implementation of what teachers learn in the TPD workshops that are provided. When teachers are not monitored, particularly by their subject advisors, they become reluctant to attend TPD workshops and that leads to the failure of SBTPD (see section 2.2). The data corroborates the literature findings that departmental officials, district officials, school principals have a duty to go through teachers' weekly plans, learners' performance records and perform regular classroom visits, in an effort to meet their SBTPD goals (see section 2.5.6). The theoretical framework of the study (see section 3.3), indicated that when teachers engage in SBTPD, they learn and in the process of learning they should reflect on their learning and receive the outcomes of their labour (Speck, 1996).

5.5.4. Continuity

In response to how schools ensured continuity in the implementation of SBTPD, the data indicates that schools had SBTPD programmes which were annual continuous programmes. From school A, group participants revealed that some programmes, for example IQMS, were designed to be continuous throughout the year.

We have IQMS which is continuous throughout the year. And then there is CPTD... (laughs), we have our own staff development programmes which we schedule at the

beginning of the year to be every month. But then sometimes, we get disturbed by other programmes and we fail to hold them every month, but we do have them. (Group A)

Group B indicated that they had the IQMS and CPTD, which was continuous throughout the year. This was their view:

The PD programme that is continuous throughout the year is the IQMS and the CPTD, at least at the circuit office, they do give us dates of what to do and when, so throughout the year we definitely have something that we do continuously. (Group B)

Group participants from school C revealed that continuity was mandatory in the IQMS. This was their perspective on continuity:

At least we have the IQMS programme which forces us to be involved in SBTPD the whole year through, because it is structured such that every term there is something that we do and those dates are given to schools by the circuit office, again we need to have evidence of all that we have done to that effect. (Group C)

From school D, group participants revealed that strictness and rigidity in following the IQMS steps ensured continuity of their programme.

Besides our regular staff development programmes, there is the IQMS programme which we have to conduct using the programme given to schools by the circuit office, if that counts as continuity, then yes, we can say there is continuity in our SBTPD programmes. (Group D)

Data from the school principals pointed out that they held the IQMS in high regard as an important programme for SBTPD. Pa indicated that all their SBTPD programmes had an element of continuity. He said:

We all have a reporting tool that has a space for making entries as to what workshops they have conducted and what development activities they have conducted, so, which means continuously they have to submit, in fact, quarterly submissions are made. At the beginning of each year we have annual plan that talks to what we have to do every term for IQMS. We consistently visit the plan to ensure we are still on track. Actually, it is a measuring tool that helps to keep track of continuous activities. (Pa)

Pb revealed that from the CO programme, they then crafted their management plan as a school, so they could always be on track. He said:

When we do our annual planning as per directive from the department, we also have a management plan that we craft for IQMS with specific dates, activities and the responsible individuals, from advocacy right up to the summative evaluation. Unfortunately, we do not do justice to it as it is supposed to be a continuous process. Most of the time we focus on the summative towards the end of the year, but the teacher development phase must take place throughout the year. (Pb)

Pc indicated that among other programmes, they had the IQMS as well as staff development programmes for SBTPD. She said:

We have the IQMS which is a TPD programme and it starts at the beginning of the year, in term 1 with the advocacy from myself as a school principal and teachers doing the self-evaluation where they state where they need to be developed. Then in term 2 and 3 we have the teacher development stages going on with the DSGs assisting the teachers. In the final term we do summative evaluation. So, I would say it is continuous because it is an annual programme and teachers participate fully in the programme. We also have staff development programmes, as I alluded to earlier. (Pc)

Pd's response suggested that the IQMS provided continuity all year through. He said:

First of all, IQMS is a whole year thing, therefore it is continuous, attending workshops as provided by the department is whole-year thing again, we have staff development workshops internally, which we conduct regularly. We have subject and phase meetings, all those count for teacher development because teachers grow from those meetings and experiences. (Pd)

The CM indicated that the IQMS was the first area of concern to ascertain continuity of SBTPD programmes. He said:

The first area of my support is the implementation of IQMS, I visit schools to offer monitoring and support in the process itself. In the beginning IQMS was reduced to compliance, but with the re-organisation and re-introduction in the form of workshops and the importance of identifying areas for professional growth, it changed. We provide schools with a quarterly programme of what should be done every time and they have to follow that plan. (CM)

It came out strongly from the findings that schools regarded the IQMS and their internal staff development programmes as representative of continuity for their teacher development programmes, which are an essential element of effective SBTPD. The findings also reveal that the continuity of other SBTPD programmes was not guaranteed in the researched schools. High quality SBTPD programmes are those that offer continuity, transformation and active learning (Opfer & Pedder, 2010). Data reveals that only IQMS contains an element of continuity for SBTPD because it is strictly monitored by the CM, and other programmes fall off during the year. The literature findings reveal that to account for continuity, SBTPD programmes need to be regular, ongoing and anchored in the curriculum and pedagogy, which is consistent with the IQMS that is conducted in schools (see section 2.5.4). In Chapter 3 of this study, one of the key processes of learning-centred leadership is when learning-centred school principals implement policies that promote continuity of programmes offered in their schools. School principals have a duty to implement, monitor and support IQMS and other staff development programmes in their school (see section 3.5.1).

5.6. CHALLENGES IMPACTING ON SBTPD

A number of issues were identified by most participants as challenges impacting on the implementation of SBTPD in the schools. Drawing from the nature of the challenges, it was noted that some of the challenges were associated with the location of the schools in a rural context. For most participants, the challenging issues were the implementation of the CPTD policy, shortage of school resources and infrastructure, lack of growth in career opportunities as well as lack of collaborative practices among teachers. These subthemes are discussed in the ensuing section.

5.6.1. The non-implementation of the CPTD policy

Responding to what were the dynamics of implementing the Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) policy, participants in the study indicated that the CPTD policy was a good policy for TPD, however, there were challenges with CPTD implementation in schools. In school A, it emerged that the policy of CPTD was as good as non-existent. This was their view:

It is a good policy because it is for development purposes, though there are problems with it, for example we have not been able to sign-up on the SACE website, well, some of us. Others have signed-up but cannot get access to the site anymore. So, right now it is as good as non-existent because we cannot access it, therefore it is difficult to say it is working for us or not. (Group A)

From school B, the group participants indicated that they had done only the signing up regarding CPTD policy implementation.

We have been able to do the sign-up, but we have not uploaded any activities between the three activities that we are supposed to upload so that we get our points. Some of us signed up and left it there, so we don't think the CPTD was a serious thing to begin with. But because we do attend workshops and we sign the SACE register, we will get points from attending those workshops, because the facilitators usually tell us that they submit the registers so that we get PD points. (Group B)

Group participants from school C made known that there were no penalties for lack implementation of CPTD. They said:

Some of us are signed-up, some have not yet signed-up with SACE, which is the controlling body, but we also do not even have a file for CPTD, actually we do not know what is supposed to be in that file. But we do attend workshops and do everything that we are supposed to do as teachers. It is just that we have not done it, maybe if there was a penalty or any monitoring or just support, we would be telling you a different story. (Group C)

School D group participants revealed that those mandated to offer support and assistance with CPTD had not been forthcoming. They said:

We did the sign-up and uploaded a few activities with the help of the SMT back then in 2017. After that it has been difficult to access the site and no-one is trying to rectify the mistake or do the follow-up, and we have tried to seek help from the Teacher Development section in the district office but to no avail, so we just left like that. (Group D)

When interviewing the school principals, it emerged that that the common challenge with the implementation of the CPTD policy was the way in which it was presented to the teachers. Pa had this to say:

The issue of CPTD is a bit upsetting somehow. You know we were called as principals previously, to implement the CPTD policy, the way it was introduced is a problem, it was just a once-off thing and we have never heard about it since, we are not accumulating any PD points and on-one seems to care. (Pa)

Pb pointed out that the timing of the CPTD policy implementation as well as the approach in which it was introduced were not appropriate. He said:

The approach in which it was brought into the system somehow needs revision... we have attended workshops and we were supposed to have started files, it was also supposed to be monitored, even the facilitators have not been so effective in going about to give support step-by-step as per the process of CPTD. The problem is the timing as well as the approach which was not appropriate for it to be effected in our education system. To be honest, I have not started yet with the implementation of CPTD. (Pb)

Pc indicated that there had been no monitoring and support for the implementation of the CPTD policy, no penalty for non-compliance and no recognition for compliance. She said:

The other problem is the way this policy was introduced to us, it was just a two-hour workshop and after that we were told to go and perform, so it was very difficult... is that it has never been monitored since it was introduced. Whether you implement this policy or not, nobody monitors or evaluates that, there are no punitive measures for non-compliance and there has been no rewards or recognition for those who are supposedly doing it, especially here in rural schools. (Pc)

Pd revealed that the lack of implementation of this policy was caused by the manner in which it was handled by the DBE. He said:

You know if you can go to any school here, you may find that not a single principal has done anything to the effect of CPTD. It is the way it was introduced and also the way it has been handled by the Department since it was its introduction... I do not even have a file for CPTD. (Pd)

