AN EXPLORATION OF OUT-OF-FIELD TEACHER LEARNING EXPERIENCES: A CASE STUDY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS AT PHOLELA CIRCUIT, KWAZULU-NATAL

By

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DECLARATION

I, Nkosinathi Seshea, declare that:

i. The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original work.
ii. This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
iii. This dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or others information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers.
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Statement by Supervisor:

This dissertation is submitted with/without my approval.

ABBREVIATIONS/ ACRONYMS

B Ed .	Bachelor of Education
CAPS .	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CDE .	Centre for Development and Enterprise
CK .	Content Knowledge
EMS .	Economics and Management Sciences
FET .	Further Education and Training
GPK .	General pedagogical knowledge
HOD .	Head of Department (school level)
ISPFTED.	Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development
ITE .	Initial Teacher Education
KZN .	KwaZulu-Natal
LIFO .	Last-in-first-out
LO .	Life Orientation
MTSF .	Medium-Term Strategic Framework
PCK .	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PD .	Professional development
PGCE .	Post Graduate Certificate in Education
SASAMS.	South African School Administration and Management System

SMK	.	Subject matter knowledge
SMT	.	School Management Team
SPTD	.	Senior Primary Teachers' Diploma

ABSTRACT

This study explores the learning experiences of secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers. Out-of-field teaching is a phenomenon in which qualified teachers teach subjects, learning areas or/and year levels they were not trained to teach. A purposive sample of six secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers were used. Qualitative data were generated through semi-structured interviews and research diaries, using a case study research method. Thematic analysis was conducted on the basis of the themes that emerged from the participants' responses to the research questions. This study adopted an interpretive paradigm to get an understanding of out-of-field secondary school teachers' learning experiences from the teachers themselves. Grossman's (1990) domains of teacher knowledge, Reid's (in Fraser, Kennedy, Reid & Mc Kinney, 2007) quadrants of teacher learning and Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy were used as conceptual frameworks for this study.

Findings indicated that secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers, when they are first assigned to teach Social Science, experience low efficacy levels because of their poorly developed knowledge, skills and strategies to teach it. As a result of their low efficacy levels, these teachers avoid teaching tasks they find challenging. Their self-efficacy develops as they involve themselves in a variety of learning and teaching activities, using a wide range of sources in different contexts. The level of self-efficacy that develops is, however, not sufficient for the out-of-field Social Science teachers to be able to teach Social Science adequately. In their learning, these teachers involve themselves mostly in informal incidental learning activities to learn different types of knowledge. They learn pedagogical content knowledge mostly from observing their peers teaching, learn content knowledge mostly from textbooks, and also learn general pedagogical knowledge mostly from policy documents and from teachers more knowledgeable in Geography, History and/ or Social Science. This study recommends that scholars conduct large-scale research projects to generate data on the out- of-field teaching phenomenon in South Africa so that appropriate professional learning activities can be designed to improve the competency of out-of-field Social Science teachers. At present, the professional learning activities that are formally organized do not consider the varied learning needs of the out-of-field Social Science

teachers but tend to concentrate on teaching teachers what curriculum policy documents entail. In addition to professional learning activities for all Social Science teachers, designing professional learning activities specifically for the out-of-field Social Science teachers will contribute in helping out-of-field Social Science teachers to learn how to teach Social Science better.

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CHAPTER ONE:
BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by describing the purpose of the study, and offer background information and the context in which the study was conducted. The importance of this study is then explained. This is followed by the presentation of the research questions, and the description of methods used to answer these questions. A brief overview of the literature related to the present study is then offered, and conceptual frameworks on the basis of which the study's findings are analyzed are presented. The chapter ends with a brief overview of the dissertation.

1.2 Background and context

The purpose of this study was to explore the learning experiences of secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers. Since 1994 the South African government made significant changes to education policy frameworks. Those changes were mainly to address the inequalities that were associated with apartheid legislations. The new policies tackled such problems as the lack of educational resources, dysfunctional schools, shortage of qualified teachers and an absence of the culture of learning especially in rural and township schools. Although these problems have been attended to fairly well, that cannot be said with the problem of the provision of qualified and competent teachers. Keevey (2006) argues that in 1994 a large proportion of South African teachers were either unqualified or underqualified. He maintains that, in many cases, teachers had no professional qualifications and had limited subject specific training. According to Mays (2004), this resulted from the fact that during the apartheid era, teachers could begin teaching in 'black' schools with only two years of professional training. Sometimes teachers would teach without any professional qualification at all.

Reporting for the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE) in 2015, Hofmey and Draper maintain that the availability of qualified teachers who can offer quality teaching in all subjects or learning areas, and in all year levels remains a serious problem in the system of education in South Africa. They claim that the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development 2011 – 2015 (ISPFTED) has its primary objective the improvement of the quality of teachers. Furthermore, they argue that this policy framework was developed

because of the realization that there was a shortage of qualified teachers able to teach certain subjects at specific year levels. Moreover, they claim that it arose as a result of the concern with the insufficient use of qualified teachers, the hiring of inappropriately qualified teachers and unqualified people to fill vacant posts. Mukeredzi (2013) argues that appointing teachers who are professionally unqualified and those that are underqualified has been a world- wide practice in an attempt to deal with the shortage of secondary school teachers, especially in rural areas. She maintains that this is done despite the fact that it has been associated with low education quality.

In 2010, the South African State president appointed a National Planning Commission whose main task was to deal with nine challenges facing the country. One of those challenges was the poor quality of education for black people. The commission established that poor quality education detrimentally affects learners' access to employment opportunities. This results from the fact that poor quality education fails to offer learners skills that are required in the world of work. The Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2014 – 2019 also notes that it is because of poor quality education that black learners' opportunities to obtain employment are limited. Furthermore, this framework indicates that poor quality education impedes the country's progress in creating enough skills to develop the economy. Moreover, the MTSF 2014 – 2019 has it that quality education is essential in promoting one's economic mobility, in advancing the country's economic development, in eradicating poverty, and in reducing social inequalities. In advancing the same argument, Mukeredzi, Mthiyane and Bertram (2015) assert that education and training has been shown to have contributed to different countries' economic development. They caution that for this to happen, however, teachers that are needed are those "who are well equipped to effectively discharge their roles" (Mukeredzi et al., 2015, p.1). They point out that, at present, South Africa faces problems with regards to quality educators as the country still employs a large number of underqualified and unqualified teachers.

At present, an adequately qualified teacher in South Africa is the one who has a matric or a National Senior Certificate (NCS) plus four years of tertiary level professional training. The Draft Policy on Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (2010) states that the primary purpose of Initial Teacher Education (ITE) qualifications is to ensure that all teachers specialize in a specific year level. "This specialization is associated with competence

in subject matter knowledge" (DoE & HE, 2011, p17). For example, teachers who hold Bachelor of Education (B Ed) degrees are qualified to teach either in the Foundation Phase or they can choose certain subjects or learning areas specific to the Intermediate, Senior or Further Education and Training Phase.

Du Plessis (2013) argues that the quality of education is influenced by the availability of various resources to support effective pedagogies. Hattie (2009), cited in Du Plessis 2013, claims that teachers remain the most influential resource in education. Mc Cooney and Price (2009) argue that assigning teachers to posts where they do not qualify has been a contested issue within the education fraternity. Du Plessis (2005) maintains that teaching characteristics that ensure success in classrooms are threatened by the *out-of-field* teaching phenomenon. Out-of-field teaching is a phenomenon in which teachers teach subjects, learning areas or year levels for which they do not have suitable qualifications. As a result of the out-of-field teaching phenomenon, "well qualified and well trained educators often find themselves teaching unfamiliar subjects without specialized or intensive assistance from staff development programs" (Du Plessis, Gillies & Carroll, 2014, p.2). One of the principles underlying the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa requires a teacher to be a specialist in a certain learning area, subject or year level (DoE, 2006). The out-of-field teaching phenomenon promotes quite the opposite of what this policy requires. As such, the out-of-field teaching phenomenon undermines quality education envisaged in the policy frameworks mentioned above.

Ingersoll (2006a) argues that the problem of ensuring that school classrooms have adequately qualified teachers has been the primary concern across educational systems transnationally. He maintains that it is a widely held belief that the quality of teachers is crucial in leaners' education. According to him, many nations concern themselves with the equitable distribution of quality teachers within their educational systems. He asserts that it is worrying that in some nations, in spite of newly qualified teachers being made available to their education systems, quite a number of learners lack access to qualified teachers. This leads him to claim that many studies have prioritized teacher quality as one of the main concern education systems have to contend with. When analyzing the number of classes not staffed by qualified teachers and the extent of the use of unqualified teachers in the United States, Ingersoll (2003) found that while

almost all teachers held at least basic qualifications, levels of out-of-field teaching were still high. Du Plessis (2005) also makes a similar claim about the existence and the level of the out-of-field teaching phenomenon in South Africa. However, the South African situation is rather unique. In this country, the whole education system was restructured with the dismantling of apartheid. There were curricular changes made in the education system. At present, some of the Intermediate and Senior Phase learning areas integrate different subjects. For an example, Economics and Management Sciences (EMS) incorporates Business Studies, Economics and Accountancy. Social Science (SS) incorporates History and Geography. Teachers trained before these curricular changes do not necessarily have all these incorporated subjects in their qualifications. A teacher might be qualified in Geography only, and be expected to teach Social Science. Such a teacher is not adequately qualified to teach Social Science. In this instance, such a teacher teaches outside his or her field of expertise.

The Ministerial Committee on Rural Education highlighted problems of shortages of qualified and competent teachers, problems of teaching multi-grade and large classes, under resourced schools, and limited access to professional development programs for teachers (DoE, 2006). It is because of these reasons that Mukeredzi (2013) asserts that qualified and competent teachers avoid being appointed in such areas. For her, this leaves professionally unqualified and underqualified teachers to take up teaching posts in poor rural secondary schools. This study aimed at exploring how secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers experience learning how to teach Social Science. The study was conducted at rural secondary schools in Pholela circuit of the Harry Gwala District, KZN.

1.3 Rationale

The development of appropriate professional development (PD) activities for out-of-field Social Science teachers constitute the main problem of this study. The literature on the out-of-field teaching phenomenon has largely focused on the reasons for, levels of, impacts of and possible solutions to the out-of-field teaching phenomenon. Mc Cooney and Price (2009) maintain that this phenomenon is still under researched. Du Plessis (2005) points out that there is a growing need to learn more about this phenomenon. She asserts that teachers' individual experiences should be explored. According to her, there is a need to understand the meaning of these experiences from the point of view of the teachers themselves. My study focuses on out-of-field

teachers' learning experiences. I am of the view that out-of-field teachers' learning experiences need to be understood for appropriate learning programs to be developed for out-of-field teachers. This is important as out-of-field teachers have been seen as lacking sufficient content, and pedagogical content knowledge in the subjects or learning areas they are assigned to teach. Du Plessis et al., (2014) argue for professional learning programs designed with out-of-field teachers' lived experiences in mind. In my teaching career, I have been worried by teachers who teach subjects or learning areas they are not qualified to teach. My main concern has always been the quality of instructions rendered by such inappropriately assigned teachers. I believe that the phenomenon of out-of-field teaching exacerbates the problem of the poor quality education that the country currently endures. The findings of this study will enable policy makers, school district managers, principals and school level HODs to design Professional Development (PD) activities best suited for teachers teaching in out-of-field positions. I hope that this will help contribute towards improving the quality of education that is threatened by the existence of the out-of-field teaching phenomenon.

1.4 Research question(s)

To facilitate the exploration of out-of-field teacher learning experiences, the main research question posed in this study was:

How do out-of-field Social Science teachers experience learning how to teach Social Science?

To answer the main question, I used four critical questions:

1) What knowledge, skills (and strategies) do out-of-field teachers think are important for Social Science teachers?
2) To what extent do out-of-field Social Science teachers say they feel prepared to teach Social Science?
3) How do (or did) out-of-field Social Science teachers learn the knowledge required to teach Social Science?
4) What types of knowledge (and skills) have out-of-field Social Science teachers learnt in order to teach Social Science?

1.5 Objectives of the study

The main objective of this study is:

To explore the learning experiences of secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers.

Secondary objectives are:

To understand what knowledge, skills and teaching strategies secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers think are important for Social Science.

To ascertain the extent to which secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers say they feel prepared to teach Social Science.

To understand where secondary school Social Science teachers learn the knowledge, skills and teaching strategies required to teach Social Science.

To explore the types of knowledge secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers have learnt in order to teach Social Science.

1.6 Brief overview of related literature and conceptual frameworks.

Out-of-field teaching is defined as a phenomenon in which qualified teachers teach subjects, learning areas or year levels they are not formally qualified to teach (Ingersoll, 1999; Mc Cooney & Price, 2009; Ingersoll & Curran, 2004 & Hobbs, 2013). According to Ingersoll (1999), out-of-field teaching results from poor or lack of initial teacher education, the role of teacher unions, teacher shortage, and from the social organization of school work and continued treatment of teaching as a semi-skilled work. Out-of-field teaching also occurs when education systems undergo transformation. The phenomenon of out- of-field teaching affects all education systems world-wide (Ingersoll, 2006a).