The CM expressed his concern and acknowledged that the implementation of CPTD had been marred with challenges since its inception. He said:

The biggest challenge related to CPTD is registering on the SACE website, the site is not accessible for teachers to register and it is a problem we are told will be solved every time we enquire... We got the design of the policy and it was presented to us, we started with it, but the follow-up of newly appointed principals has never happened, workshops have been held to tell principals about the different types of activities, but the follow-up has not been there, that is why I am saying it is still in its infancy stage. We have a huge problem with the SACE website, because as you attend, you should be logging on and say I have attended, but it is not possible. These are the hiccups in the implementation of the CPTD policy. But its value is there. (CM)

The data showed that one challenge was the implementation of the CPTD policy, which included registration with and accessing its South African Council of Educators (SACE) website. For a school to be considered a learning organisation, Easton (2008) suggests that professional learning needs to be supported by resources which include time (see section 2.5.3). The lack of professional expertise in support, resource provision and monitoring for the implementation of CPTD renders it non-existent. Teaching, learning and other TPD programmes have continued while the implementation of the CPTD policy has been relegated to oblivion. As a result, the CPTD policy is perceived to be a stand-alone policy, more so because teaching and learning in schools have continued with this policy on the side lines, Speck's (1996) adult learning theory emphasises that teachers need to be in charge of their own learning and that their everyday teaching activities are aligned to their professional development learning (see section 3.3). The findings reveal that the implementation of CPTD policy invalidates the assumption that teachers need to see that their

professional development is work-embedded and that their existing knowledge, experiences, practice, perspectives and insights are acknowledged.

5.6.2 Lack of infrastructure and school facilities

Focusing on the relationship between resource provisioning and the implementation of SBTPD, participants (teachers, school principals and the CM) indicated that the lack of basic infrastructure and some of the school facilities was a great deterrent to the effective implementation of SBTPD, particularly in schools situated in the rural areas. Teacher participants pointed out that this challenge prevented them from applying in their classrooms as they teach, what they had learnt from TD workshops and prevented them from being better teachers. From school A, group participants revealed that the lack of basic infrastructure prevented them from attending TD workshops. This was their view:

The position of our school in this rural area is a challenge in itself... because our school is far from the town and the road is not good... we cannot attend workshops as much as we want to and we are not visited as much we would want to and they always cite road problems. (Group A)

From school B, it emerged that not only did the lack of basic infrastructure hinder the teachers from improving on their teaching practice, it also impeded them from collaborating and networking teachers from other schools, which was essential for effective SBTPD:

...it poses a challenge with collaboration. Some teachers do not want to collaborate because schools are far away from each other and also there are road and transport problems. (Group B)

Participants in school C indicated that the lack of school facilities and basic school resources prevented them from teaching to their full potential as well as implementing what they had learnt in TD workshops for the improvement of teaching and enhancing learners' performance:

We do not have a library, a science laboratory for the Grade 7s, we do not even have a science kit for that matter, Grade 6 and Grade 7 are taught in the same class because there

are not even enough classes. So, some of the things we learn in workshops, we fail to implement because of those circumstances. (Group C)

From school D, the participants reiterated the position of participants in school A, where the road and transport problems posed a challenge to the teaching and learning happening at the school.

As you have seen while coming here, the road is bad, there is no transport, sometimes you do not make it into the workshop or arrive late when they are done, because workshops are always in township schools, if the workshop begins at 12 noon, usually we do not make it because of the problems I have just mentioned. (Group D)

Similarly, the school principals indicated that they were concerned with the lack of infrastructure and school facilities as it prevented the smooth-running of their institutions in relation to the implementation of SBTPD. *Pa* revealed that lack of transport and other school facilities affected the effective implementation of SBTPD. He said:

The Department has insisted that there must not be a workshop or a meeting during teaching and learning time, so we normally conduct these after school hours, only to find that sometimes teachers do not have transport after hours. Secondly, we are running short of facilities, equipment, materials and resources. (Pa)

Pb expressed the same concern of the lack of facilities and resources and the negative impact they had on the implementation of TPD in the schools. He said:

The rural location of the school has a heavy and serious impact in the TPD in this school...with us it is the lack of facilities and resources which pose a very big challenge. (Pb)

Pc cited similar challenges with *Pa* and *Pb* which ranged from poor roads leading to the school and lack of school resources owing to the situatedness of the school in a rural area, posing a challenge to the effective implementation of SBTPD in their school. This is what she said:

The location of the school in this rural area poses a great challenge to many things. For one, the road is not a joy to use, so, officials rarely come and visit the school because of the accessibility of the school, because of the road. Secondly, most developmental meetings are held after school when learners have left, so some teachers do not have transport and

they use learners' transport to commute from school to home and that poses another challenge. (Pc)

Pd compared the dire rural schools' situation to that of their urban counterparts:

Most of the time, the rural location of our schools poses a disadvantage as opposed to our urban counterparts, because we experience problems such as lack of parental involvement, unmotivated learners and parents, lack of facilities and resource, for example, good roads that make the school accessible to potential investors, even subject advisors are not keen to visit. (Pd)

It emerged that the CM faced a similar challenge, as he performed his duties to support and monitor SBTPD. He said:

Rural schools usually have a fewer number of teachers, teachers travel long distances to schools, no roads, there are security issues, transport issues, all these impact on collaboration as well as teaching and learning... infrastructure, school buildings, toilets, is a very sad challenge that we come across as CMs and it really affects the quality of teaching and learning. In this rural circuit, it is sad to report that there is a school that is without toilets, and this was reported to the department. There is no water supply in some of the schools, no sewerage systems. There are storm damaged schools that have not been repaired for the past three years, and this impacts negatively on teaching and learning as well as teacher development. (CM)

From the data, it emerged that the researched schools lacked infrastructure such as roads, water supply, school buildings and facilities such as libraries and science equipment that support teaching and learning. In Chapter 2 (see section 2.2), it is evident that social ills that include the multiple deprivations prevalent in the rural areas influence negatively the attainment of quality education and the addressing of such inequalities has failed, particularly in the education sector. This is evident in schools in the rural contexts, which are deprived and confronted with most of the challenges experienced in rural communities (Maringe, Masinire & Nkambule, 2015). This is also in agreement with the finding by Gardiner (2008) in a study on education in rural schools, that

since conditions regarding rural education remain unchanged, schools in such contexts find it challenging to implement TPD programmes.

Rural schools represent a substantial proportion of SA schools and school districts; therefore, it is important that their needs be considered in the swiftest way possible. The data generated revealed that rural schools were lacking materially. It seemed that matters related to SBTPD were practically dominated by the more urgent and critical needs for infrastructure and facilities to expedite the implementation of SBTPD and effective learning and teaching to take effect.

5.6.3. Lack of growth in career opportunities

It emerged from the data that there were no growth opportunities in the teaching careers following teachers' participation in SBTPD. Responding to whether SBTPD programmes offered opportunities for career growth for teachers, it seemed that participation in SBTPD did not result in any opportunities for promotions and advancements in the teaching field. In school A, group participants indicated that SBTPD programmes were empowering for teaching but not for career advancement. They shared this view:

Not at all. Not in this teaching field of ours. I think that is also one of the reasons teachers are not keen to participate in programmes like IQMS, because, although they are empowering, but they do not offer any growth opportunities in terms of promotions and stuff. No one has ever been promoted because they attended workshops or were part of a certain training. (Group A)

In school B, group participants shared a similar view with school A, they concurred that SBTPD did not provide any opportunities for promotions.

No. there is no promotion whatsoever that could be attributed to teacher development. The only way to get a promotion is to apply and hope for the best just like anyone. Attending workshops doesn't come with any accreditation of any sort. It is just for teacher development. (Group B)

Group C pointed out that there was no guaranteed opportunity for growth in the teacher's career path. Their view was:

Not a single programme offers growth opportunities, because even those organised by the Department like CPTD and IQMS, they don't. For CPTD you only accumulate PD points and for IQMS, it is only 1% on your salary. So, no, there are no growth opportunities.
(Group C)

Group participants of school D revealed that SBTPD was good because it helped the teacher improve their practice but did not provide any chance for possible promotion. Their view was:

The workshops we attend do not have any accreditation except for the PD points of which we do not know nothing about because we do not even do the CPTD, you cannot say because I attended this workshop, therefore I am a better candidate for this position, no, here it doesn't work like that. When it comes to positions, we are all the same whether you attended or facilitated workshops or not, it doesn't place one in a better position. **(Group D)**

In conversation with the school principals, it emerged that they corroborated the views of the teachers in their groups. The school principals re-iterated a similar experience with regards to growth opportunities through participation in SBTPD. *Pa* indicated that teachers could grow in other ways through their participation in SBTPD:

It doesn't provide opportunities for promotions and stuff but one of the things that we believe in as a school is that one has to grow even outside of the school, so I manage for them to cluster outside the school where they go workshop and capacitate other educators, that helps them to learn to work with other educators outside of their usual environment.
(Pa)

Pb revealed that even though there were no opportunities for growth and promotions but SBTPD helped teachers gain confidence in applying for better opportunities. He said:

SBTPD in itself does not provide such opportunities but helps teachers become better at what they do. What I have realised is that teachers get empowered and they become interested in applying for posts for promotion. **(Pb)**

Pc indicated that involvement in SBTPD did not offer any opportunities for growth because of power dynamics in the filling of promotion posts for teachers. She said:

No, they do not. I think it is the way the system is structured. For one to grow in this teaching profession, one needs to apply and the powers to appoint a suitable candidate in promotions rest with the school governing bodies (SGB), and it does not matter how many TPD workshops you have attended or facilitated. (Pc)

Pd echoed a similar view to that of *Pc*. He said:

In terms of personal growth, yes. But in terms of career growth and promotion opportunities, no. In our teaching career, it is structured such that the power to recommend people for promotions rests with the SGBs. It does not matter how many workshops one has attended or has facilitated, that only counts for your personal growth and how you use it for teaching your learners, but in terms of getting a promotion, no, our SBTPD does not offer any growth opportunities, as far as I have seen. (Pd)

The CM also confirmed the lack of growth opportunities for teachers as they participated in SBTPD. He said:

My honest response here is that there is none at the moment... there is growth but the participation in the activities does not link up to a change in rank, it offers very limited growth, at the moment it is only limited to personal growth... TPD is supposed to develop the teacher and move from them from one level to another level, there shouldn't be any other story about it. If that purpose is not achieved, then we have failed as a department. (CM)

It appears that SBTPD did not provide any growth opportunities for teachers in their teaching career. The progress that teachers experienced was personal growth for the improvement of their teaching practice as they continually learned through SBTPD, as well as the pay progression after IQMS, if the teacher qualified for one. The data is consistent with Larsen's (2010) findings that policy makers and scholars often overlook the career growth of teachers and they only design policies that emphasise the defined role of teachers in improving learner performance (see section 2.6.8). The ultimate purpose of SBTPD is improved learner performance, but inter alia, SBTPD needs to cater for much more than that, and that includes teachers' development in their chosen career path. The situation is one that violates the principles of the theoretical framework. Speck (1996) indicates that adult learners will adhere to the learning procedures and rules if that learning serves

them (see section 3.3), that is when they, themselves have something to gain from it. One of the assumptions of the andragogy theory is that motivation to learn with an aim to pursue further learning and teachers' inspiration to learn and participate in TPD depends on career advancement (see section 3.4.1). The data reveals that teachers engage in SBTPD and are learning with the aim of solely advancing learners' outcomes without their careers advancing.

5.6.4. Lack of collaborative practices between teachers

Literature has shown that SBTPD thrives on collaboration (see section 2.6.4). Participants responded to a question on the challenges they experienced in collaborating with others. Group participants from school A revealed that some teachers were not keen on working with other teachers, they were satisfied with the work they did using the resources they had:

Some people do not like to work with others, sometimes it feels like a waste of time because you know the methods, you attended the TD workshops, and when you have all the material that you need for the subjects, then you are good to go. (Group A)

Group B indicated that the lack of collaborative practices was usually caused by the lack of time as well as the distance between schools, particularly in rural schools. Their perspective was this:

With other schools, it is the distance and time factors. We are far away from each other. Also, the not showing up for cluster meetings. (Group B)

Participants from school C revealed that the quietness and non-participative disposition of teachers during cluster meetings was a measure of how much they were willing to collaborate. Their view was as follows:

Sometimes we meet as PLCs and people just keep quiet and not say anything, the DH will then keep talking just to keep the session going, sometimes I feel sorry for her, people just become quiet when they have to speak up, as if they do not want to be there. (Group C)

In school D, group participants indicated that culture of isolation contributed significantly to the lack of collaboration between teachers.

Most of the time it's just that we are not used to this collaboration concept, it is a new thing. We get in class and teach, especially when you have all that you need, like your ATP, and teacher's guide and the learners have their textbooks, so it feels like time is wasted when you meet up with others to talk about what you do in class. (Group D)

The school principals revealed that teachers were not inclined to working together and this posed a challenge for the effective implementation of SBTPD. Teachers were not used to the culture of collaboration. *Pa* revealed that there were problems with collaboration. He said:

So, the problem we face is that other schools do not want to collaborate but, would rather work on their own, they just want to teach, teach and go back home and they are satisfied with that. When there are cluster meetings that are arranged, you find that some educators just do not show up. So those are the problems with collaboration. (Pa)

Pb revealed that the challenges of lack of collaboration were mainly caused by time constraints. He said:

Time constraints is one major challenge because the people are willing but most people are not willing to sacrifice their time and remain after school hours and discuss work matters. Also, the lack of facilities and resources is another challenge. (Pb)

Pc reiterated that the lack of collaboration was as a result of some teachers being comfortable working on their own.

Some schools and teachers are not keen on collaboration; they just want to work alone. I think because when you have all the material that you need, you will not be keen on the human resource that might be available. Some collaborative meetings are planned and people do not show up. (Pc)

Pd indicated that the human resource became important when learners' outcomes did not match the input. He said:

The most significant challenge is that some of the schools here do not want to collaborate, they just want to work alone. This becomes evident when we have to meet as a cluster, and some teachers just do not show up and no valid reason is provided. You see, sometimes when you have all the material that you need, e.g. your ATP, work schedule, CAPS Policy

and the relevant textbooks, you think you do not need people because you have everything. It is only when that doesn't translate into enhanced learners' marks that you feel you need to collaborate with someone. (Pd)

The CM shared similar sentiments with the school principals, although he revealed that there were activities that compelled school principals to work together, but it was not at the level that he would have appreciated. He said:

During the course of the year, there is very little collaboration and engagement. My task as CM is to encourage them to begin to communicate and learn from each other. Collaboration seems to be working effectively as well at cluster moderation level, although its impact is not quite exactly at the level I expect. (CM)

The data reveals that teachers were not yet used to the culture of collaborative practice and leaned to the traditional practices of working in isolation. Some teachers avoided collaborating with others because they felt it was time-wasting. In Chapter 2 (see section 2.6.4), De Clercq and Phiri (2015) state that constructive learning is not an isolated phenomenon but is a social construct which is directly related to the circumstances under which it is learned. When teachers succeed while working independently but with collaboration, there is a greater chance of improvement for both teacher and learner. Teachers need not to be forced to collaborate, but school leadership has a duty to teach and motivate teachers about the importance of collaboration for SBTPD. It emerged from the data that teachers failed to collaborate because of distance and time. This concurs with the literature in Chapter 2 (see section 2.5.2), which revealed that one of the dynamics that militates against effective collaborations is time. The practices of teachers and school leadership seemed to be at odds with the principles for effective learning. For example, Wenger's (1999) social learning theory emphasises that learning is social and for teachers in schools, learning becomes active when they participate physically, cognitively and emotionally through discussions.

5.7. CONCLUSION

The current chapter presented and discussed the data generated from interviews and document analysis. These were presented, deliberated on and discussed with respect to the research/interview questions, the literature review and the theoretical framework. Though there are limited successes, this data presentation chapter reveals that schools were replete with challenges regarding the dynamics of implementing SBTPD. The data on the researched schools reveals that the challenges outweigh the success factors with regard to the implementation of SBTPD. In education leadership and management, school leadership contributes significantly to learning and school improvement through effectively leading the implementation of SBTPD. The next chapter (Chapter 6) concludes this thesis by presenting the lessons learnt in the research journey in the dynamics of implementing SBTPD.

CHAPTER 6

LEARNING FROM THE RESEARCH JOURNEY

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Drawing from the teachers', school principals' and the circuit manager's (CM) voices, the study has explored the dynamics of implementing school based teacher professional development (SBTPD) in a selected rural Education circuit. There seems to be consensus among scholars that the implementation of school-based teacher professional development is necessary to better teacher practice so as to improve learner performance (Pitso & Maila, 2012; Phorabatho, 2013; De Clercq, 2013; De Clercq & Phiri, 2015; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015; Msila & Netshitangani, 2015; Ajibade, 2016; Okeke & Mpahla, 2016). The implementation of SBTPD is viewed as having the potential to confront challenges encountered in teacher practice and learner performance. I was thus interested in exploring the understanding and experiences of teachers, school principals and the CM regarding the implementation of SBTPD. As societies and curricula change, teachers' continuing needs have to be addressed. Multiple demands are placed on teachers by diverse and complex social changes, therefore, a developed and knowledgeable teaching force is expected to manage these changes and to adopt routines and procedures that are receptive to the educational requirements of all learners (Dadds, 2014). Therefore, teachers, school principals and the CM ought to have a deeper understanding of teacher development that is school-based, so that they can implement it effectively in their schools. The CM should assume a more developmental role towards schools under his jurisdiction so that they feel supported in their quest for a more developed workforce. SBTPD thus becomes the compelling means that schools can use to develop in teachers the appropriate attitudes, knowledge, skills and values to execute their daily duties well and resourcefully. SBTPD is life-long learning and must be embedded in teachers' daily teaching practice. Therefore, effective SBTPD should be based on collaboration, reciprocal relations and the nurturing of relationships.