Whereas the type of knowledge teachers need most is the pedagogic content knowledge, out-of-field teachers appear to need content knowledge more than the other types of knowledge. Faced with challenges on insufficient content and pedagogical content knowledge, out-of-field teachers use a variety of strategies, and make use of many resources to develop themselves professionally (Du Plessis, 2015). These teachers learn both by acquiring knowledge and skills

as individuals, and by developing their competence in social settings (Bertram, 2011). Moreover, their learning occurs in many different aspects of their teaching practice (Borko, 2004), and the context in which they learn has a great bearing on the nature of that learning (Bakkens, Vermunt & Wubbels, 2010). According to Yates (2007), teacher learning does not only occur in formal settings, it also takes place informally during the course of the day at school. Grossman's (1990) domains of teacher knowledge, Reid's (in Fraser et al., 2007) quadrants of teacher learning and Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy were used as conceptual frameworks when analyzing data in this study.

1.7 Methodological approach

A qualitative exploratory case study, located within the interpretive paradigm, is used in this study. Yin (2014) argues that a case study explores a contemporary phenomenon occurring in a bounded, real-world situation, and that the understanding of that phenomenon is influenced by the contextual factors within which that phenomenon takes place. According to him, it is appropriate to use the case study method in a study where the research questions are the *how* or *why* questions, where the researcher has no control over the participants' behavior, and where the study focuses on a present day phenomenon as opposed to an essentially historical event.

This study explores *how* out-of-field Social Science teachers learn to teach Social Science. Teacher learning is a continuous process. The context in which teacher learning occurs influences this learning. To understand teacher learning, therefore, the environment in which it occurs needs to be understood as well. The case study method is able to reveal conditions that are crucial to the phenomenon being explored. The case being explored in this study is out-of-field teacher learning in the Pholela circuit.

1.7.1 Data collection

I used both semi-structured interviews and research diaries to collect data. Polkinghorne (2005) argues that the aim of the interview is to access an in-depth revelation of the experience being studied from the participants themselves. Event contingent research diaries, which were used in this study, enabled the participants to make regular records of their daily experiences and activities.

1.7.2 Sampling

Purposive sampling was used to select participants for this study. Purposive sampling allows for the selection of only those who have relevant information about the phenomenon being explored (Yin, 2011). Six (6) out-of-field Social Science teachers participated in this study. Participants in this study were qualified teachers who taught secondary school level Social Science without being qualified to teach it.

1.7.3 Ethical issues

Throughout my interactions with the participants, I was guided by Guillemin and Gillam's (2004) observation that researchers are ethically obliged to interact with participants in a human, non-exploitative manner and, at the same time, being mindful of their roles as researchers.

1.7.4 Data analysis

I conducted both inductive and deductive analysis. I also read the data several times until themes emerged. These themes were then analyzed in order to understand how secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers experience their learning. I compared and contrasted the study's findings with relevant research findings in order to situate the new data into pre-existing data (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The study's conclusion was based on the discussion of the findings.

1.7.5 Trustworthiness issues

Guba's (1981) four criteria for assessing trustworthiness of a qualitative study, and Yin's (2014) four principles of a case study data collection were observed in order to strengthen the trustworthiness of this study. Guba's (1981) criteria are credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Yin's (2014) principles are the use of multiple sources of data, the creation of a case study data base, the maintenance of a chain of evidence, and being cautious when using data from electronic so

1.7.**6** Study limitations

This was a small-scale qualitative case study. The findings cannot be generalized but are limited to the contexts of the participants and schools involved.

1.8 Overview of the dissertation

1.8.1 Chapter Two: Literature review

Literature related to this study is presented in this chapter. I begin the chapter by discussing the out-of-field teaching phenomenon, and knowledge out-of-field teachers require. This is followed by a discussion on teacher learning, and the types and contexts of teacher learning. I end the chapter by presenting the conceptual frameworks which underpin this study.

1.8.2 Chapter Three: Methodology

In this chapter, I first describe and justify the research design and methodology followed when conducting this study. The study is located within the interpretivist paradigm, and uses a case study as its research method. The data collection methods, namely, the semi-structured interviews and research diaries are then described. I explain the appropriateness of these methods for this study. Finally, I present the sampling procedure, data analysis, ethical issues, trustworthiness issues and the limitations of the study.

1.8.3 Chapter Four: Findings

In this chapter, I present and analyze the findings of the study. The findings are based only on what the participants said during the interviews, as well as what they recorded in the research diaries they were provided with.

1.8.4 Chapter Five: Discussion, recommendations and conclusion

In this final chapter, I discuss and analyze major themes that emerged from the findings. I analyze these themes using the conceptual frameworks, other researchers' findings from the literature review section of the dissertation, as well as my own ideas on out-of-field teacher learning. I then conclude the study, and offer recommendations which emanate from the discussion.

1.9 Summary

In this chapter, I introduced this study by explaining its purpose, its background and the context in which it was conducted and its rationale. The research question (s), overview of related literature including conceptual frameworks used in the study, and the methodological approach adopted were presented. The dissertation overview served to offer the reader an idea of the contents of the other chapters in the dissertation. In the next chapter, I present a detailed review of literature related to this study.

CHAPTER TWO:
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature related to the present study. The purpose of this literature review is to locate the present study within research previously conducted in the field of teacher learning. As explained in Chapter one, the purpose of the present study is to explore the learning experiences of secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers. In this review, I first discuss the out-of-field teaching phenomenon, and its experiences internationally. I then focus on the knowledge out-of-field teachers need. This is followed by a discussion of teacher learning, and the types and contexts of teacher learning.

2.2 The out-of-field teaching phenomenon

2.2.1 Various definitions

Out-of-field teaching is defined as a phenomenon in which teachers teach subjects for which they have little education or training (Ingersoll, 1999). Seastrom, Gruber, Henke, McGrath & Cohen (2002), consider out-of-field teachers to be those without a major, minor and certification in a subject taught. Ingersoll and Curran (2004) assert that out-of-field teachers are those that are assigned to teach subjects that do not match their field of preparation. This refers to those teachers who are given tasks to teach subjects that do not fall within the 'learning areas' or 'fields' they were trained or educated in. Hobbs (2013) conceives of out-of-field teaching as a phenomenon in which qualified or certified teachers teach subjects they do not have formal qualifications for. A definition that provides a better understanding of the phenomenon of out-of-field teaching is the one offered by Mc Cooney and Price (2009). According to them, out-of-field teaching means teaching in a subject or field for which the teacher has neither a major nor a minor tertiary qualification. They also claim that out-of-field teaching means teaching at a level of schooling for which a teacher is not formally qualified. The definition offered by Ingersoll (1999) is about teachers with little education and training in the subjects they are assigned to teach. It does not specify the levels of training required. Seastrom et al. (2002) specify this level of training but do not include the year level a teacher is trained to teach. Ingersoll and Curran's (2004) definition is about the year level a teacher is trained to teach. It

does not include the amount of training in the subject. Hobbs (2013) focuses only on teachers teaching a subject they are not formally qualified to teach. Formal qualifications implies a certain level of training in a subject. The definition offered by Mc Cooney and Price (2009) is better because it specifies the level of qualification required of a teacher, and includes the year level a teacher is trained to teach. For the purposes of this study, out-of-field teaching is defined as a phenomenon in which qualified teachers teach subjects, learning areas and/ or year levels they are not formally qualified to teach.

2.2.2 Reasons and causes

Ingersoll (1999) puts forward reasons that have been suggested for the existence of the phenomenon of out-of-field teaching in schools world-wide. Firstly, it is that out-of-field teaching results from inadequate initial teacher training. Secondly, it is that out-of-field teaching results from the abuse of seniority rules by some teacher unions. Thirdly, it is that out-of-field teaching results from teacher shortage. However, Ingersoll (1999) considers the main reason behind the out-of-field teaching phenomenon as the way school work is organized and the treatment of teaching as a semi-skilled job. With regards to the first reason, Ingersoll (1999) maintains that the source of out-of-field teaching does not only lie in the quality of initial teacher training but it lies "on the lack of fit between teachers' field of preparation and their teaching assignment" (Ingersoll, 1999, p31). Out-of-field Social Science teachers, for an example, do not lack teaching qualifications but they lack degrees in Social Science or Social Science education (Ingersoll, 1999). To explain this, out-of-field teachers are teachers qualified in other fields, but are assigned to teach in fields they are not qualified in. The second reason given for the occurrence of out-of-field teaching has to do with the abuse of some rules by teachers unions. Ingersoll (1999) argues that the *last-hired, first-fired* rule implies that, when teachers have to be retrenched as a result of declining learner enrolments, long serving teachers are offered tasks previously assigned to the newly hired ones regardless of their (long serving teachers') incompetence. The third, and most popular, reason given as the cause of out-of-field teaching is teacher shortages (Ingersoll, 1999). Ingersoll (1999) maintains that when school administrators need to fill in vacancies but do not get suitably qualified candidates, they either offer the job to a less qualified teacher or they might assign a teacher trained in another subject or year level.

According to Ingersoll (1999), teachers should be teaching what they are qualified to teach, and teaching should be treated like other professions where specialization is highly valued. He asserts that schools are faced with the problem of recruiting and retaining good teachers, and that it is because of the school system's failure to recruit and retain good teachers that schools end up with employees assigned to do tasks they are not qualified in.

The reasons advanced above for the occurrence of out-of-field teaching also apply to South Africa. South Africa is an example of cases where out-of-field teaching also occur as a result of curricular changes in the education system. In South Africa, the government that came into power after the 1994 elections embarked upon dismantling the apartheid legislations. Harley and Wedekind (2004) argue that national political visions are closely related to national curricula visions, and that is why the government transformed the school curriculum as well. In fact, the whole education system was restructured with the dismantling of apartheid. According to Bertram (2010), these curriculum reforms were introduced in two stages. She maintains that the purpose of the first stage was to develop a non-racist, non-sexist, and democratic unitary national syllabus per subject. The second phase was aimed at developing and implementing a new curriculum by the year 2005 in the primary schools up to Grade 9. This new curriculum was launched in Grade 1 in 1998, and had to be phased in by 2005, but was replaced by the Revised National Curriculum Statements. Harley and Wedekind (2004) argue that three principles stand out in the design of this curriculum. They maintain that the first design feature was that the learning outcomes learners were meant to achieve became paramount. The second design feature was knowledge integration. The third principle was learner-centered pedagogy.

As a result, of the principle of knowledge integration, content subjects were integrated into Learning Areas. For example, Economics and Management Science (EMS) incorporated Business Studies, Economics and Accountancy. Social Science incorporated History and Geography. Teachers trained before the curriculum changes did not necessarily have all these incorporated subjects in their qualifications. A Social Science teacher might have specialized in either Geography or History. This teacher, in terms of Sharplin's (2014) classification, has his or her skills and qualifications match some aspects of the tasks he or she is assigned to, but there would be additional aspects for which the teacher has no qualification. It is because of those roles in which the teachers' qualifications do not match the assigned task that the teacher would

be in an out-of-field position. Curriculum 2005, therefore, added another dimension to the causes of the out-of-field teaching phenomenon in South Africa. The integration of knowledge, which is one of the key principles of C2005, meant that a majority of teachers, if not all, had to teach some aspects of the newly introduced Learning Areas they had not been trained to teach. This also meant that these teachers' ITE no longer matched the roles the teachers were assigned to. Furthermore, this signaled the shortage of teachers who were qualified to teach these newly established Learning Areas. During the process of transforming the education system, some teachers had to be redeployed to teach in other schools. Two principles were essential in this process. These were the *curriculum needs* and the *last-in, first-out* (LIFO) principles. When only the LIFO principle was applied, the more experienced teachers were not redeployed. They were then assigned tasks previously assigned to novice teachers who were suitably qualified for those tasks. In a study of teacher trade unionism, Zengele (2014) points out that the principle of curriculum needs was sometimes not considered when redeploying some teachers.

2.2.3 Availability of qualified teachers

Ingersol (2006a) argues that problem of ensuring the availability of adequately qualified teachers has been the main concern across educational systems world-wide. According to him, many studies have prioritized teacher quality as one of the primary concerns education systems of the world have to deal with. This is the reason why the phenomenon of out-of-field teaching has been researched in many different countries, because it affects education quality (Du Plessis et al., 2014).

2.2.4 Occurrence

Out-of-field teaching occurs in more than 50% of all secondary schools, in any given year in the United States of America (Ingersoll, 1999). According to Ingersoll (1999) small schools have higher levels of out-of-field teaching which occurs more than in larger schools. He suggests that this is because small schools cannot afford staff specialization because of their small numbers when they are expected to teach about the same amount of subject as those offered by larger schools. Darling-Hammond and Ball (1998) claim that the level of out-of-field teaching is higher in junior secondary classes, and in poverty-stricken schools. They maintain that 41% of physical science secondary school learners receive their tuition from out-of-field teachers, and that more than 28% of US mathematics teachers were teaching out-of-field in

1994. This leads Ingersoll (2003) to view the high levels of out-of-field teaching as the driving force behind underqualified teaching in the American schools. The Staff in Australian Schools (2008) report found evidence of out-of-field teaching in both primary and secondary schools (Mc Cooney & Price, 2009). Darby-Hobbs (2002) asserts that about 16 % of all science teachers, and 24% of all mathematics teachers in Australia are unsuitably qualified for the subjects they teach. The 2011 Staff in Australia's School survey shows that more than 50% junior secondary mathematics teachers did not have a major in mathematics (Price & Hobbs, 2014). The same percentage of teachers did not have a major in senior secondary physics. According to Price and Hobbs (2014), 39% mathematics teachers were regarded as out-of-field and 23% had no mathematics at tertiary level at all.