This chapter draws from the previous chapters to reflect on the research journey regarding the dynamics of implementing SBTPD in the four primary schools. In the discussion, I provide an outline of each chapter as the research journey unfolded. After that, I then use the findings to

articulate the thesis of the study. Towards the end of the chapter, I set out the limitations of the study.

6.2. THE RESEARCH JOURNEY I TRAVELLED

The motivation to undertake this journey emanated from my realisation that the implementation of school-based teacher professional development is one of the major challenges the education system in South Africa (SA) faces. I took an interest in conducting research on SBTPD based on the observed incapacity of schools to initiate and sustain their own teacher development programmes. Schools seemed to be reliant on the departmentally provided and driven programmes for teacher development. For me, this called for deeper investigation into the understanding and experiences of teachers, school principals and the circuit management on the dynamics that are at play in the implementation of SBTPD in schools. Therefore, to address the issue of personal bias in conducting this research, my school did not form part of the researched schools. The effectiveness of education restructuring for teacher development in SA initiatives is dependent on the quality of teachers and therefore SBTPD has become the main and central focus of such initiatives. The study was about the implementation of SBTPD in one selected rural education circuit. This research report is organised into six chapters and, in order to provide a map for my journey, I begin by providing an outline of the first five chapters.

In Chapter 1, I set forth the research problem and its setting. Therein I argued that, despite sound policy in South Africa, SBTPD was quite weak in schools. I argued further that teachers did not seem to see the programme's influence on their teaching practices as there was still no improvement in learner performance. I also expressed the view that those mandated with the provision of the overall management of SBTPD programmes did not seem to carry out their responsibilities as they should. There was a tendency to look up to the Department of Basic Education (DBE) to provide workshops, which were usually not school-based, and the effectiveness of those workshops, in-service trainings and seminars was questionable if they did not yield the desired results. As most SA schools were characterised by underperformance in key subjects, teachers, school principals and district officials had a responsibility to ascertain that SBTPD was championed as a programme that not only advocates for the idea of teachers as life-long learners, but that improves learner performance. I argued that there was a dearth of empirical

evidence on the phenomenon of SBTPD within the context of rurality and that teachers' understandings and experiences as practitioners of SBTPD were still not adequately researched. I further argued that, since rural schools are faced with challenges unique to their contexts, there were huge differences in SA schools insofar as the implementation and management of TPD programmes is concerned. I therefore, cast my research questions as follows:

Main research question

What are the dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in the selected rural circuit?

Critical research questions

- a) How do teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understand and experience school-based teacher professional development?
- b) Why do teachers, school principals and the circuit manager understand and experience school-based teacher professional development the way they do?
- c) What can be learnt from the dynamics regarding the way forward in implementing school-based teacher professional development?

The rationale behind casting my critical questions in this format was, for the first question, to investigate what conceptualisations of SBTPD teachers, school principals and the CM had, what roles they played in the implementation of SBTPD, what they saw and expected to see unfolding in the implementation of SBTPD in their schools. The second question explored the factors, the different dynamics of implementing SBTPD that contributed to the teachers, school principals and the CM understanding and experiencing SBTPD the way they did. The third question was cast in this way to determine the lessons learnt from the dynamics of implementing SBTPD, to determine the building blocks of SBTPD and to chart the way forward in terms of the main contribution of the study. The answer to the third question was drawn from what came out of the first and the second questions.

I organised the literature review chapter (Chapter 2) into five broad sections, which include the rural dimension of SBTPD, some of the key concepts used in SBTPD, existing models for teacher professional development (TPD), some success factors for the implementation of SBTPD and

some challenges encountered in the implementation of SBTPD. In this chapter I examined what other researchers have studied on the phenomenon of SBTPD. I chose to focus on these major sections since they spoke directly to the dynamics of implementing SBTPD in schools. I positioned key concepts within these major sections because they presented an expansive discussion of what the study was about.

Key observations emerging from this part of the journey were that most rural schools were ill-resourced and thus unable to effectively implement SBTPD. Scholars argued that, in most rural schools, teachers still practised the old traditional classroom teaching methods of isolation and not collaboration. It also emerged that the type of leadership exercised by the school principal has a major effect on both the success and failure of the implementation of SBTPD. What also came out is that in most schools, there seemed to be a natural shift towards the cascade model of TPD as it involved teachers attending training sessions which included workshops, seminars and lectures and then cascading or disseminating the information to colleagues. The cascade model emerged as the natural approach for most schools, since it had the ability to extend to a multitude of teachers within a short period. Collaboration among teachers, continuity, support, monitoring and evaluation were identified in this chapter as some of the success factors of SBTPD. Lack of qualified personnel to manage and monitor SBTPD implementation, lack of teacher professionalism, the policy dilemma, lack of collaborative learning among teachers, teachers' reluctance to participate in TPD activities, changes in curriculum design, lack of funding for TPD programmes and the dearth of opportunities for advancing in the teaching career emerged as some of the challenges that were encountered in the implementation of SBTPD.

In seeking to explore this broad area of the dynamics of implementing SBTPD, I then proceeded to Chapter 3 where I presented three theoretical lenses, namely Wenger's (1999) social learning theory, Speck's (1996) and Knowles (1984) adult learning theories and Liu and Hallinger's (2017) learning-centred leadership. The social learning theory focuses on learning as some form of active and collective participation. The adult learning theories emphasise that teachers as adults want to shape their own learning and that their learning and their day-to-day classroom practice are important and interrelated. Andragogy theory, which is a variant of adult learning theory, suggests that the teacher is a learner who needs to be involved in their learning and who, as an adult, already carries a lifetime of experiences. Learning-centred leadership (Liu & Hallinger, 2017) emphasises

that the school leadership has a responsibility to encourage learning within the entire school community. While each of these theories had a characteristic feature for the study, I found them to be synergistic in that they all provided a framework for the continuing development of teachers as they engaged in meaningful professional learning relevant towards their teaching context. The common feature that emerges from a synergy of the theories is that adult learning requires a culture that values knowledge, growth and self-directed learning for teachers for their development and the improvement of learner outcomes.

Having grounded the study in the said theoretical framework, I then proceeded to the research design and methodology section (Chapter 4) where I positioned the study in the interpretive paradigm, which sees the world as constructed, interpreted and made up of experiences that people attach to their everyday interaction with one another and with their social structures. The paradigm consists of three elements, namely epistemology, ontology and methodology. Epistemology is the theory of knowledge and is related to the question of what knowledge is regarded as acceptable. I reported that the epistemological position of the study is construction of knowledge through interaction, for example, in my personal encounter with the participants as they assisted me to gain information on how they understood and experienced SBTPD. Ontology is the very nature of reality or existence and the ontological position of the study is that there are multiple truths and conflicting social realities. These were evident when I interacted with the teachers, the school principals and the CM and allowed for their interpretation as to what they understood and experienced about SBTPD. Methodology refers to the principles on which strategies and procedures for research are based; the methodological approach of the study was to develop social constructions through interaction through face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. I described why I chose a multiple case study as a methodology for the study. I described how I got access to research sites highlighting procedures I pursued as well as the challenges I encountered. I explained how participants were selected and provided justification for the methods I selected for data generation. I then described how I used thematic analysis to analyse the data generated. I concluded the chapter by describing how I ensured trustworthiness in the study and provided an account for the ethical considerations.

In Chapter 5, I then presented and discussed the data through four themes namely: a) the state of SBTPD in schools, b) approaches to SBTPD, c) enabling factors for SBTPD and d) challenges

impacting on SBTPD. I relied heavily on the actual voices of the participants presented in abundance, from which I derived the findings and conclusions. At this stage, I could identify the key findings and the relevant lessons to be learnt. These lessons which I present as my contribution to the implementation of SBTPD and are discussed in the subsequent section.

6.3. LEARNING FROM THE RESEARCH JOURNEY

This section is organised according to the key findings from the experiences and understanding of teachers, school principals and the circuit manager of the implementation of SBTPD in the selected rural circuit, as well as the lessons learnt regarding the way forward in the implementation of SBTPD. I opted to discuss the findings and lessons in holistic format as they relate and connect to each other within the implementation of SBTPD. Each key finding is discussed with respect to the research questions and the theoretical framework of the study.