Ni Riordain & Galway (2014) claim that in Ireland, the only study on out-of-field teaching was conducted by Ni Riordain & Hannigan in 2009. That study found that 48% of mathematics teachers were not qualified to teach mathematics. Bosse and Torner (2014) reveal that 34% teachers of German, and 50% teachers of mathematics in Germany primary schools teach out-of-field. They also claim that in Germany there is 31% of Biology teachers, 25% of Chemistry teachers and 34% of Physical Science teachers teaching Grade 9 without any formal qualification to teach those subjects. In Korea, the level of out-of-field high school teachers was about 2% in 2008, it rose to 3% in 2010 but then decreased to 2% in 2013 (Kim & Kim, 2014). Social Studies, Kim and Kim (2014) argue, is the subject taught by the highest percentage of out-of-field teachers. These writers claim that there are many out-of-field long-serving teachers than out-of-field novice teachers. However, they have similar findings with Ingersoll (1999) in that out-of-field teaching occurs mostly in smaller, remote and rural schools than in large urban schools. According to Du Plessis (2005), the out-of-field teaching phenomenon exists, and may even be growing in South Africa. She asserts that out-of-field teaching is found both in public and private schools in South Africa.

Many of these studies focus on teaching Mathematics and Science subjects in an out-of-field position. Some concentrate on the levels and implications of this phenomenon. Only a few have been conducted on the out-of-field teacher's lived experiences. My study explores secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers' learning experiences. It focuses on how, and where

these teachers learn the knowledge they need in order to teach Social Science. The section below discusses the knowledge required by out-of-field teachers in their teaching.

2.3 Out-of-field teacher knowledge

Research often identifies a lack of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge as the primary problem of the out-of-field teaching phenomenon (Hobbs, 2002; Kola & Sunday, 2015; Hirsch, 2006). Out-of-field teachers' lack of sufficient content knowledge affects teaching quality (Kola & Sunday, 2015; Hirsch, 2006). When investigating how the out-of-field teaching phenomenon influences teacher quality, Du Plessis (2015) argues that out-of-field teachers' lack of pedagogical content knowledge tarnishes their self-esteem and confidence. In a study of novice teachers' lived experiences, Du Plessis, Carroll and Gillies (2015) found that novice teachers' lack of sufficient content knowledge resulted in low self-esteem and lack of confidence-on the part of the novice teachers. Darby-Hobbs (2002) argues that confidence is associated with having sufficient knowledge.

Faced with the challenges of insufficient content and pedagogical content knowledge, out-of-field teachers use a variety of strategies, and make use of many resources to develop themselves. Du Plessis (2015) argues that out-of-field teachers increase their preparation time and learn content by heart. She also claims that out-of-field teachers rely mostly on text books when teaching, and that they do not allow opportunities for learners to discuss concepts in an in-depth manner. The writer, however, also claims that out-of-field teachers make use of senior and/ or specialist teachers to help them understand concepts in the subject. Senior teachers also help these out-of-field teachers in identifying essential concepts that need special attention (Du Plessis, 2013). However, it is unfortunate that out-of-field teachers sometimes omit some sections when they feel overwhelmed by the challenges of insufficient content knowledge (Du Plessis, 2013). In a study examining why teachers with insufficient Geography content knowledge find teaching map work challenging, Amosun (2016) found that the main reason was that these teachers were inadequately prepared in Mathematics. Map reading and interpretation needs "abstract thinking and mathematical skills" (Amosun, 2016, p.43). According to Amosun (2016), it is because of the lack of mathematical skills that these teachers avoid teaching map work. Amosun (2016) also claims that most of these teachers do not attend

formally planned map reading and interpretation learning activities, and this exacerbates their poor teaching and learning of map work.

Since the purpose of this study is to explore secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers' learning experiences, teacher learning will be discussed below. This will be followed by a review of literature relating to where and how teachers learn the knowledge they need.

2.4 Teacher learning

There are two main conceptions of teacher learning: the cognitive approach and the socio-cultural approach.

2.4.1 The cognitive approach

The cognitive approach maintains that teacher expertise resides solely in the individual's mind, and that the acquisition of knowledge, understandings and skills is context independent (Putnam & Borko, 2000). According to this approach to teacher learning, teachers gain knowledge, skills and understandings in one setting and transfer those somewhere else. According to Kelly (2006), this is evident in the cognitivists' implicit assumption of the separation of knowledge, skills and understanding gained from their use. Kelly (2006) argues that according to the cognitivist approach, novice teachers need to learn professional knowledge and to apply it in practice for them to become experts. This has been the dominant approach used in many formally planned teacher learning activities (Kelly, 2006). Teachers attend workshops, and are expected to transfer what they learnt there to their individual classrooms. However, research literature suggests that what is learnt from one setting is rarely used by learners in other settings (Kelly, 2006). This leads Kelly (2006) to conclude that the cognitivist approach is insufficient for understanding teacher learning since it does not consider the social context in which teachers work, and the perspectives teachers bring to their workplace.

2.4.2 The socio-cultural approach

The socio-cultural approach maintains that teacher expertise is largely connected to the context in which it occurs. This approach holds that teacher learning takes place in a community of practice where teachers learn while participating in the activities of that community (Lave & Wenger, 1991) The socio-cultural approach is based on a broader understanding of situated learning (Bertram, 2011). According to situated learning, teacher learning takes place in

different contexts where teachers learn both as individuals and in groups. The situated learning theorists maintain that learning is situated in physical and social contexts, is social in nature and distributed across the individual, other persons, and various resources such as textbooks, discourse and computers. The physical and conceptual resources over which learning is distributed help and inform the learning itself (Putnam & Borko, 2000). Furthermore, the physical and social context within which a learning activity occurs becomes part of that learning activity, and the learning activity is part of the learning that takes place within it. According to this perspective, therefore, learning is influenced by the learning activity within which it occurs, and the learning activity is influenced by the context in which it occurs.

Bertram (2011) argues that teachers learn both by acquiring skills and knowledge as individuals *and* by developing their competence in social settings. She maintains that research literature indicates that learning is at times influenced by the context within which it occurs, and it is at other times not. According to her, sometimes abstract learning gets transferred to practice, and at other times it does not.

I concur with Bertram (2011) in that teachers learn both by acquiring skills and knowledge as individuals and by learning collaboratively, that teacher learning occurs in a variety of contexts (Mukeredzi, 2013; Bertram, 2011; Wilson & Berne, 1999), and that the context in which teachers learn has a great impact on teacher learning (Cahn & Minh, 2002; Bakkens et al., 2010; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005). The literature reviewed in this study indicates how teachers learn both as individuals and in groups. It also indicates that teachers learn in a variety of contexts. Moreover, it shows that teachers use a variety of physical and conceptual resources, from both within-school and out of school settings, in their learning (Hobbs, 2012).

2.5 Contexts and types of teacher learning

Borko (2004) maintains that teacher learning occurs in many different contexts, and that it is both an individual and a social process. Yates (2007) asserts that teacher learning does not occur only in formal settings but it also takes place informally. According to him, this learning might occur while a teacher observes another one performing individual work, and it might occur from experiences acquired from the teaching practice itself. When teachers learn, they access support from either resources provided by the school, resources sought by the teachers themselves or

resources that the teachers construct (Hobbs, 2012). The sub-sections below discuss different contexts in which teachers learn, and various types of teacher learning activities and learning strategies.

2.5.1 Workplace learning

Van Eekelen, Vermunt and Boshuizen (2006) define teacher workplace learning as an experience in the workplace that culminates in the *re-establishment* or *changes* of knowledge, skills or attitudes with the teacher being aware that the process entails learning. By re-establishment the authors mean that teachers can learn again what they already know. By change, they mean that some of the teacher's knowledge might be transformed due to that learning experience. Ellstrom (cited in Imants & van Veen, 2009), argues that teacher workplace learning constitutes changes in teaching practices as a result of individual teacher learning at school.

When analyzing teachers' learning experiences in an attempt to understand how teachers learn in their workplace, Vermunt and Wubbels (2010) found that learning environments had a great influence on teachers' learning activities and learning outcomes. Teacher learning in the workplace is part of the daily workplace practices (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005). It is difficult to separate teacher learning from teacher work (Van Eekelen et al., 2006) because work related factors influence the learning of teachers (Cohn & Minh, 2002). According to Imants and van Veen (2009), teacher workplace learning is mostly enhanced when teachers work with students, when they interact with colleagues in work related to students, and when teachers engage themselves in school activities. However, Atwal (2013) claims that teacher learning is promoted where both formal and informal learning opportunities are provided by the school environment. Atwal (2013) asserts that a substantial amount of teacher learning in the workplace is unintentional, that is, it is informal.

2.5.2 Informal learning

Informal learning is a kind of learning that occurs subconsciously or in an unplanned manner in everyday experience at work (Atwal, 2013). Informal learning occurs in the absence of any formally organized professional learning activity (Shapiro, 2003; Hoekstra & Korthagen, 2011). Livingstone (in Fahlman, 2013) argues that informal learning involves the search of knowledge,

understandings, and skills outside the formally organized school curriculum and professional development activities. Falham (2013) maintains that informal learning involves self-directed learning, learning that is unplanned and which a teacher becomes aware of after noticing something about it, and learning that occurs when a teacher is not aware that any learning is taking place. According to Nawab (2012), teachers are engaged in informal learning when they observe others. Cahn & Minh (2002) refers to this as peer learning. Teachers are also involved in informal learning when they implement ideas or strategies gained somewhere else. Such informal learning is known as experiential learning (Cahn & Minh, 2002). Another type of informal learning, the individual inquiry, involves teachers searching the internet and the media (Scribber, 1999).

In a qualitative study of informal learning among school teachers, Lohman and Woolf (2001) found that teachers were involved in three types of informal learning activities. They referred to these as knowledge exchanging, experimenting, and environmental scanning. Knowledge exchanging is when teachers share and reflect on others' practice and experiences. Experimenting has to do with teachers actively experimenting with new ideas and techniques. Environmental scanning occurs when teachers independently scan and gather information from sources outside their school (Lohman & Woolf, 2001). Cahn and Minh (2002) assert that participants in their study were mainly involved in two informal learning activities, which are searching the internet for teaching materials and peer observations.

2.5.3 Collaborative learning

Collaborative teacher learning involves all instances where teachers are engaged with one another in the pursuit of understanding any pedagogical issue (Duncombe & Armour, 2004). It occurs through interactions with colleagues, through conversations and discussions, through observing and being interested in other teachers' work, and through any joint learning undertaking (Atwal, 2013). Roberts and Pruitt (2009) maintain that collaboration takes place when teachers share teaching strategies and methods, when they decide on instructional issues, and when they develop ideas that facilitate the learning of all school community members. Van Eekelen et al. (2006) maintain that teacher learning occurs well when teachers work collaboratively because teacher collaboration has a positive impact on teacher learning.

Relatively few studies have examined the relationship between collaborative teacher learning and the impact it has on teacher practice (Hindin, Morocco, Mott & Aguilar, 2007). Hindin et al., (2007) investigated how teachers practiced what they had learned collaboratively. They maintain that, although teachers' active participation in groups led to changes in their practices, one teacher displaying high quality teaching practice did not fully share her expertise with the group. According to Duncombe and Armour (2004), collaborative teacher learning is identified by research as the main feature for any professional development. When examining the effect of collaboration on student teachers, Rigelman and Ruben (2012) found that, as a result of collaboration with colleagues, student teachers gained certain skills and began to be committed to teaching learners for understanding. The writers claim that international literature proves that learners' needs are better met when teachers learn collaboratively, and that collaborative learning opportunities have been suggested for both teachers and student teachers.

In an exploratory study of how feasible and valuable a lesson study is to secondary mathematics teachers' learning in England, Cajkler, Wood, Norton and Pedder (2014) reveal that participants began to understand their learners better, and that they gradually moved away from teacher-centered approaches when teaching. Cajkler et al. (2004) assert that a lesson study is a systematically organized exploration of classroom pedagogy that is collectively pursued by teachers to improve learning and teaching. They applaud the lesson study as essential in the development of teacher learning at schools. Roberts and Pruitt (2009) argue that the lesson study enables teachers to collaborate when planning lessons that develop both student and teacher learning. Lesson study group members exchange ideas, read together, and collaborate when designing and reviewing a previously developed lesson (Roberts & Pruitt, 2009). Roberts and Pruitt (2009) assert that a lesson study leads to "increased knowledge of content and instruction, increased ability to observe student and a strengthened community of learners and collaborators" (p 150). Teacher collaboration has a positive impact on teacher learning (Atwal, 2013) because knowledge, understandings and skills are developed in the process.

Brownell, Adams, Sindelar, Waldron and van Hover (2006) examined how teachers who learn collaboratively differ from those who do not. They found a difference between the GPK and PCK of those who learn collaboratively and those who do not. In their examination of how collaboration of teachers from different schools helped them in their attempts to improve

practice, Briscoe and Peters (1997) found that collaboration offered teachers opportunities for learning both SMK and PCK. De Clercq (2014) argues that when teachers share ideas about how they actually teach in their classrooms, they get empowered with new teaching methods that are easy to transfer to their own classrooms. When teachers collaborate with the aim of professionally developing themselves, they become part of a professional learning community (Brodie, 2013). In professional learning communities, teacher learning occurs because of the interaction that characterizes these communities (De Clercq, 2014). Such learning is valuable because one's knowledge gets transformed when combined with that of others in the generation of new understandings (Kennedy, 2005). Brodie (2013) applauds collaboration in professional learning communities because "individual teacher's learning from conventional teacher development programs do not necessarily make for coherent or sustained changes for learners" (p.6).

Professional learning communities can be of an intra-school or inter-school arrangement. School-based professional learning communities are found at grade level, within departments, and across the school as a whole. Learning activities developed for teachers in the same school, grade or subject appear to be more effective than those offered to teachers who do not work together (Wong, 2000). Duncombe and Armour (2004), however, argue that teachers may collaborate with colleagues from the same school or with others from other schools. In South Africa, there is a system of school clustering which is increasingly used as communities of professional learning. Reporting on a case study of school clustering in Mpumalanga, De Clercq and Phiri (2013) claim that the Mpumalanga teachers turned the cluster idea into a voluntary teacher development opportunity to share knowledge and improve their teaching. Jita and Mokhele (2014) argue that communities of practice and school clusters are forms of collaboration that encourage teacher learning. These writers explored teachers' understandings of what successful clustering experiences are, and what teachers learn from those experiences. The findings were that clusters appear to develop teachers' SMK and PCK. Moreover, participating teachers appeared to have developed leadership skills, instructional skills, and skills of working collaboratively in a group.

2.5.4 Self-regulated learning

Self-regulated learning is defined as the extent to which learners are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning (Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2008; Kramarski & Michalsky, 2009). Zimmerman (1990) argues that self-regulation is made up of three phases. The first phase involves learners identifying their learning goals, planning to achieve those goals, and considering the likelihood of those goals being achieved. The second phase, they assert, involves learners attempting the learning tasks at hand, and monitoring what they learn. The third phase is when learners assess their performance, and modify or adapt their learning strategies for future learning. Dabbagh and Kitsantas (2011) argue that self-regulated learning can be understood as learners' ability to set goals, and their knowledge of how to achieve those goals. Learners need to be motivated to be able to self-regulate their learning (Dabbagh & Kitsantas, 2011). Motivation is about learners' belief in their ability to learn, how much they value the task to be learned, and how much they are interested in that task (Kramaski & Michalsky, 2009). Kremer-Hayon and Tillema (1999) define self-regulated learning as both a metacognitive and a meta – motivational concept of learning which involves setting goals, organizing and choosing the most suitable methods for accomplishing the specified goals, and the assessment of the learning process itself. I fully concur with Jarvela and Jarvenoja (2011) when they assert that self-regulated learning refers to the process of becoming a strategic learner by regulating one's cognition, motivation, and behavior to make the best use of a learning opportunity.

Zimmerman (1990) argues that metacognitively, self-regulated learners plan, set goals, monitor and assess themselves as they learn. He claims that such learners display high self-efficacy, that is, the perception about their abilities to do what is necessary for the accomplishment of the task. These learners, argues Zimmerman (1990), also have an intrinsic interest in the task at hand. Moreover, these learners seek out information and places where they can learn (or learn better) (Zimmerman, 1989, 1990, 2000; Kramarski & Michalsky, 2009). Above all, these learners learn on their own and motivate themselves during the learning process (Zimmerman, 1990). Kremer-Hayon and Tillema (1990) claim that the learning goals self-regulated learners set for themselves are meant to extend their knowledge. Teachers need to self-regulate their learning to be in a better position to facilitate students' self-regulated learning (van Eekelen, Boshuizen & Vermunt, 2005). "The core of self-regulated teacher learning is that the teacher independently and consciously directs the process of attaining learning goals. The degree to

which a teacher is able to do so makes the teacher more or less a self-regulated learner" (van Eekelen et al., 2005, p 452).

Reviewed below are research studies on self-regulated learning of student teachers and teacher educators. Some of these studies indicate that the use of self-regulated learning appear to lead to quality learning outcomes (Kramarski & Michalsky, 2009; Daloglu & Vural, 2013). Others show that teachers do not use self-regulated learning that much, and some teachers appear to have reservations with its use (Tillema & Kremer-Hayon, 2002; van Eekelen et al., 2005). It also appears that contextual factors have an impact on the use of self-regulated learning (Kremer-Hayon & Tillema, 1999).

A program aimed at developing student teachers' use of their study time was developed on the basis of the Zimmerman, Bonner and Kovach's (1996) academy model (Daloglu & Vural, 2013). According to Daloglu and Vural (2013), using this model proved successful because the participants (student teachers) indicated that they had used various self-regulated learning strategies during the course of the program. In Kramarski and Michalsky's (2009) study, student teachers' professional growth was observed in four different learning environments. Two learning environments were characterized by self-regulated learning while the remaining two were not. Student teachers in the learning environment characterized by self-regulated learning out performed their peers in the learning environments not characterized by self-regulated learning. Hwang and Vrongistinos' (2002) study analyzed the use of self-regulated learning strategies between student teachers with high academic achievements and student teachers with low academic achievement. The findings were that high achievers use a greater variety of self-regulated learning strategies than the low achievers.

A quantitative study conducted by van Eekelen et al. (2005) examined whether experienced higher educators' learning experiences were self-regulated, and the manner in which educators' learning experiences take place. The findings reveal that higher educators' learning experiences are not that self-regulated. The conclusion is that, teachers' learning experiences are not always self-regulated, but it is mostly their teaching practice that is self-regulated (van Eekelen et al., 2005). Tillema and Kremer-Hayon (2002) investigated teacher educators' commitment in facilitating the use of self-regulated learning by their students, and how they, themselves,

practice self-regulation in their learning. The results reveal some reservations these teacher educators harbor concerning the use of self-regulated learning by themselves, and in facilitating the use of self-regulation by their students. Tillema and Kremer-Hayon (2002) suggest that the primary cause of this appears to be these teacher educators' conception of teaching and learning, and the contextual factors that prevail. Kremer-Hayon and Tillema (1999) conducted a qualitative study to examine differences in perceptions between teacher educators and student teachers about the introduction of self-regulated learning in teacher education programs. Both the teacher educators and student teachers supported the introduction of self-regulation into teacher education programs. It was noted, however, that the contextual factors were not always favorable for its introduction.

Zimmerman and Pons (1986) claim that a number of self-regulated learning strategies can be identified from research literature. According to Noudoshan (2012), most researchers agree on at least fourteen strategies used by self-regulated learners. These include self-evaluation, environmental structuring, giving self-consequences, rehearsing, memorizing, seeking social assistance, and reviewing. A self-regulated learner need not use all these learning strategies. Self-regulated learning is about the extent to which a learner actively partakes in his or her own learning metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally (Zimmerman, 2008).

2.6 Conceptual frameworks

The conceptual frameworks on which this study is based, and which have been used as analytical tools to understand the collected data, are informed by concepts related to teacher learning (Mukeredzi, 2013). Grossman's (1990) domains of teacher knowledge, Reid's (in Fraser et al., 2007) quadrants of teacher learning and Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy concept are used to understand secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers' learning experiences. In this study, out-of-field Social Science teachers' learning experiences are explored through the examination of their learning activities. It is from their participation in various learning activities that we can understand how and where out-of-field Social Science teachers learn, and what types of knowledge they have learnt in order to teach Social Science. Grossman's (1990) domains of teacher knowledge are used to analyze the participants' responses to the first and the fourth research questions. These questions are about the knowledge, skills (and strategies) participants think are important for Social Science, and the

types of knowledge participants might have acquired when learning to teach Social Science. Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy is used to analyze participants' responses to the second question, which is about the extent to which participants feel prepared to teach Social Science. Reid's (in Fraser et al., 2007) quadrants of teacher learning are used to analyze participants' responses to the third research question, which is about the contexts and types of teacher learning.

2.6.1 Domains of teacher knowledge

Shulman (1987) introduced seven categories according to which teacher knowledge can be analyzed. These are content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learner and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds. Grossman (1990) modified and developed these into what she considered knowledge domains that form the gist of teacher knowledge. The general areas of teacher knowledge are: subject matter knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of context. These domains are represented in the figure below.

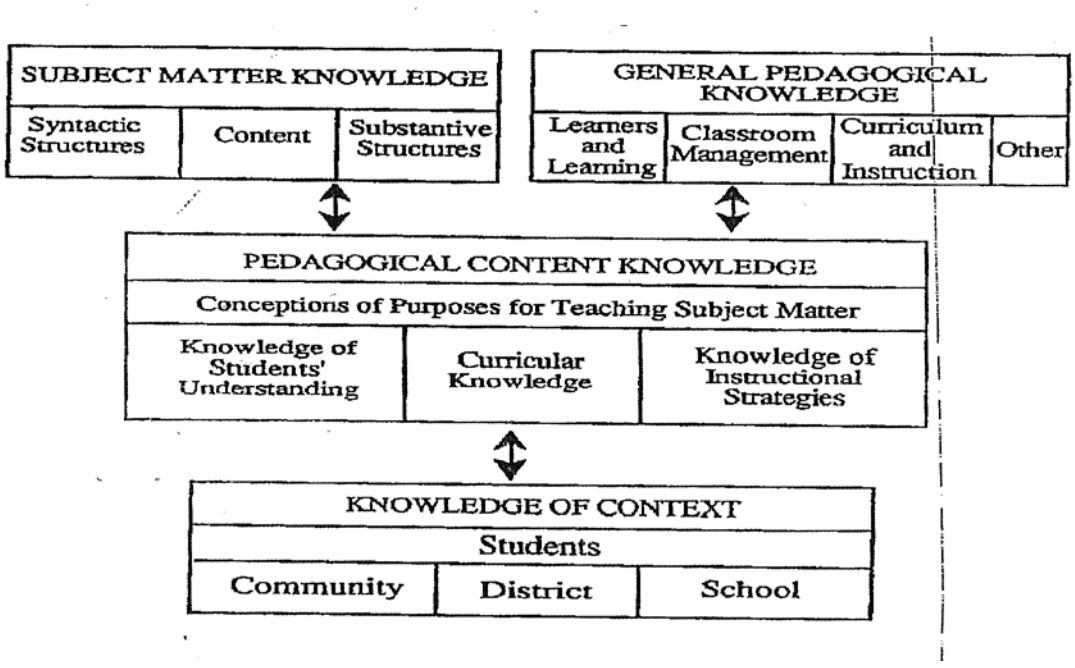

Figure 1. Grossman's (1990) domains of teacher knowledge

According to Grossman (1990), the subject matter knowledge includes knowledge of the subject content, and knowledge of the substantive and syntactic structures. Knowing the subject content refers to knowing facts and concepts, as well as knowing how these are inter related. The knowledge of the substantive structures of the subject matter is about how knowledge is generated in that discipline. The knowledge of syntactic structures of the subject matter involves the understanding of the evaluation of knowledge claims made in that subject (Grossman, 1990). In terms of content knowledge, Social Science teachers need to know facts and concepts related to maps and globes, climate regions, the shape of the earth, settlement, trade and transport issues, development and sustainability issues, mineral and Industrial Revolution, colonization, world wars and the cold war, and the history of South Africa since 1948 up to the early 90s. With regards to the knowledge of substantive structures, Social Science teachers should know how research is conducted in the discipline, this entails them knowing how to substantiate knowledge claims made in the discipline. General pedagogical knowledge pertains to the knowledge of general instructional principles, classroom management knowledge and skills, and knowledge and beliefs about educational aims and purposes (Grossman, 1990). This knowledge domain is required by all teachers, Social Science teachers included. Pedagogical content knowledge is the knowledge that is specific to teaching particular topics in a subject (Grossman, 1990). It enables teachers to help learners understand the subject content better. According to Grossman (1990), pedagogic content knowledge consists of four main components. The first one is knowledge and beliefs about the purposes for teaching a subject at different year levels. The second one is knowledge of learners' conceptions and misconceptions of a particular topic in a subject. The third one is the knowledge of teaching materials available for teaching particular topics, including the knowledge of what learners might learned, and will likely learn (in the subject) in future. The fourth one is the knowledge of teaching methods used when teaching particular topics. Teachers' pedagogic content knowledge enables Social Science teachers to teach Social Science better as it enables learners to easily understand what they are taught. Grossman (1990) argues that context knowledge includes knowledge of the school districts in which teachers work, knowledge of school settings, knowledge of departmental guidelines, and knowledge of specific students' background. This type of knowledge enables

Social Science teachers to easily relate what they teach to learners' backgrounds and immediate environment.

2.6.2 Quadrants of teacher learning

Teacher learning occurs not only in formally structured settings, but it also occurs informally during the course of the day at school (Yates, 2007). Reid's quadrants of teacher learning consists of two dimensions: formal-informal, and planned-incidental (Fraser et al., 2007). The quadrants refer to where learning takes place, and the type of learning that occurs. The figure below illustrates the quadrants diagrammatically.