Drawing from teachers', school principals' and the CM's understanding and experiences of SBTPD, one gets the impression that SBTPD in the schools under study was almost non-existent except for the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS). SBTPD did not seem to develop beyond the prescribed, departmentally-driven activities. This means that, beyond IQMS, there seemingly was nothing sustained that one could refer to as SBTPD. One dynamic noted is that of a limited understanding of SBTPD and how it should be implemented, in the teachers', school principals' and CM's responses. In their own understanding, IQMS was largely their form of SBTPD. IQMS is, though, one form of SBTPD that could be used as a basis for other complementary SBTPD programmes in the school. An apparent lack of connectivity and continuity between departmental-driven programmes and those of schools is another dynamic that seemed to negatively impact the implementation of SBTPD in schools. This lack of connectivity was evidenced by the failure of teachers to develop their own school-based programmes distinct from those provided by the Department, which included, among other elements, Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD). This also seems to point to a paucity of leadership from school principals as managers of the teacher development programmes in the school. The lack of leadership by school principals was also displayed when the school funds that were

budgeted for SBTPD were found to be used for DBE established programmes, as will be discussed in the next paragraph. Schools are supposed to continue from what the department has provided and initiate their own teacher professional development programmes. The CM's leadership of the schools with regards to SBTPD seemed to lack engagement, in that he played the role of an inspector rather than that of an involved leader. The theoretical framework of this study indicates that SBTPD should be self-directed and not driven by other people or entities, Teachers seemed to be in a comfort zone with regard to how SBTPD is implemented in their schools, in the sense that there seemed to be no desire for self-directed learning as encouraged by social learning theory (SLT). SLT suggests that social learning is an appropriate method of learning around the field of PD. Such learning necessitates that teachers become active creators of their particular sustainable programmes through which they can acquire knowledge, among other things.

One of the aims of decentralising teacher professional development funds to schools is to allow for them to place an emphasis on achieving a specific standard in teachers' professional or career development (Burns, 2005). I learnt that teachers had become comfortable enjoying leaving their classes and going out for Department of Education-organised workshops. Teachers leaving the classroom here and there is understandable because the classroom is a tough place to be. Schools seemed comfortable and complacent with being caged within the DBE formula of teacher development, which involves off-site workshops that depleted the funds budgeted for SBTPD, since these got depleted before the end of the financial year. A lack of leadership from the school principals is noted. School principals must be able to utilise the proceeds of teachers going away to workshops for the benefit of the school through SBTPD programmes. Learning-centred leaders would also ensure that their schools convene their own TD workshops and activate the schools as learning organisations while saving on the much needed school funds. As literature has revealed, funding for SBTPD was still a challenge in many South African (SA) schools (see section 2.6.7), and the data have confirmed that teachers raised their concerns about the travel costs to venues for workshops away from their schools, yet the DBE still provided off-site workshops and trainings because teachers enjoyed being out of the class. One dynamic is that of complacency among teachers through enjoying attending off-site workshops, however, the lack of self-drive to use those

workshops as a springboard to initiate and create their own SBTPD programmes displays a lack of leadership from school principals.

One of the reasons participant teachers and school principals gave for achieving little or no SBTPD was that they were neither supported, nor followed-up and monitored in implementing the CPTD policy and thus abdicated their role of implementing the policy. Thus, these schools seemed to be captured in a transactional style of leadership, in the sense that if the DBE did not do a follow-up, there would be no implementation. I thus argue that the teachers and school principals in question had not matured enough to view CPTD as beneficial to their growth and development and they did not see CPTD as part of their SBTPD programme. One would expect schools to move to a transformational model of leadership where they take it upon themselves to lead and implement the CPTD policy and beyond. This points to an underlying dynamic of a lack of leadership, as the school principal is responsible for seeing to it that the CPTD policy is implemented and from this basis a SBTPD programme should emerge.

The findings further reveal that the CM understood that his role in the implementation of SBTPD was more inspectoral than developmental. This points to another key dynamic, that of structural issues within the DBE. The operations within the DBE suggest that in order to get things done, schools must be inspected. If there is no follow-up, support, monitoring and inspection, nothing gets done as in the non-implementation of the CPTD policy. As we see in the theoretical framework of this study, andragogy theory identifies intrinsic motivation to learn as a characteristic of adult learners (see section 3.4). The non-implementation of the CPTD policy in schools suggests little or no motivation to learn from teachers. The motivation to learn for teachers can lead them to initiate growth and development activities without being inspected. With motivation to learn, teachers are all set to lean towards more collaborative, collegial approaches and they incline towards being part of the team so that they could support each other and learners in the implementation of SBTPD. The lack of collaborative practices as a deterrent to effective implementation of SBTPD is discussed in the subsequent paragraph.

Drawing from the findings, evidence shows that there was the nonexistence of collaborative learning practices in the researched schools. Teachers and school principals reported to the existence of Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) in their schools, but, judging from the evidence, there did not seem to exist any such in the schools in question. This seems to indicate a lack of awareness of what a PLC is and how it functions. As the reader would have seen, I am positioning the responsibility of the school principal across the board for all the lessons learnt regarding the implementation of SBTPD. Therefore, for the success of SBTPD, school principals need to have a more intimate and collaborative management styles, need to be part of the team, and should lead from within, so that they could offer teachers the support needed in the implementation of SBTPD. The limitedness of intra-school and inter-school collaborative practices suggests that the schools in question did not utilise all the assets at their disposal towards achieving SBTPD. Human resource and people sharing ideas in the school and with other schools can have a constructive effect in the implementation of SBTPD. Assets do not only refer to infrastructure and physical resources but also to people sharing ideas in a social context, particularly in a community of practice, as social learning theory advocates (see section 3.2). The theory advocates that, central to their professional learning, colleagues share resources, for example, language, routine, sensibility and styles, and are able to use them appropriately for their professional learning and development. Wenger's (1999) social learning theory delves into the deep threads of social participation, which include connectivity among group members. When teachers collaborate, they learn, share beliefs, purpose and share accountability for learner outcomes (see section 2.6.4). Therefore, the school principals have a duty to train and develop collaborative practices among teachers. Teachers also must shoulder the responsibility of self-directing to some degree. One of the ways in which teachers may collaborate in schools is through sharing information and knowledge gathered from different teacher development programmes, one such method being the cascade model. The following paragraph discusses how the researched schools misused the cascade model of TPD.

Evidence from the researched schools suggests that, in the context of the implementation of SBTPD, the cascade model of TPD has been the commonly used method of delivering off-site workshop information to individual schools. The DBE currently provides workshops for teachers,

which are usually off-site, to facilitate SBTPD. The findings reveal that schools did not use the cascade model to stimulate, promote and accelerate their own SBTPD programmes. What is noted is that these role players accused the model of the distortion, loss, dilution and misinterpretation of content, as information was being cascaded from one to another. In my judgment, the cascade model was abused by people who actually needed a change of attitude and were obviously in need of capacity-building at school level regarding the possible benefits. Both teachers and school principals seemed to have a distorted understanding of the depth of SBTPD. Accusing the model of not working does not solve the problem of teachers who attended workshops and failed to deliver on what the workshop was about. The model itself is not the problem but there is limited and restricted understanding of how it can be leveraged. Therefore, I argue that one of the key dynamics around the implementation of SBTPD is the abuse of this model by schools, because teachers attended workshops, after which they did not deliver by taking the learning forward. Capacity-building is necessary across the board for all role players in terms of how to utilise the cascade model to the benefit of all for SBTPD. Literature shows that one of the important qualities of effective SBTPD is teacher autonomy. Teacher autonomy can be defined as leaning less on external research inventions and products as well as external TPD service providers by, instead, allowing and empowering teachers to identify and implement their own TPD activities (see section 2.5.3.2). Instead of shifting the blame on the cascade model, teachers and school principals utilise this model with a sense of personal meaning that leads to the success of their SBTPD programmes. Teachers, school principals and the circuit management would benefit greatly from capacity-building programmes on how to appropriately implement SBTPD and to initiate, develop, manage and sustain school-based teacher development programmes from government-provided and government-driven programmes, such as the IQMS. Lack of capacity-building in SBTPD leads to occurrences where teachers want to be incentivised for their own growth and development as teachers, which is discussed in the subsequent paragraph.

As I have already reported above, beyond DBE established programmes, for example, the IQMS, there is little or no evidence that the researched schools have done anything in implementing SBTPD. The fact that IQMS is incentivised has led to a spill over of wanting to be incentivised for implementing all programmes in the school. This is yet another piece of evidence of a lack of

understanding of the essence of SBTPD. There seemed to be no focus on growth and development on the part of both school principals and teachers. When they referred to SBTPD, they viewed it as an additional responsibility that warranted incentivisation. Some of the teachers' concerns regarding incentivising SBTPD are understandable, for example, to be rewarded or recognised for work done is motivation to do more. However, there is a conflation of matters. On the one hand, teachers must grow, on the other, they need motivation to do more, therefore, there needs to be a balance between being motivated to implement SBTPD and implementing SBTPD for growth and development. Motivation should not come from incentives but from the knowledge and the desire to appropriately implement SBTPD. One dynamic regarding the implementation of SBTPD and incentivisation is that the desire for incentives was influencing teachers' conceptualisation of SBTPD. SBTPD is for growth, improvement and development of teaching practice. If teachers and school principals were to craft their own SBTPD programmes, as it should be, they would desist from foregrounding incentives as a pre-requisite for engaging in SBTPD. As is shown in the theoretical framework of this study, when adults are the originators of their own learning, they will resist any activity that poses as an attack on their competence. The social learning theory suggests that SBTPD should allow teachers to regulate what their learning entails, how it should be implemented, when it should be implemented and the rationale behind their learning so that they would own their programmes and not want to be paid for their development. However, Heystek (2011) makes a point that, particularly in underperforming schools, and above and beyond determination and participation, some form of financial recognition is necessary to encourage those teachers who are unenthusiastic about participating in TPD programmes. Monetary enticements should not be the driving force behind the implementation of SBTPD, but rather growth and development aimed at improving teacher practice and learner outcomes. The issue of incentivising SBTPD is a delicate one since teachers are incentivised by the DBE for implementing the IQMS, then the expectation is that for every SBTPD programme, there would be some type of monetary recognition. Schools in rural contexts are likely to attribute their underperformance and lack of implementation of some policies to the unique challenges they face in their contexts. This is discussed in the following paragraph.