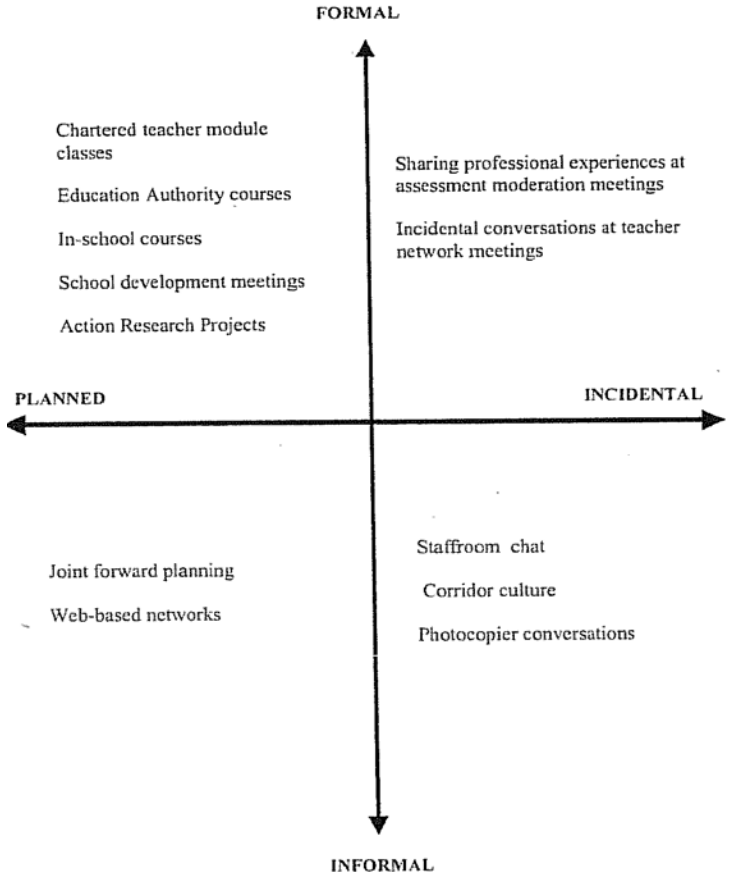

Figure 2. Reid's (in Fraser et al. 2007) Quadrants of teacher learning

Teacher learning occurs both in formal and in informal settings. It also takes place as a planned or an incidental process. Planned learning activities can either be formal or informal. Planned

formal learning opportunities include those that are organized by agencies other than teachers. These might be the Education Department or the non-governmental organizations (NGOs). These learning opportunities may take place within the school premises or outside of the schools. They also include courses registered for by the teachers. Planned informal learning opportunities are organized by the teachers themselves (Reid, in Fraser et al., 2007). Teachers can decide to work together in the afternoons to prepare for the following day's lessons. Learning opportunities can also take place incidentally, and are either formal or informal. Incidental formal learning opportunities occur where teachers formally meet for purposes such as to moderate learners' assessment in school clusters. Teachers might find themselves sharing learning experiences they did not plan for. Atwal (2013) argues that informal learning occurs mostly in an incidental manner, in everyday experience at the workplace. Teachers sometimes find themselves learning something of value from informal conversations with their colleagues in the staffrooms or even in the sports fields. Such learning opportunities fall within Reid's (in Fraser et al., 2007) incidental informal teacher learning quadrant.

2.6.3 Teacher efficacy

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy refers to those beliefs people hold with respect to their capabilities to perform given tasks. Teacher self-efficacy, then, are those beliefs held by a teacher regarding his or her capabilities to teach and influence learner achievement (Steel, 2010). Dimopoulou (2012) maintains that self-efficacy is about one's perceptions of competence. This means that self-efficacy is about what a person thinks he or she can do rather than what he can actually do. This is why Dimopoulou (2012) claims that some teachers feel more efficacious than others. Aina (2015) adds that teacher self-efficacy depends on a teacher's qualifications. In this regard, a qualified teacher would be more efficacious than an unqualified one. Morris, Usher and Chen (2016) argue that teachers who are adequately prepared to teach their subjects are highly likely to be more efficacious than those who are not prepared to teach their subjects. While Ross (1998) argues that efficacious teachers are eager to learn in order to meet their learners' needs, Aina (2016) maintains that teachers with low levels of efficacy tend to avoid the challenging parts of the content knowledge learners need to be taught. According to Morris et al. (2016), professional development programs aimed at developing teachers' content, and pedagogical knowledge have been found to improve teachers' self-efficacy. The concept of self-efficacy is useful in this study because it illuminates how practices associated

with teacher low efficacy can be eliminated by engaging teachers in learning activities that increase their content, and pedagogical content knowledge.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has presented literature review related to the present study. Teachers who teach outside their fields of expertise need to (and do) learn knowledge and skills required in the positions they are assigned to. Teacher learning is situated in physical and social contexts, social in nature and distributed across the individual, other persons, and various resources (Putnam & Borko, 2000). The following chapter presents the methodology part of this dissertation. Introduction

CHAPTER THREE:
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I first outline, describe and justify the research paradigm, research approach and data collection methods I used. I then describe the sampling procedures I used, provide information about the participants, show how data was analyzed, describe the ethical procedures I followed, show how I strengthened the trustworthiness of the study, and end by commenting on limitations of the study.

3.2 Research paradigm

Research design and methodology is determined by the purpose of the research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). Guba (cited in Thomas, 2010, p.306) suggests that in selecting a research approach "it is proper to select that paradigm whose assumptions are best met by the phenomenon being investigated." This is because a paradigm has an influence on how knowledge is studied and interpreted (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Bogdan and Bicklen (1998) define a paradigm as loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that direct our thinking and research. This study is located within the interpretive paradigm. Its purpose is to explore the learning experiences of secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers from the point of view of the teachers themselves (Elshafi, 2013). Mackenzie and Knipie (2006) claim that interpretivist researchers tend to rely upon the participants' view of the situation being studied. Taylor and Medina (2013) assert that the interpretive paradigm makes it possible for researchers to understand teachers' life-world experiences.

3.3 Research approach

Schwandt (cited in Polkinghorne, 2005, p.138) asserts that "it is the life-world as it is lived, felt, undergone, made sense of, and accomplished by human beings that is the subject of the study" of the qualitative approach. According to Krauss (2005), the primary goal of qualitative research is to understand human behavior and experiences from people's own viewpoints. To this, Polkinghorne (2005) adds that qualitative methods are mainly for considering the essential features of human experiences, and to help researchers explore those experiences. Since this

study explores learning experiences of out-of-field Social Science teachers, the qualitative approach is well suited for it. Pilkinghorne (2005) argues that the main aim of a qualitative research is to describe, clarify and investigate human experience. Yin (2011) asserts that qualitative research is suitable for representing the views and perspectives of participants in a study.

3.4 Research design

According to Creswell (2003), the qualitative approach uses strategies of inquiry such as the narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies, grounded theory or case studies. An exploratory case study is used as a research method in this study. Yin (2014) argues that a case study deals with the investigation of a present day phenomenon occurring in a bounded, real-world situation, and that understanding that phenomenon is largely determined by the contextual factors within which that phenomenon takes place. Thomas (2010) refers to MacMillan and Schumacher (2001) who argue that a case study examines a bounded system or a case over time in detail, employing a variety of data sources found in a setting. Yin (2014) maintains that it is appropriate to use the case study method in a study where the research questions are the *how* or *why* questions, where the researcher has no control over the participants' behavior, and where the study focuses on a present day phenomenon as opposed to an essentially historical event. This study explores *how* out-of-field Social Science teachers learn.

Zaidah (2007) argues that a case study can be considered a robust research method when a holistic, in-depth investigation is required. Zaidah (2007) supports this by claiming that the case study method is able to reveal contextual conditions that are crucial to the phenomenon being studied. Njie and Asimiran (2014) maintain that the aim of using the case study method is to get in-depth details about what is being explored. Sanders (cited in Merriam, 1998, p138) applauds case studies for enabling researchers to "understand the processes of events, projects, and programs and to discover context characteristics that will shed light on an issue or object." Nawab (2012) concurs with Sanders (1981) in that case studies make it possible for researchers to understand their participants' behavior and experiences better, and to understand the contextual factors underlying their participants' actions. The case being explored in this study

is teacher learning. By using a case study, in-depth accounts about out-of-field teacher learning experiences can be obtained.

3.5 Data collection methods

Researchers have identified six major data collection methods in a case study research approach. These include direct observations, interviews, documents, archival records, physical artifacts and research diaries or journals (Njie & Asimiran, 2014). Depending on the relevance and nature of the case, Njie and Asimiran (2014) argue, one or more than one of these methods could be used. Polkinghorne (2005) asserts that the purpose of data gathering in qualitative research is to provide evidence for the experience it is investigating. Yin (2014) claims that there are four principles of data collection in a case study research method. These include the use of multiple sources of evidence, the creation of a case study data base, the maintenance of a chain of evidence, and being cautious when using data from electronic sources. Research interviews and research diaries are the data collection methods used in this study.

3.5.1 Interviews

Connell and Khan (cited in Cohen et al., 2000, p.269) define a research interview as "a two person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives." Polkinghorne (2005) argues that the aim of the interview is to access an in-depth account of the experience being studied from the participants themselves. Benner (cited in Yin, 2011, p.135) maintains that research interviews aim at understanding interviewees "on their own terms and how they make meaning of their own lives, experiences, and cognitive process." The underlying idea here is that research interviews enable participants to engage in conversations about, and interpretations of, their lived experiences and to express their own view points (Cohen et al., 2000).

There are four types of interviews that may be used as research data collecting instruments (Cohen et al., 2000). According to Cohen et al. (2000), these are the structured interviews, the unstructured interviews, the non-directive interviews, and the focused interviews. What Cohen et al. (2000) refer to as non-directive interviews appears to be what Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick (2008) call semi-structured interviews. It is this type of interview that was used in

this study. Semi-structured interviews are used when the researcher has an idea of the questions to ask about the topic being explored (Ploeg, 1999). According to Gill et al. (2008), semi-structured interviews consist of several key questions that help define what is being explored. Such interviews allow the interviewer or interviewee to diverge for the sake of pursuing an idea further or for offering a detailed response to a question (Gill et al., 2008).

Semi-structured interviews are most appropriate where there is little knowledge of the phenomenon being explored or where in-depth details are required from the participants (Gill et al., 2008). The flexibility of semi-structured interviews is applauded for encouraging the interviewees to express their insight of the phenomenon under scrutiny in a way that might not have previously been considered by the interviewer (Gill et al., 2008). According to Scott (1996), interviews can allow the researcher to know about past events, about situations in which the researcher is not able to be present, and about situations where the researcher is not allowed to be present. For these reasons, semi-structured interviews were considered optimal for this study in its exploration of out-of-field teachers' learning experiences. The semi-structured interviews enabled me to acquire in-depth information about out-of-field teachers' learning experiences from the teachers themselves. The literature review section of this study reveals that there is little information on the learning experiences of out-of-field teachers. The interpretivist researchers rely upon the participants' view of the situation being studied when conducting a research (Mackenzie and Knipie, 2006). The interviews were conducted on the school premises during lunch or after school. Each interview lasted about 40 minutes. The interviews utilized the following questions based on the research questions and the research objectives:

> What knowledge, skills (and teaching strategies) do out-of-field teachers think are important for Social Science teachers?
>
> To what extent do out-of-field teachers say they feel prepared to teach Social Science?
>
> How do (or did) out-of-field Social Science teachers learn the knowledge required to teach Social Science?
>
> What types of knowledge (and skills) have out-of-field Social Science teachers learnt in order to teach Social Science?

All the interviews were digitally recorded, and transcribed verbatim. This was done to ensure that the participants' views were captured as accurately as possible.

3.5.2 Diaries

Research diaries can conceptually and physically be similar to other data collection instruments such as questionnaires, the interviews or observations (Sheble & Wildemuth, 2009). However, they differ from other methods of data collection because they require participants or diarists to make regular records of their daily experiences and activities (Wiseman, Conteh and Matovu, 2005; Sheble and Wildemuth, 2009). Morrison (2007) argues that diaries are rarely ever used alone. According to Sheble and Wildemuth (2009) research diaries are often used together with other data collection methods to provide a rich description of the phenomenon under study or as a means of triangulation. Morrison (2007) emphasizes that the use of research diaries is essential to access information that might otherwise not be obtained from the other data collection methods. Like interviews, research diaries are classified as unstructured, semi-structured or structured. According to Sheble and Wildemuth (2009), unstructured diaries are open-ended. When using them, the diarist is given little or no guidance regarding what should be included. Wiseman et al. (2005) argue that structured diaries are like questionnaires because, in them, diarists tick boxes containing (appropriate) events activities or certain symbols. Sheble and Wildemuth (2009) assert that most research diaries are of the semi-structured type. Such diaries are in the form of a calendar or a log in which the diarist make entries on blank pages that have prompts (Wiseman et al., 2005). According to Sheble and Wildemuth (2009) research diaries should not cover a period of more than a month. They argue that research has established that, overtime, the diarists become tired of keeping the records and become less thorough in their reporting of their experiences. Closely related to the period of keeping a diary, is the issue of when to record experiences in a diary. Wiseman et al. (2005) claim that recording events is often related to the type of the phenomenon being studied. They, nonetheless, recommend the method of event-contingent recording. This method involves diarists making diary entries every time the phenomenon being studied occurs. Lewis, Sligo and Massey (2005) note that diaries encourage the recording of experiences immediately to prevent inaccuracies and promote the gathering of a complete picture.

In this study, participants kept with them semi-structured research diaries for a period of about a month. These diaries had prompts to help participants record their learning experiences as they happen. The prompts enabled the participants not only to indicate how and where they learn, but also to reveal the types of knowledge they learn. The purpose of the diaries, how to make diary entries, and when to make those entries was explained at the end of the interviews. This served to reinforce the agreement to participate in the study, although the participants were aware that they were under no obligation to continue participating. Morrison (2007) argues that explaining the purpose of research diaries is essential to ensure participants' commitment. In order to keep the momentum of making diary entries throughout the four week period, I occasionally contacted the participants telephonically (Morrison, 2007).

3.6 Sampling

Sampling refers to the process of selecting participants for a study. Cohen et al. (2000) argue that the quality of a piece of research does not only depend on the appropriateness of its methodology, but it also depends on the suitability of its sampling strategy. They maintain that the sampling strategy should take into account the purpose of the research, time scale, research methodology and data collecting methods. The two main methods of sampling are probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Cohen et al., 2000). According to Ploeg (1999), qualitative research is generally based on non-probability sampling. Cohen et al. (2000) claim that the different types of non-probability sampling are the convenience, the dimensional, the snowball and the purposive types of sampling. Purposive sampling is the type of sampling that was used to select participants in this study. In a purposive sample, participants are deliberately chosen "to have those that will yield the most relevant and plentiful data" (Yin, 2011, p.88).

Six (6) secondary school teachers, from six (6) different schools, participated in this study. There are three (3) female and three (3) male teachers. There was no intention to choose equal number of males, and females. The intention was to get participants who would provide me with as much data as possible. The participants' age ranged from the 20-29 age group to the 50-59 age group. While their teaching experience was from three (3) months to twenty four (24) years, their experience in teaching Social Science ranged from three (3) months to six (6) years. The sample comprised of both novice and experienced teachers. At matric level, only one of the participants did both History and Geography, and the rest did either History or Geography. The

two participants who held Senior Primary Teachers' Diploma (SPTD) had History as one of the subjects they specialized in. The only participant who held a Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) specialized in Economics and Management Sciences (EMS) and Life Orientation (LO). Only one of the participants who held B Ed (FET) specialized both in History and Geography. The other two specialized in either Geography or History. All the participants in this study were not qualified to teach Social Science. They were, however, qualified to teach the subjects, learning areas or year levels they specialized in. All these participants were experiencing the out-of-field teaching phenomenon. They were purposively selected because, although they were qualified teachers, they taught secondary school level Social Science without being qualified to teach it. Also, they possessed valuable information regarding out-of-field teachers' learning experiences. Since the interpretive paradigm, within which this study was located, attempts to understand a phenomenon from the participants' perspectives, the purposive selection of these participants was appropriate for this study (Polkinghorne, 2005).

In a purposive sample, Polkinghorne (2005) notes, the researcher doesn't only have to choose individuals who are experiencing or have experienced the studied phenomenon, but he has to choose individuals who are also willing to talk about their experiences openly. In this study, getting the participants to talk about their experiences freely was achieved by ensuring that the participants understood the objectives of the research. I also assured them of the confidentiality of the interviews. As the participants freely expressed their experiences, I got an in-depth understanding of the researched phenomenon (Taylor & Medina, 2013). In qualitative research, the sample size is considered less important than the richness and depth of information acquired (Njie & Asmiran, 2014). However, the number of participants in the study adds the benefit of the variety of perspectives from which the phenomenon being explored can be understood (Cohen et al., 2000).

3.7 Data Analysis

According to Cohen et al. (2000), data analysis involves making sense of data in terms of the participants' definition of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories, and regularities. Bradley, Curry and Devers (2007) assert that qualitative data analysis is an ongoing iterative process that begins in the early stages of data collection and continues throughout the research process. They maintain that the first step in qualitative data analysis is that the researchers

immerse themselves in the data, with the aim of understanding its meaning in its entirety. Data should be read several times to help the researcher identify themes that emerge. Accordingly, I read each transcript several times until themes emerged from the data.

During the analysis of data, I assigned codes or labels to the themes that had emerged. The coding process allowed me to quickly retrieve and gather all data that I had associated with certain themes. The process whereby codes are assigned to emerging themes is referred to as inductive coding. Where coding is inductive, Taylor and Gibbs (2010) maintain, the researcher puts aside his or her presumptions so as to focus on finding new themes. The authors also claim that it is possible to start coding with themes identified from *a priori* ideas. They maintain that *a priori* codes can be identified from previous research, from the study's research questions or from questions in the interview schedule. I arranged the data in such a way that they answer the research questions. This enabled me to conduct *a priori* coding. *A priori* coding is deductive coding.

Taylor and Gibbs (2010) observe that when codes are assigned to themes that emerge from data, at that level we still have descriptive coding. They argue that it is very important that the researcher moves on to develop codes that go beyond description. For them, the higher level of analysis requires analytical codes. Such codes are based on the researcher's analytical thinking. The researcher needs to think about why what is occurring in the data might be occurring (Taylor & Gibbs, 2010).

Yin (2011) argues that a theoretical or conceptual framework is required for data collection and analysis. I used both Shulman's (1987) domains of teacher knowledge and Reid's (in Fraser et al., 2007) quadrant of teacher learning as conceptual frameworks in conducting the analysis in my study. I conducted both inductive and deductive analysis. These themes were then analyzed to understand how secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers experience their learning. I compared and contrasted the study's findings with related research findings in order to situate the new data into pre-existing data (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The study's conclusion was based on the discussion of the findings.

3.8 Ethical Issues

The word *ethics* implies a set of moral standards any given community of people use to regulate its conduct. These standards are used to distinguish between what is good and what is not good (Siseho, 2013). What is ethical, therefore, has to do with following accepted rules of conduct. Polkinghorne (2005) maintains that the welfare of participants must be the primary concern when collecting data for research purpose. According to him, the researcher needs to be sensitive to the concerns, needs and desires of the participants. When social scientists conduct research ethically, Mertens (2005) argues, they share the principles of *non-maleficence* and *beneficence*. Non-maleficence means do not cause harm to others. According to Mertens (2005), non-maleficence is now commonly known as *primum non nocere*. This means, above all, do no harm. Beneficence means do good or benefit to others (Mertens, 2005). During my interactions with the participants, I conducted myself in an ethical manner. I ensured that participants always felt at ease. Although conversations about learning experiences can hardly be uncomfortable, as a researcher, I had to be sensitive to the participants' concerns. It is for this reason that my participants' emotional well-being became my main priority throughout our interactions.

According to Guillemin and Gillam (2004), there are two dimensions of ethics in qualitative research. These are procedural ethics and ethics-in-practice. Procedural ethics involve a researcher seeking approval from relevant ethics committee to conduct research. Ethics-in-practice have to do with every day ethical issues that arise when doing research. Before I began to collect data, I applied for ethical clearance (to conduct research) from the University of KwaZulu-Natal research ethics committee. When filling in the application form, I followed Guillemin and Gillam's (2004) advice of the need to use language that the committee understands. This is the language that is free of jargon, and that reassures the committee of my competency as a researcher. This involves, amongst other things, explaining the methodology and highlighting measures that might be taken should crucial ethical concerns arise during the research process. The existence of the ethics committee is of great value because it alerted me to issues such as potential risks to participants, the step needed to ensure confidentiality of data, the inclusion of consent forms, and the use of simple language in materials provided to participants (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004).

After receiving ethical clearance from the university ethics committee, I then applied for permission from the Head of the Kwa Zulu-Natal Department of Education to conduct research

in secondary schools at Pholela circuit, Harry Gwala District. Cohen et al., (2000) assert that when seeking acceptance, a researcher must present his or her credentials as a serious investigator and establish his or her own ethical position with respect to the proposed research. In this regard, I presented a concise description of my research design and methodology, and made it explicit that this study would be conducted ethically. My next step was to contact the principals of the schools I had identified through the assistance of the South African School Administration and Management System (SASAMS) personnel. It was at this stage that I gave out all necessary information about the aims, nature and procedures of the study to the school principals. After ensuring that the participants understood the aims of the study and the conditions of their participation, I requested them to sign the consent forms. I also assured the participants of the confidentiality of the interviews, and that their identities were not to be disclosed to anyone.

Diener and Crandall (cited in Cohen et al., , 2000, p.51) define informed consent as "the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decision". This means that the participant agrees to take part in the research being fully aware that he is under no obligation to partake in it. According to Cohen et al. (2000), anonymity means that the information received from the participants should not disclose their identity. Furthermore, the authors claim that participants are anonymous when they cannot be identified from the information collected from them. Usually, anonymity is ensured by using a pseudonym instead of the participant's real name. One of the participants in this study is referred to as Luh, for an example. Confidentiality means that although researchers know who has provided the information, they will not divulge that to anyone (Cohen et al., 2000). Throughout my interactions with the participants in this study, I kept in mind Guillemin and Gillam's (2004) assertion that researchers are ethically obliged to interact with participants in a human, non-exploitative way and, at the same time being mindful of their roles as researchers.

3.9 Trustworthiness

According to Joppe (2000), validity determines whether a research study deals with what it intended to deal with or not. A research instrument is considered to be reliable if the results of a study can be produced under similar methodology (Joppe, 2000). The terms *validity* and

reliability are mainly used to assess the quality of studies located within quantitative paradigms, and the terms credibility, applicability or dependability are used mainly in qualitative studies (Golafshani, 2003). According to Golafshani, (2003), validity and reliability are understood as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in qualitative studies. Since this is a qualitative study, terms like credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability will be employed.

Shenton (2004) maintains that when addressing credibility, researchers try to show that a true a picture of the phenomenon being explored is presented. To ensure this, I answered the research questions by using only the data collected from the interviews and research diaries. According to Shenton (2004) researchers ensure that they have accurately captured the explored phenomenon by doing the following: triangulation, the use of tactics to ensure participants' honestly, the use of iterative questions, member checking, and examining previous research findings. Shenton (2004) claims that triangulation involves the use of different data collection methods. He maintains that the use of different methods compensates for their individual limitations and exploits their respective benefits. This was evident when I found in-depth information from the research diaries, information that could not be revealed during the interviews.

When using tactics to help ensure honesty from the participants, the researcher needs to encourage them to be frank, and to make conditions of their participation in the study as clear as possible. This serves to ensure that data collection sessions involve only those who are genuinely willing to take part, and are prepared to offer data freely and honestly (Shenton, 2004). In this study, I ensured that the participants were both honest and free when expressing their learning experiences in both the data collection instruments by assuring them of their confidentiality and anonymity.

According to Shenton (2004), the use of iterative questions involves the researcher returning to matters previously raised by the participants. He maintains that the aim of the researcher is to extract related data, and to probe even more deeply.

Member checking is a process where the researcher's interpretation of data is shared with the participants, and the participants are offered the opportunity to clarify and provide even more ideas on the studied phenomenon (Shenton, 2004 & Baxter & Jack, 2008). I shared the

transcripts with the participants when I went to collect the research diaries from them about a month later. This allowed me to clarify my ideas when they explained some things they had said during the interviews.

Shenton (2004) claims that by examining previous research findings, the researcher tries to establish the extent to which the study's findings are congruent or not with those of the past. Baxter and Jack (2008) maintain that a study's findings are compared and contrasted with those in the available research literature in order to locate the new data into the pre-existing data. I used the findings of the research literature from the literature review section of this dissertation to find out how the finding of this study are similar or differ from what has been found before.

Another concept related to the credibility of research is transferability, which requires researchers to provide sufficient details of the study's context so that the reader might be able to decide whether the findings can justifiably be applied to other contexts or not (Shenton, 2004). In this study, detailed information on the participants and the schools' contexts was provided so that the findings of the study can easily be transferred to similar context. Shenton (2004) refers to Bassey (1981) who maintains that if readers believe their situations to be similar to that described in the study, they may relate the findings to their own contexts. Shenton (2004) argues that the dependability criterion is difficult in qualitative research. Notwithstanding challenges, he advises that the processes within the study should be reported in detail. These processes include research design, data gathering strategies, and the reflective appraisal of the study in which the effectiveness of the process of inquiry is undertaken (Shenton, 2004). In this chapter, I have presented the research design, data collection instruments and offered my honest appraisal of using the case study methodology when I highlight below the limitations of the study. To ensure confirmability, Shenton (2004) maintains, researchers must demonstrate that the findings emerge from the gathered research data, and not from their own inclinations. When presenting the findings in Chapter Four, I used extract from the transcripts and information recorded by the participants in their research diaries as evidence of my findings.

Yin (2014) proposes four principles of data collection when a researcher uses a case study research method. Yin (2014) argues that these principles can help researchers strengthen the trustworthiness of their studies when they are used properly. The first principle is the use of

multiple sources of data. According to Yin (2014), case studies using multiple sources of evidence are rated more highly in terms of their overall quality than those that rely on only single sources of information. In this study, semi-structured interviews and research diaries were used to obtain data from more than one data collecting instrument. The second principle is that of creating a case study database. This relates to the compilation of all data gathered so that readers can have access to it. All evidence from the recorded interviews, transcripts and research diaries, including the final report, is kept in the safety of my supervisor. The third principle is about maintaining a chain of evidence. Sources cited in the study were appropriately referenced. This is needed in case readers need to find out for themselves how conclusions were arrived at in a research. The fourth principle is that of being cautious when using data from electronic sources. I used sources from accredited websites to gather information that backed up my idea

3.10 Limitations of the study

This was a small-scale qualitative case study. The findings cannot be generalized but are only limited to the contexts of the participants and schools involved. My aim in adopting a case study methodology was not to generalize but to understand the learning experiences of the secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers in their own contexts. Qualitative research is well suited for the study of people's experiences under real world conditions.

3.11 Summary

In this chapter I described and justified the research design and methodology I used when conducting this study. The study is located within the interpretivist paradigm, and uses a case study as its research method. The data collection methods, namely, the semi-structured interviews and the research diaries were described. The appropriateness of these methods for this study was explained. Finally, the sampling procedure, data analysis, ethical issues, trustworthiness and the study limitations were presented.