Granted, most rural contexts have limited infrastructure and facilities and the context of the researched schools is no exception. However, the schools have remained in a victim mode and are crying victim over lack of resources. I argue that not much effort has been put by rural schools to initiate and implement SBTPD. One dynamic regarding the implementation of SBTPD in rural schools is that of victim mentality among the schools in the study. There is also a noted deficiency in leadership from the school principal. Drawing from the theory of andragogy, internal motivation to learn should come at play in implementing SBTPD programmes. Drawing from the learning-centred leadership theory, a learning-centred leader would use the opportunity to encourage, direct, and provide for teacher learning and create provisions that stimulate, involve and support the continued development of teachers, despite the conditions in which schools find themselves in. Schools do need support, particularly if they are not well-resourced, but they can use whatever resources they have to ensure that SBTPD is implemented for their teachers' learning, growth and development.

6.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

According to Cohen et al. (2007), no study is perfect, any study will have limitations, and as such, researchers should state major limitations that may affect the credibility of their findings.

6.4.1. Non-generalisability of the findings for SBTPD

Taking into consideration this study had employed a small sized population, four primary schools and one circuit office in the Education District of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, and that it is a case study, it was never designed to generalise the findings to a larger population, rather, the intent was on contributing to the knowledge base on how SBTPD can be effectively implemented and managed in schools. To achieve confirmability, I formulated research questions that were broad enough, with the purpose of understanding the experiences and conceptualisations of the phenomenon in the study from teachers, school principals and the circuit manager. Though the findings cannot be generalised, transferability is possible in that the findings could be used to

provide useful information about teachers', school principals' and the circuit manager's views and experiences on SBTPD, which would contribute new knowledge to the field of education.

6.4.2. Fears among school principals

Researching SBTPD was, at first, intimidating to the school principals who assumed I was on undercover work for the Department of Education, on their operations as a school and aiming to dent their public image. I was suspecting that school principals might be uneasy at the thought that they might be labelled as failures in school management, and failing at school operations and functions if SBTPD policies were in some or other way not implemented. To somehow alleviate and ease the fears and to circumvent stage-managing responses from school principals, I clarified the research process again and assured them that they, themselves and their schools, possibly, will benefit from the entire research process.

6.5. THE FINAL WORD

The study intended to explore the understanding and experiences of teachers, school principals and the circuit manager in implementing school-based teacher professional development. The study established that schools rely heavily on DBE driven TPD programmes, which include off-site workshops, and that they fail to initiate their own SBTPD programmes. The study found that the limited and restricted understanding of SBTPD on the part of the teachers, school principals and the CM enables schools to fail to initiate their own school-based TPD programmes. Most DBE driven strategies of TPD which include workshops and the IQMS could be used by schools as a springboard to launch their own school-based development programmes. This study also established that there is a prevailing abuse of the cascade model of TPD, which displayed a need for capacity-building and a change of attitude for teachers so that they could use the model to benefit them. The lack of infrastructure and facilities in rural schools should not deter schools from implementing SBTPD, but instead should encourage them to use what they have to ensure that SBTPD happens in schools. The study found that there is a lack of intra- and inter-school collaboration that impedes the effective implementation of SBTPD. The study also found that

school principals and teachers could adequately benefit from the provision of capacity-building on understanding and implementing SBTPD in their schools.

The study also urges government to pay cautious responsiveness to needs of rural schools so as to address the issues of inequality and level the ground for the delivery of education and its associated programmes, such as SBTPD. To improve teacher quality through SBTPD is one of the ways a country can employ as one of its important strategies in attempts to enhance education performance. Teacher quality can strongly affect learner achievement (Wang & Lu, 2012). Furthermore, Archibald, Coggshall, Croft, and Goe (2011) state that teacher quality is of concern since teachers possess a more substantial impact on learner performance above any other school element. The Department of Education can respond to issues of teacher quality through developing other comprehensive quality programmes within SBTPD programmes. Effective SBTPD should support teachers in developing and applying instructional and content knowledge and should result in increased learner achievement, and, if practised meticulously, might also narrow the achievement gap between urban and rural schools.

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APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE FROM UKZN



15 October 2018

Mrs Buhle Stella Nhlumayo 200302915
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mrs Nhlumayo

Protocol Reference Number : HSS/1541/018D

Project title: The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 4 September 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

.....
Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Deputy Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

Cc Supervisor: Professor V Chikoko
cc Academic Leader Research: Dr SB Khoza
cc School Administrators: Ms Sheryl Jeenaarain

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)





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APPENDIX B: PERMISSION LETTER TO THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
PERMISSION LETTER TO THE KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

P. O. Box 139
Mandeni
4490
20 August 2018

Attention: The Head of Department
Department of Basic Education
Province of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3201

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am Mrs. Buhle Stella Nhlumayo, a PhD Education student in the school of Education at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). I am currently in the process of completing a PhD degree in education. As part of the requirements towards the completion of the PhD programme is the presentation of a research thesis in the field of education. As a result, I hereby request permission to conduct research in the following primary schools and one Education Circuit Office under your jurisdiction in the ILembe District.

The schools and the Circuit Office that will form part of my research are:

- [REDACTED] Primary School
- [REDACTED] Primary School
- [REDACTED] Primary School
- [REDACTED] Primary School
- [REDACTED] Circuit Office.

The title of my research study is: *The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal.*

Drawing from the principal's , teachers' and the Circuit Manager's voices, the purpose of this study is to investigate how teachers, principals and circuit managers understand and experience school-based teacher professional development, to investigate why teachers, principals and circuit managers understand and experience school-based teacher development the way they do, to explore the dynamics influencing the implementation of school-based teacher professional development and to determine what can be learnt from the dynamics influencing the implementation of school-based teacher professional development.

The study will employ the use of semi-structured interviews and document analysis to collect data from the school. Participants will be interviewed at a convenient time and place, and each interview will be voice-recorded.

Responses will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used instead of the participants' actual names. Participants will be contacted well in advance for interviews and they have been randomly selected to participate in this study. Participation will always remain voluntary which means that participants may withdraw from this study for any reason, anytime if they so wish without incurring any penalties. There will be no incentives, financial or otherwise offered to participants.

This study is supervised by Professor Vitallis Chikoko who can be contacted at Tel: 031 260 2639, or chikokov@ukzn.ac.za. For any queries and further information please feel free to consult the UKZN Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Office, contact details: 031 260 4557, email: hssrechumanities@ukzn.ac.za.

Should you have any concerns concerning my research study, please feel free to consult Mrs. B. S. Nhlumayo at Cell: 072 235 0936, E-mail: buhlenhlumayo@gmail.com or 200302915@stu.ukzn.ac.za

Your positive response in this regard will be highly appreciated.
Thanking you in advance
Yours faithfully

Mrs. B. S. Nhlumayo

APPENDIX C: PERMISSION LETTER FROM KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Phindile Duma

Tel: 033 392 1063

Ref.:2/4/8/1682

Mrs BS Nhlumayo
PO Box 139
Mandeni
4490

Dear Mrs Nhlumayo

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DōE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **“THE DYNAMICS OF IMPLEMENTING SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF ONE RURAL CIRCUIT IN KWAZULU-NATAL”**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the Intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 November 2018 to 02 March 2021.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Miss Phindile Duma at the contact numbers below,
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report/dissertation/thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Office of the HOD, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to schools and institutions in KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

(PLEASE SEE LIST OF SCHOOLS/ INSTITUTIONS ATTACHED)


Dr. EV Nzama
Head of Department: Education
Date: 30 November 2018

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Postal Address: Private Bag X9137 • Pietermaritzburg • 3200 • Republic of South Africa

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APPENDIX D: PERMISSION LETTER TO SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

P. O. Box 139

Mandeni

4490

15 June 2018

The Principal

_____ Primary School

Dear Sir

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Title of study: The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the dynamics influencing the implementation of school-based teacher professional development (SBTPD) in schools within rural contexts.

I am a student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), and this research forms part of my Doctor of Philosophy in Education (PhD) study. The findings of the study will be used in my PhD thesis and any related publications and presentations.

I therefore, hereby, request the use of yourself (school principal) and all teachers in your school as participants in this study. If I gain informed consent from the participants, I will use the data generated in a way that respects their dignity and privacy. Copies of their contributions will be securely stored and disposed of if no longer required for research purposes. Their names or any information that might identify them or their school will not be used in any presentation or publication that might come out of the study. They will be informed that they have no binding commitment to the study and may withdraw their consent; they will not be prejudiced in any way.