CHAPTER FOUR:
PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore the learning experiences of secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers. The study was located within the interpretive paradigm and employs a case study as its research methodology. This chapter discusses and analyses the findings of the data generated from research interviews and research diaries. Six secondary school teachers participated in the study. Pseudonyms were used to ensure participant anonymity and confidentiality. The study's main research question was:

How do out-of-field Social Science teachers experience learning to teach Social Science?

To obtain answers to the main research question, four critical questions are used. These are:

1) What knowledge, skills (and strategies) do out-of-field Social Science teachers think are important for Social Science teachers?
2) To what extent do out-of-field Social Science teachers say they feel prepared to teach Social Science?
3) How do (or did) out-of-field Social Science teachers learn the knowledge required to teach Social Science?
4) What are the types of knowledge (and skills) that out-of-field Social Science teachers have learnt in order to teach Social Sciences?

4.2 Profile of participants

This sections provides a short profile of each participant.

- Luh

Luh, a male teacher, had only three months of teaching experience. He held a Bachelor of Education (B Ed) in Further Education & Training (FET), with specializations in History and IsiZulu. At high school (matriculation) he only did History, and did not do any

Geography. He has taught Social Science in Grade 8 and 9 for three months. Luh was teaching History in Grade 11 and 12, and IsiZulu in Grade 8.

- Shanks

Shanks, a female teacher, had three years teaching experience. She held a B Ed (FET) degree, with specializations in Geography and English. She only did Geography at school (matriculation), and did not do any History. Shanks has taught Social Science in Grade 8 and 9 for three years. She was also teaching English in Grade 8, 9 and 10, and Geography in Grade 10.

- Mays

Mays, a female teacher, had been teaching for seven years. Mays held a Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), with specializations in Life Orientation and Economics and Management Sciences. At high school (matriculation) she did only History, and did not do any Geography. She had taught Social Science for four years in Grade 8, and for three years in Grade 9. In her school, she was also teaching History and Life Orientation in Grade 10.

- Nxesi

Nxesi, a female teacher, had twenty years of teaching experience. As a head of department (HOD), she was a member of the school management team (SMT). She had a Senior Primary Teachers Diploma (SPTD). In it, she specialized in History, English, IsiZulu and Afrikaans. History and Geography were the subjects she also did in high school. Nxesi had taught Social Science in Grade 9 for two years. She was also teaching IsiZulu in Grades 9, 11 and 12.

- Gash

Gash, a male teacher, had four months teaching experience. He held a B Ed (FET) degree, with specializations in History and Geography. At high school he also did both History and Geography. Gash had taught Social Science in Grade 9 for four months. He was also teaching Geography in Grade 10 and 11.

- Mseh

Mseh, a male teacher, had 21 years teaching experience. As an HOD, he was a member of the SMT. Mesh had a SPTD, with specializations in History, English, Biology, and Biblical Studies. At high school (matriculation) he only did History, and did not do any Geography. Mseh had taught Social Science for six years in Grade 9, and for five years in Grade 8. In the year of this study, Grade 8 Social Science learners were being taught by a newly appointed teacher.

Sharplin (2014) categorizes teachers into four groups according to the roles they are assigned to. Participants in this study fit into three of these groups. These groups are those of teachers teaching in out-of-field positions. The first group is that of teachers with qualifications that do not match the roles they are assigned to. Mays fitted into this group. She was neither qualified in Geography, History nor Social Science. Her qualifications did not match the role she was assigned to. The second group is that of teachers with qualifications that match some parts of the roles they are assigned to, but also include other roles for which teachers are unqualified. With the exception of Gash, the other four participants were qualified to teach either History or Geography, albeit not in Grade 8 and 9. The third group is that of teachers with qualifications that do not match the year level they are assigned to. Gash fell within this group because he was qualified to teach both History and Geography in the FET phase, not in the senior phase.

4.3 Participants' responses to the interviews, and their recordings in research diaries

The participants responded to all the four questions in the interviews. In the research diaries, they were provided with prompts to use when recording their learning experiences. Those prompts also enabled the participants to record the types of knowledge they had learnt from their experiences. As a result, participants' diary entries provided answers to the last two questions mentioned above.

4.3.1 Research question 1: What knowledge, skills (and strategies) do out-of-field Social Science teachers think are important for Social Science?

In the section below I present findings on the knowledge, skills (and strategies) out-of-field Social Science teachers think are important for them. The participants thought that the knowledge, skills (and strategies) important for Social Science involve suitable expertise in both History and Geography, and the ability to teach these equally well. They maintained that a teacher has to be qualified to teach Social Science.

4.3.1.1 Subject matter knowledge

When asked about the kind of knowledge teachers require in order to be able to teach Social Science, almost all the participants identified the knowledge of the subject matter as essential. Grossman (1990) argues that the knowledge of the subject matter is important for teaching. The participants indicated that it is the knowledge of History and Geography content, and particularly the content knowledge of the map work part in the Geography section of Social Science that is important for them. According to Grossman (1990), knowledge of the subject involves knowing the content of the subject. Five participants identified knowledge of History and Geography content as the most important knowledge required to teach Social Science.

A newly qualified History teacher, Luh, explained what teachers need to know if they are to teach Social Science.

> *If you gonna teach Social Science in school or in senior phase you need History and Geography, which means if you gonna qualify you need to major in History and Geography to be able to teach Social Science.*

When I asked him to explain in detail what he meant, he elaborated:

> *On the History part, you have to know everything that you are teaching when the learners are asking what is it that you are saying – you will be able to answer. So, you need background knowledge of whatever you teaching in Social Science.*

Another newly qualified teacher, Gash, explained how he came to teach Social Science thus:

> *Oh yes. For Social Science, I was told by the HOD that I am going to teach Social Science because huh…I have History and Geography. So, they thought I won't have any problem by teaching the Social Science because it deals with History and Geography.*

While it may appear that Gash is qualified to teach Social Science because he specialized in both History and Geography in the FET phase, he is not qualified to teach Social Science.

When I asked Mseh, a long-serving teacher who is in the SMT what knowledge they look for in a teacher to teach a subject like Social Science in cases where there is no one qualified to teach it, he responded:

> *Huh…we look at…there are people who are not specialists in special fields but who have vast knowledge of subject.*

As an experienced teacher who did her initial teacher education (ITE) more than two decades ago, Nxesi explained what teachers in her situation needed to know in order to be able to teach Social Science.

> *I think Geography part is based on map work, an educator should have a knowledge of map work and have a greater knowledge of Geography and History. Because we are…we didn't do Social Science, we learned Geography and History only – so we should have the basics of History and Geography.*

Shanks reported that knowing the subject matter is of utmost importance for one to be able to teach Social Science. She argued that:

> *Yes, I think knowledge of the subject is more important because you cannot teach something that you do not know.*

Five participants identified the knowledge of History and Geography content as the most important knowledge required for Social Science. Social Science is made up of History and Geography sections. This finding is in line with Grossman (1990), who identifies content knowledge as one of the types of knowledge encompassed by subject matter knowledge.

4.3.1.2 Pedagogical content knowledge

Grossman (1990) maintains that pedagogical content knowledge has four crucial components. The first one is the knowledge and beliefs about the purposes of teaching a subject at different year levels. The second one is the knowledge of students' conceptions and misconceptions of particular topics in a subject. The third one is the knowledge of the curriculum, and the final one is the knowledge of instructional strategies. Participants identified knowledge of instructional strategies for teaching particular topics in a subject as important for one to be able to teach Social Science. Half of the participants expressly identified knowledge of instructional strategies as an important knowledge that is required for one to be able to teach Social Science.

Mays appeared to hold the view that the ability to teach was more important than knowing what to teach. She argued:

> *I think knowing how to teach the subject is more important than the knowledge of the subject because learners might not be able to understand the subject if the teacher doesn't have the skills of teaching that subject.*

Mays stressed the need for a teacher to have teaching skills to ensure that learners understand what is taught. Shulman (1986) claims that pedagogical content knowledge is also about how a teacher represents the subject in a way that is understandable to learners.

In response to what knowledge, skills (and strategies) he thought were important for Social Science, Mseh explained:

> *The skills of imparting knowledge is very important, the story telling which involves History and then geographical part.*

Mseh indicated that he had been teaching History for many years in Grade 12. He possessed a variety of strategies that enabled him to teach the History section of Social Science. Kola and Sunday (2015) explain that pedagogical content knowledge develops over time, and is gained from experience. Goge (2005) argues that experienced teachers possess a variety of illustrations, explanations and examples for the different facts, ideas or concept they teach. In response to a similar question I posed to Mseh above, Luh responded:

> *I think the knowledge of Social Science, firstly you have to understand how to teach History and have a background of History as well.*

Both Mseh and Luh specialized in History. When they spoke about Social Science, the first thing that came to their minds was History. This should be expected of them because History was the one section of Social Science that they were mostly familiar with.

Whilst most participants identified the knowledge of the content as the most important knowledge a Social Science teacher should possess, half of the participants identified the knowledge of how to teach the content as important also. According to Ozden (2008), the quality and amount of content knowledge that a teacher possess influences that teacher's pedagogic content knowledge, and has immerse impact on effective teaching. This means that for the development of pedagogical content knowledge, there must be content knowledge first. Van Driel, Verloop and de Vos (1998) argue that teachers find it difficult to represent the content knowledge to learners in a way that learners understand it when teachers teach unfamiliar content. This means that the development of pedagogical content knowledge is hampered where there is insufficient content knowledge.

Mseh and Nxesi, both experienced teachers and SMT members, shared the opinion that the knowledge of the subject was as important as the methods of teaching that subject. Mseh argued:

> *I would say they are both equally important because you may have the vast knowledge of the subject but the method that you applied when teaching does not provide positive impact or results. So, both knowledge and the methods that you use in class are very much important.*

Nxesi expanded:

> *I think it should be balanced because even if you know the method of teaching but what are you teaching? You must have the content and also the method, it should go together.*

Both these participants, Mseh and Nxesi, thought that "the blending of content and pedagogy" (Shulman, 1987, p.8) was what Social Sciences teachers needed. Shulman (1986) argues that

"mere content knowledge is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content-free skill" (p.8). Sheperd (2013) also acknowledges the importance of a deep understanding of the subject content but stresses teacher's ability to make that content easily accessible to learners. The participants thought that the ability to amalgamate content knowledge with skills and strategies of teaching that content was essential for Social Science teachers. Such knowledge ensures that learners understand well what they are taught. Mseh alluded to this when he argued that a method might not provide positive impact or results. What the participants were talking about was the type of knowledge that Shulman (1987) refers to as the pedagogical content knowledge.

Although three out of the six participants stressed the importance of the knowledge of instructional strategies, all six participants mentioned that the knowledge of both History and Geography content was essential. Long-serving teachers like Mseh and Nxesi argued that these two types of knowledge were both equally important. This was the reason why they argued for what Shulman (1987) refers to as "the blending of content and pedagogy" (p.8) which is the pedagogical content knowledge.

4.3.2 Research question 2: To what extent do out-of-field Social Science teachers say they feel prepared to teach Social Science?

In the section below I present findings on the extent to which participants felt prepared to teach Social Science. The extent to which participants say they felt prepared to teach Social Science had to do with their Geography and History content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge. Participants' Social Science teaching experience, and the congruence between the knowledge and skills they already possessed and the roles they were assigned to also impact significantly on the extent to which they felt prepared to teach Social Science. As a result, participants' preparedness to teach Social Science varied. All the six participants felt unprepared to teach Social Science when they were first assigned to teach it. What Nxesi, Luh and Mays said captured the feelings of all the participants when they were first assigned to teach Social Science. With experience, Mays and Nxesi began to feel adequately prepared to teach it. While four participants expressed that they felt prepared to teach either Geography or History only, Mseh indicated that, because of professional learning workshops he frequently attended, he felt adequately prepared to teach Social Science.

These findings show that the extent to which the participants felt adequately prepared to teach Social Science differed. For instance, among the participants, there was one participant whose qualifications, and therefore knowledge and skills, did not match the roles she was assigned to. There were four participants whose qualifications, and therefore knowledge and skills, matched only some parts of the roles they were assigned to. Four participants were trained to teach in the FET phase and two in the primary level, so their qualifications did not match the year levels they had been assigned to. In her endeavors to develop herself professionally Mays, for example, had to learn both the History and Geography content and pedagogical content knowledge. Shanks, on the other hand, had to focus her professional learning on the History section of Social Science. Both Luh and Nxesi had to concentrate their professional learning on developing Geography content and pedagogical content knowledge. Gash had to develop himself professionally by focusing on the learning of both Geography and History pedagogical content knowledge and context knowledge.

4.2.2.1 Not prepared

When the participants were assigned to teach Social Science, they felt obliged to teach it because there was no one (better qualified) to teach it. Hobbs (2012) argues that load allocation is one of the reasons why teachers teach in an out-of-field position. Mays and Luh summed up the feelings of those participants who were unprepared to teach Social Science. Because of being unprepared to teach Social Science, most participants would avoid or postpone teaching those sections they found challenging. Nxesi's responses captured the feelings of those participants who would postpone or avoid teaching the sections, or the parts thereof they found challenging. Mays expressed the feelings of those who would concentrate on teaching the sections they were familiar with. According to Aina (2016), a teacher who did not trust his efficacy, the belief a teacher has about his or her ability to teach a certain topic, will avoid teaching that topic. Lingard, Hayes, Mills and Christie (2003) claim that it is out-of-field teachers' poorly developed pedagogic content knowledge that leads them to omit the sections they find challenging. Omitting some sections is seen by these writers as a coping strategy that teachers in an out-of-field position use.