There are no direct benefits to participants for participating in the study. However, I hope that this study will make a significant contribution to the knowledge base on how SBTPD can be effectively implemented and managed in schools, encourage different stakeholders to be cognisant of their

roles and responsibilities in the implementation and management of SBTPD, inform teachers, school principals and district officials on the extent of support and monitoring preferred by teachers in the implementation and management of SBTPD, and finally, benefit learners, teachers, and provincial and national education officials on the value of SBTPD.

I hereby request a letter of permission from you to conduct this research using all teachers, including the school principal from this school. I have already sought and am awaiting the necessary permission from the Research Office of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Basic Education to conduct this research.

I hope that my request will be positively accepted.

Yours faithfully

Ms. B. S. Nhlumayo

Cell: 072 235 0936

For any queries and further information, you may consult my supervisor, Professor Vitallis Chikoko on 031 260 2639 or chikokov@ukzn.ac.za. Alternatively, you can contact the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Office, contact details: Mr. P. Mohun on 031 260 4557, email: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za. You can also contact me, Mrs. Buhle Nhlumayo using the details provided in the letter requesting permission.

APPENDIX E: PERMISSION LETTER (SCHOOL PRINCIPALS)

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

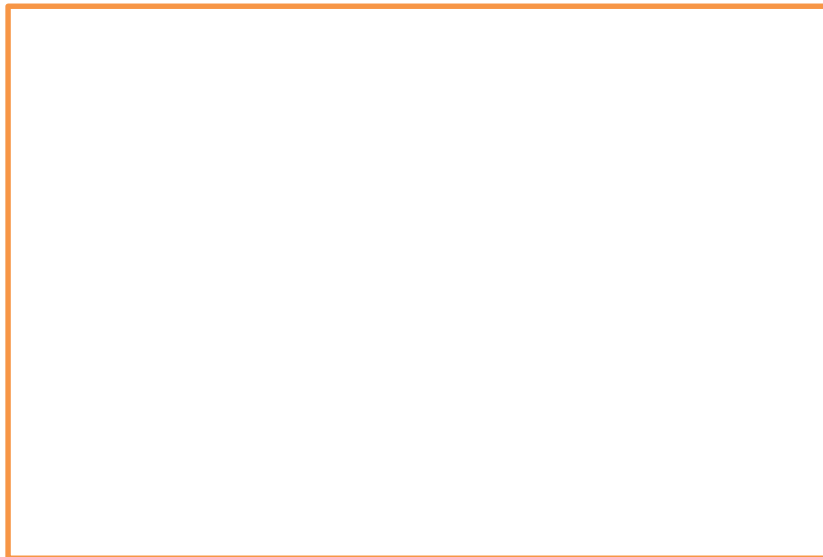
I, _____ the school principal
of _____ Primary School, hereby grant permission to
Nhlumayo Buhle Stella to conduct the study entitled: *The dynamics of implementing school-
based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in
KwaZulu-Natal*

I hereby confirm that I understand the nature of the research project, and I consent to this school
participating in the research project.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Stamp:



APPENDIX F: PERMISSION LETTER TO THE CES

P. O. Box 139

Mandeni

4490

15 June 2018

TO: The CES

Department of Education

_____ CMC

Dear Sir

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Title of study: The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the dynamics influencing the implementation of school-based teacher professional development (SBTPD) in schools within rural contexts.

I am a student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), and this research forms part of my Doctor of Philosophy in Education (PhD) study. The findings of the study will be used in my PhD thesis and any related publications and presentations.

I therefore request the use of one Circuit Manager from your office as a participant in this study. If I gain informed consent from the participant, I will use the data generated from the participant in a way that respects their dignity and privacy. Copies of their contributions will be securely stored and disposed of if no longer required for research purposes. Their names or any information that might identify them or their school will not be used in any presentation or publication that might come out of the study. They will be informed that they have no binding commitment to the study and may withdraw their consent; they will not be prejudiced in any way.

There are no direct benefits to participants for participating in the study. However, I hope that this study will make a significant contribution to the knowledge base on how SBTPD can be effectively

implemented and managed in schools, encourage different stakeholders to be cognisant of their roles and responsibilities in the implementation and management of SBTPD, inform teachers, school principals and district officials on the extent of support and monitoring preferred by teachers in the implementation and management of SBTPD, and finally, benefit learners, teachers, and provincial and national education officials on the value of SBTPD.

I hereby request a letter of permission from you to conduct this research using one Circuit Manager from this office. I have already sought and am awaiting the necessary permission from the Research Office of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Basic Education to conduct this research.

I hope that my request will be positively accepted.

Yours faithfully

Ms. B. S. Nhlumayo

Cell: 072 235 0936

For any queries and further information, you may consult my supervisor, Professor Vitallis Chikoko on 031 260 2639 or Chikokov@ukzn.ac.za. Alternatively, you can contact the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Office, contact details: Mr. P. Mohun on 031 260 4557, email: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za. You can also contact me, Mrs. Buhle Nhlumayo using the details provided in the letter requesting permission.

APPENDIX G: PERMISSION LETTERS (CES)

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I, _____ the Chief Education Specialist of _____ CMC, hereby grant permission to Nhlumayo Buhle Stella to conduct the study entitled: ***The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal***

I hereby confirm that I understand the nature of the research project, and I consent to this office participating in the research project.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Stamp:



APPENDIX H: PERMISSION LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

P. O. Box 139

Mandeni

4490

28 February 2019

Dear Prospective Participant

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Title of study: The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal.

I am a student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), and I am conducting research as part of my Doctor of Philosophy in Education (PhD) study. The findings of the study will be used in my PhD thesis and any related publications and presentations. The purpose of the study is to investigate the dynamics influencing the implementation of school-based teacher professional development.

I am seeking your participation in this study which seeks to investigate how teachers, principals and circuit managers understand and experience school-based teacher professional development, why teachers, principals and circuit managers understand and experience school-based teacher development the way they do, to explore the dynamics influencing the implementation of school-based teacher professional development and determine what can be learnt from the dynamics influencing the implementation of school-based teacher professional development.

I have obtained permission from the Principal of your school. I have already obtained the necessary permission from the Research Office of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Basic Education to conduct this research.

This study requires you to be interviewed twice. With your permission, these discussions will be audiotaped. The interview will take place and at a time that suits you and which does not interfere with your work or day programme.

As a participant, you have rights. These include voluntary participation and the right to withdraw from the study at any stage. You have the right to be protected from harm and no detail that will enable you to be identified will be used. All documents, publications and written texts will make use of the pseudonym. You will have access to transcripts of the interviews before they are used in the study. You may delete or insert excerpts from the interview. All information is intended for research purposes only. All data recordings and transcripts will be stored in a locked cabinet in the Supervisor's office. On completion of the study, the findings will be shared with you in a format of your choice (hard copy or electronic copy).

Please note that there is no payment for participation in this study. I hope my request will be accepted positively.

For any queries and further information, you may consult my supervisor, Professor Vitallis Chikoko on 031 260 2639 or Chikokov@ukzn.ac.za. Alternatively, you can contact the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Office, contact details: Mr. P. Mohun on 031 260 4557, email: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za. You can also contact myself, Mrs. Buhle Nhlumayo using the details provided in the letter requesting permission.

Yours faithfully

Mrs. B. S. Nhlumayo

Cell: 072 235 0936

APPENDIX I: CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Title of study: The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal

I hereby confirm that I understood the contents of this document and the nature of this study, and so, consent for it to be conducted using myself as a participant.

I understand that participants are free to leave/withdraw from the study at any time if they want to, without any negative or undesirable consequences to themselves.

I consent to the following data generation activities (please tick)

	YES	NO
Audio-recorded interview with each participant/focus group discussion		

Signature of Participant

Date

APPENDIX J: TURNITIN CERTIFICATE

The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development..

ORIGINALITY REPORT

11%	6%	3%	9%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

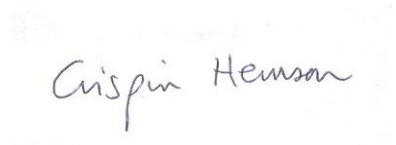
1	Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal Student Paper	2%
2	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	1%
3	www.tandfonline.com	1%

APPENDIX K: LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE

Crispin Hemson
15 Morris Place
Glenwood
Durban
South Africa 4001

hemsonc@gmail.com
0829265333

This is to confirm that I have undertaken language editing of a thesis by Buhle Nhlumayo, entitled: **The dynamics of implementing school-based teacher professional development in South Africa: A case study of one rural circuit in KwaZulu-Natal.**

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Crispin Hemson". The signature is written in black ink on a light-colored background.

29th April 2020

APPENDIX L: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR CIRCUIT MANAGER

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE CIRCUIT MANAGER

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- a) Can you give a bit of background about yourself as a teacher professional?
- b) What was your length of service as a teacher?
- c) What your length of service as a principal?
- d) What has been your length of service as Circuit Manager?
- e) Have you had any exposure to SBTPD?
- f) Was it DBE driven or provided by external providers?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. FORMS OF SBTPD

- What are teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD? As a CM, what do you observe?
- What do you think informs those attitudes?
- Does attending workshops and trainings help with improving teacher practice? If so, how?
- Why should schools have Professional Learning Communities (PLCs), and how do they help in improving teacher practice?

2. INCENTIVISING SBTPD (CPTD)

- Giving awards/incentives to teachers, does it help improve their PD?
- Is there any form of recognition after attending/conducting SBTPD programmes/training?
- Do SBTPD programmes offer opportunities for growth teachers in their careers?

3. ORGANISATION/STRUCTURE OF SBTPD

- Does the District/Circuit office have a structure that is dedicated to TPD? If so, how do they help schools?
- What is your role as a CM in that structure, if any?
- What is your take on teacher professionalism? How does that affect/impact on SBTPD?
- What is your opinion on the CPTD policy? Is it bearing any fruit?

4. COLLABORATION

- How do you ensure that there is collaboration between your schools? What role do you play in that collaboration?
- What collaborative practices do schools in your circuit practise?
- Do you think such collaborations are working? Are they achieving intended goals?
- What challenges do you come across with regards to collaboration between/among schools?

5. SUPPORT

- How do you support your schools in their PD?
- How often do you give support to your schools for SBTPD?
- What kind of support do you think your schools/principals require from you as their CM?
- What challenges do you encounter in providing support from the District/Circuit office for TPD (Teacher Professional Development)?

6. MONITORING

- What monitoring strategies of SBTPD do you have in place as a CM? Are they adequate? What structures are in place for SBTPD monitoring?
- What/which aspects of SBTPD do you actually monitor, and how often?
- What challenges do you encounter as you perform your monitoring duties?

7. CHALLENGES

- What are some of the **key challenges** you face in the implementation of SBTPD in schools?
- What challenges do school principals face in managing SBTPD in school, and how can you mitigate those challenges in support of the school principal?
- What challenges related to IQMS are reported to you as CM/do you experience?
- What challenges related to the CPTD policy are reported to you as CM?
- How do the changes in the curriculum design affect the implementation of SBTPD?
- The location of schools (rural area), what impact does it have on the implementation of SBTPD as well as the CPTD policy? Are there any challenges?

- How would you rate the TPD taking place in your schools? Is it working...is it helping teachers become more professional in the way they do things?

As we close our interview, can you suggest ways to better implement SBTPD this circuit? What do you think would contribute to successful implementation of SBTPD?

APPENDIX M: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- a) Can you give a bit of background about yourself as a teacher professional?
- b) How long have you served as a teacher?
- c) What is your length of service in years as a school principal?
- d) How long have you served as a principal in this particular school?
- e) Have you had any exposure to SBTPD?
- f) Was it DBE driven or provided by external providers?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. FORMS OF SBTPD

- What are teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD? As a school principal, what do you observe?
- What do you think informs those attitudes?
- What programmes/activities do you have as a school for SBTPD?
- What other training have your teachers received (are receiving), if any, that enables them to improve practice?
- Does attending workshops and trainings help with improving teacher practice? If so, how?
- What standards (rules that guide) does your school have in place for SBTPD?

- Do you have Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) in the school? And how do they help in improving teacher practice?
- How do you ensure that your school is a learning organisation for both teachers and learners?

2. INCENTIVISING SBTPD (CPTD)

- Giving awards/incentives to teachers, does it help improve their PD?
- Is there any form of recognition after attending/conducting SBTPD programmes/training?
- Do SBTPD programmes offer opportunities for growth for your teachers?

3. ORGANISATION/STRUCTURE OF SBTPD

- What structure/s (any committees) do you have in the school for the implementation of SBTPD?
- What is your role as a school principal, if any?
- Do you use coaching and mentoring as one of your strategies of SBTPD? If so, how? Does it help in improving teacher practice?
- What is your take on teacher professionalism? How does that affect SBTPD?
- What is your opinion on the CPTD policy?
- How do you ensure that the implementation of SBTPD is a continuous phenomenon and not a once-off event?

4. COLLABORATION

- How do you ensure that there is collaboration between teachers in school and with other schools? What role do you play in collaboration?
- What collaborative practices do you have in this school and with other schools?
- What challenges do you come across in collaboration as teachers in the school and with other schools?

5. SUPPORT

- How do you support your teachers in their PD?
- Are you getting any support from your Circuit Manager in terms of SBTPD? If so, how and how often?
- What kind of support would you prefer from your Circuit Manager?
- What challenges do you encounter in seeking support from the District/Circuit office for TPD (Teacher Professional Development)?

6. MONITORING

- What monitoring strategies of SBTPD do you have in place as a school principal? Are they adequate? What structures are in place for SBTPD monitoring?
- What/which aspects of SBTPD do you actually monitor, and how often?
- What challenges do you encounter as you perform your monitoring duties?

7. CHALLENGES

- What are some of the **key challenges** you face in seeking to implement SBTPD?

- Any challenges that are related to IQMS?
- How do the changes in the curriculum design affect the implementation of SBTPD in your school?
- The location of your school (rural area), what impact does it have on the implementation of SBTPD as well as the CPTD policy? Are there any challenges?
- How do you fund your SBTPD programmes? Do you have a funding/ financial policy for funding any SBTPD programme/activities?
- How would you rate the TPD taking place in your school? Is it working...is it helping teachers become more professional in the way they do things?

As we close our interview? Can you suggest ways to better implement SBTPD in your school?

What do you think would contribute to successful implementation of SBTPD?

APPENDIX N: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS (FGDs)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR FOCUS GROUPS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Before commencing with the interview, group members will be given a paper with a list of questions for background information. These will be the questions for statistical purposes only.

- a) How old are you?
- b) What is your gender?
- c) What is your highest professional qualification?
- d) How long have you served as a teacher?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. FORMS OF SBTPD

- What do you think of the CPTD policy?
- What informs that kind of thinking?
- What are teachers' attitudes towards SBTPD? What informs those attitudes?
- How often do you attend trainings & workshops? Is it helping in your growth as teachers?
- Does attending workshops help improve your PD and your teaching practice?
- What SBTPD programmes/activities do you engage in at your school?
- Do you have Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) in your school? If so, how do they help improve your TPD?

- Are you satisfied with the kind/type of development programmes the DBE offers to you as teachers?
- How often do you have your school-based teacher development programmes? Is it helping your growth as teachers?
- How involved are you as teachers in your own TPD programmes/activities? What role do you play?

2. INCENTIVISING SBTPD (CPTD)

- How do you feel about giving awards/incentives to teachers, does it help improve their PD?
- Is there any form of recognition after attending/conducting SBTPD programmes/training?
- Do SBTPD programmes offer opportunities for growth in your careers as teachers?

3. ORGANISATION/STRUCTURE OF SBTPD

- What structure/s (any committees) do you have in the school for the implementation of SBTPD?
- What roles do you play in those TPD structures?
- Do you use coaching and mentoring as one of your strategies of SBTPD? If so, how? Does it help in improving teacher practice?
- What is your take on teacher professionalism? How does that affect SBTPD?
- For your own PD, what are the sources of knowledge do you use? (colleagues/SMT/Subject Advisors/ Self) How?

4. COLLABORATION

- Do you collaborate with each other as teachers in school and with other schools?
If so, how is it helping?
- What collaborative practices do you have in this school and with other schools?
(What exactly do you do, that which you call collaboration?)
- How often do you collaborate with one another in the school to help improve in your teaching? In what way? Please explain.
- What challenges do you come across in collaboration as teachers in the school and with other schools?
- What is the role of the school principal in ensuring that collaboration takes place?

5. SUPPORT

- Are you getting any support from your school principal in terms of SBTPD? If so, how and how often?
- What kind of support would you prefer from your school principal?
- Is the support provided by DBE/Subject Advisors enough? Please explain.
- What challenges do you encounter in seeking support from the District/Circuit office for TPD (Teacher Professional Development)?

6. MONITORING

- How is your TPD monitored? (who/how)
- What/which aspects of SBTPD are actually monitored, and how often?

- What challenges are encountered in the monitoring of your TPD?

7. CHALLENGES

- What are some of the **key challenges** you face in the implementation of SBTPD?
- Any challenges that are related to IQMS?
- How do the changes in the curriculum design affect the implementation of SBTPD in your school?
- The location of your school (rural area), what impact does it have on the implementation of SBTPD as well as the CPTD policy? Are there any challenges?
- How are your SBTPD programmes funded? Do you have a funding/ financial policy for funding any SBTPD programme/activities?
- How often are you assisted by the district officials in implementing the programmes into your day-to-day teaching activities?
- How do you feel about implementing what you learn in workshops in classrooms? How easy is it for you to implement?
- What resources are in place/would you require for the effective implementation of SBTPD?
- How would you rate the TPD taking place in your school? Is it working...is it helping teachers (yourselves) become more professional in the way they do things?

As we close our interview? Can you suggest ways to better implement SBTPD in your school?

What do you think would contribute to successful implementation of SBTPD?