When I inquired how Nxesi began to teach Social Science, she indicated that it was out of a sense of duty. She elaborated:

> *First of all, I was not told to teach it but I volunteered to teach it because there was no one to teach it. There was no one who could teach Social Science because the other teacher went to other school who was teaching Social Science.*

Unlike Nxesi, Mays and Luh reported that, initially, they were not prepared to teach Social Science at all but felt obliged to teach it. Mays explained:

> *I don't want to lie, I was not prepared at all but I had to teach it. So, I had to do something. I had to study and learn, do some readings and research.*

Likewise, Luh explained:

> *Ahh…to be honest, I wasn't prepared but I had to adapt to the situation because they had no one to teach Social Science. Because I was hired to teach History in Grade 11 and 12. The department doesn't give the school the person to teach Social Science in Grade 8 and 9, so they appointed me and I was shocked that I am going to teach something that I have not learnt.*

Nxesi indicated that she still needed to learn more about how to teach Social Science, and reported that she sometimes avoid teaching certain topics of the section she found challenging. She explained:

> *Yes, I do. I have said that I don't know how to teach maps…and there are also parts that I have not yet covered. I don't know whether I will be able to teach them.*

When I asked Mays whether she saw herself as a Social Science teacher, she was hesitant but explained that she struggled with the Geography section and, as a result, tended to focus on the History section.

> *Yes. So, the thing is…it sometimes happens that I focus more on History part compared to Geography part, of which it is wrong because the learners must be taught both because when assessing you do both History and Geography.*

Luh informed me that he had not yet taught the Geography section of Social Science. During the time of the interview, Luh had only been teaching (Social Science) for three months. To explain his predicament, Luh argued that he was still struggling with the Geography section, and was still looking for other teachers to help him with that section. He elaborated:

> *They told me that I can teach Social Science in Grade 8 and 9, but the problem is that I haven't taught Geography part yet because I am still struggling with it. I am teaching the History part and I find help on Geography part.*

According to Bandura (1993), a teacher who has a low self- efficacy will avoid teaching a topic that is challenging to him. The participants avoided teaching the sections of Social Science they had insufficient content and pedagogical content knowledge in. Being unable to teach both History and Geography means that a teacher is not prepared to teach Social Science.

4.3.2.2 Inadequately prepared

All the participants expressed encountering difficulties when teaching some sections of Social Science. Five participants reported that they faced challenges when teaching the map work part of the Geography section. Even Gash, who specialized in both History and Geography, found teaching map work challenging. Amosun (2016) argues that teachers with insufficient Geography content, and pedagogical content knowledge try their best to teach the Physical and Human aspects of Geography but find it hard to teach the map reading and interpretation part of it. He claims that, because of this situation, map reading and interpretation is inadequately taught. This has serious implications for learner performance and their acquisition of important Geography skills. Learners intending to learn Geography in the FET phase would be detrimentally affected when learning Geography later on. This might have a negative impact on their performance in the matriculation examinations as well.

Gash explained his predicament with map work thus:

> *There is one part in map work in Social Science. How to measure distance and contours.*

As the interview proceeded, we talked about specific topics in map work. That is when we talked about the teaching of coordinates when locating a position on a map. Gash explained:

Yes. In terms of degrees, minutes and seconds I find it difficult especially when it comes to find the seconds, but degrees are bit easier.

Mays ascribed her problems with map work to the fact that she did not do Geography at all. She explained:

I didn't do Geography, so I have a little bit of a problem when it comes to Geography especially map work.

When I asked her whether she considered herself a Social Science teacher or not, she responded:

Yes, but I am still struggling in the part of map work because it has a lot of calculations.

The above discussion shows that the challenges that these participants faced with the map work part of Social Science rendered them inadequately prepared to teach it in a way that it was understood by their learners. Amosun (2016) reported that geography teachers were not adequately prepared, and were poor in mathematics. According to him this caused them to "avoid teaching map reading because it requires abstract thinking and mathematical skills" (Amosun, 2016, p.44). This is validated by both Mseh and Mays. When I asked Mseh what sort of skills a Social Science teacher needs, he responded:

Mathematics and Geography because it involves a little bit of counting and so on. Those skills are very essential.

When I inquired from Mays whether she would describe herself as a Social Science teacher, she responded:

Yes, but I am still struggling in the part of map work because it has a lot of calculations.

To be prepared to teach the map work part in the Geography section of Social Science, teachers need numeracy skills as well. Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008) assert that teachers who lack content knowledge are unlikely to help learners learn that subject content well.

Shanks was the only participant who reported teaching some topics in the History section of Social Science as challenging. This might have resulted from her being the only participant who did not do History even in her matriculation. Shanks did not, however, report experiencing any problem with the Geography section of Social Science. She reported that she was inadequately prepared to teach some topics on the History section of Social Science. When I enquired about her initial experiences of teaching Social Science, she explained:

> *I was a bit nervous, but coming to Geography part – it was easy for me. But on the other part when it comes to History, it was a bit of a challenge.*

I asked her to specify the parts of the History section she found challenging. She elaborated:

> *Asking questions based on source – based materials because it is also difficult for learners to understand those questions – so it's even difficult for me to teach that section.*

Shanks' difficulties in teaching source-based materials in the History section of Social Science resulted from her lack of instructional strategies to teach ideas from materials extracted from historical sources. The knowledge of instructional strategies is one of the components of pedagogic content knowledge (Grossman, 1990).

Despite having specialized in Geography and History in his B Ed (FET), Gash battled with how to teach Social Science. This was evident from his frequent use of words like 'difficulties' and 'problems' in our conversation. He ascribed his challenges to the fact that the learners he was teaching were young, apparently because he was trained to teach in FET phase, not in the senior phase. Gash did not only struggle with instructional strategies but he also struggled with what Grossman (1990) refers to as context knowledge. According to Grossman (1990), a teacher must use his general knowledge of the context in which he teaches to adapt it to the needs of their specific students. Knowledge of students' backgrounds, families, strengths and weaknesses are all important. In explaining the difficulties he faced, Gash said:

> *What I think is the knowledge of how to teach because I have History and Geography, yet I did find many difficulties when it comes to how to teach.*

When I probed further, he explained:

> *Yes, I find it difficult on how to present it to learners are still young ages, sometimes they hardly understand the presentation.*

He went on to explain:

> *The problem is that I sometimes fail the skills on how to. That is my problem, there is no document that you can rely on in how to teach.*

I probed further by asking what the problem was exactly, whether it was the presentation or that he had forgotten what he had learned at tertiary level. He responded:

> *I have not forgotten what I was taught at school, it just that the learners at Grade 9 they find it difficult, even when I explained to them. I become to feel that I have a problem or fail to teach them how to understand.*

It appears that Gash struggled with appropriate strategies to teach the subject of Social Science. It is possible that, as a newly appointed teacher, Gash was still "developing a repertoire of instructional strategies" (Grossman, 1990, p. 9) that would enable his learners to understand his lessons better. Gash also indicated that he lacked curricular knowledge. This was clear when he claimed that there were not any documents he could rely on in assisting him on how to teach. Gash also lacked knowledge of context. Grossman (1990) claims that knowledge of context includes knowledge of specific students. That means, a teacher's knowledge of the context has to be adapted to particular students he teaches. Gash also claimed that he found it difficult for him to teach Grade 9 learners because of their age. This might be understandable because Gash was trained to teach History and Geography to learners in the FET phase, not Social Science to learners in the senior phase

Like all the participants who were not trained in both sections of Social Science, Luh indicated that he felt prepared to teach the section he was trained in but not the one in which he was not trained. He clarified:

> *Personally, I like teaching Social Science because there is a part that I love teaching which is History. Then when it comes to Geography that's where the struggle is.*

Aina and Olanipekun (2015) maintain that teachers' self-efficacy largely depend on teachers' qualifications. Luh, for example, would be more efficacious in the History part of Social Science than in the Geography part. This is because he specialized in History, not in Geography. Being efficacious in only one part of Social Science means that Luh was not adequately prepared to teach the subject. All these participants were inadequately prepared to teach Social Science because they could not teach both sections of Social Science adequately. These participants, Mays, Gash, Nxesi, Luh and Shanks, indicated that they were in a situation where they felt inadequately prepared to teach Social Science because they were still facing challenges with both the content and pedagogical content knowledge of some parts of Social Science.

4.3.2.3 "I think I'm growing"

While all the six participants expressed that they felt unprepared to teach Social Science when they were first assigned to teach it, experience in teaching the subject allowed them to feel more and more prepared to teach it. Both the participants' experience of teaching Social Science and the knowledge gained over the years had an impact on the extent to which they felt prepared to teach Social Science

Mays had taught Social Science for four years in Grade 8, and for three years in Grade 9. When I asked her about her feelings of teaching Social Science. She responded:

> *Eish…I am not sure about that because I was just given the subject due to shortage of teachers, but I am getting used to the subject. So, I think I am growing since I am teaching this subject for more than three years.*

I then required from her whether she was feeling adequately prepared to teach Social Science compared to the time she was first assigned to teach it. She responded:

> *Yes, it is better now and I am getting there.*

Mays implied that she was approaching a stage where she would have been comfortable to claim that she was adequately prepared to teach Social Science. She relied on the experience she was acquiring to provide her with what was necessary for one to be an adequately prepared Social Science teacher.

Mseh's efficacy to teach Social Science developed with time as he interacted with learners, colleagues and community members. He remarked:

> *When I was first introduced to this Social Science, I didn't feel like I am Social Science teacher. But as time progressed I saw the need to develop my learners in social aspect. So, that is one of my attributes. So up to this point now I feel that I am a real Social Science teacher because I can interact with the learners also with educators and parents outside there.*

I then asked Mseh whether he felt adequately prepared to teach Social Science. He responded:

> *Huh…every day I need to be updated because the system of education is ever changing. So, the workshops that I am attending now and again provide me with necessary information to go to class. In other words, I am adequately prepared.*

Nxesi developed her efficacy to teach Social Science through her involvement in learning activities. When I inquired from her whether she felt adequately prepared to teach Social Science compared to the time she was first assigned to teach it, she responded in the affirmative. I probed further by asking her if anything had changed. She responded:

> *Yes, there is a change because I think now things are getting better and better.*

When I enquired from her for more clarification, she elucidated:

> *Before I go to class I prepare myself, and by so doing that I am gaining confidence because I know what to deliver to the learners.*

These findings are in line with what van Driel et al. (1998) say about teaching experience being the major source of pedagogic content knowledge. Kola and Sunday (2015) add that pedagogical content knowledge develops over time, and is gained from experience. For the

development of pedagogical content knowledge, however, content knowledge appears to be a prerequisite (van Driel et al., 1998). Goge (2005) argues that a teacher's knowledge of content matures as the teacher acquires experience. Mseh had taught Social Science for six years and had 21 years' teaching experience. He reported that he felt adequately prepared to teach Social Science. Mseh said that he felt adequately prepared to teach Social Science because of the professional development activities he was attending. This is affirmed by Morris et al. (2016) when they claim that teachers who had engaged themselves in various professional learning activities were more efficacious than those who had not. Luh, on the other hand, had only had three month's teaching experience, and had only taught the History section of Social Science during that period. As a result of limited experience and, therefore, poor development of content and pedagogical content knowledge, Luh felt inadequately prepared to teach Social Science. It appears that to be fully prepared to teach Social Science, participants needed highly developed content and pedagogical content knowledge, the knowledge that is gained from experience. Bandura (1997) corroborates this when claiming that the development of teacher efficacy is dependent on the teacher acquiring knowledge and skills in the subject.

The extent to which the participants said they felt prepared to teach Social Science depended on their experience in teaching the subject, and the knowledge, skills and strategies they had acquired in either History or Geography, or both. These feelings had to do with their perceived abilities to teach Social Science. The participants became efficacious as they acquired more knowledge and skills in the subject. Morris et al. (2016) attest to this when they claim that teachers become more efficacious with increased knowledge.

4.3.3 Research question 3: How do (or did) out-of-field Social Science teachers learn the knowledge required to teach Social Science?

In the section below I present findings on how, and where out-of-field Social Science teachers learn the knowledge required to teach Social Science. In both the interviews and research diaries, the participants indicated that they were involved in a range of learning opportunities and used a variety of sources in different contexts to learn different types of knowledge they required in order to teach Social Science. The participants involved themselves both in formal and informal learning settings. They were involved more in informal incidental opportunities of learning than in formally planned learning opportunities.

4.3.3.1 Informal incidental learning activities

Reid (in Fraser et al., 2007) describes informal learning as the activities begun by teachers themselves in settings identified as learning sites. Incidental learning opportunities are not planned, they occur by chance. Participants in this study reported that they engage themselves in learning activities that they initiated themselves incidentally. Reading was the learning activity all participants engaged themselves in. Five participants reported that they used the internet. Four participants mentioned that they observed their peers working, networked with their colleagues, and sought and/or received help from their seniors. Only two mentioned learning from classroom encounters, and being involved in individual research.

When I inquired from Shanks how she learns the part of Social Science she is not familiar with, she responded:

> *I usually take a lot of resources, like combining different kinds of textbooks and then I would read until I get to know the barriers that I am facing in that particular situation.*

In her research diary entry, Shanks recorded how, where and what she had learnt to enable her to teach Social Science. She wrote:

> *I thought I thoroughly understand events and causes of World War 2 and had in inadequately read several books about war, but what I realized is that I need to look at the specific 'curriculum'. I am supposed to implement and integrate what I know with the objectives or what is intended for students to learn.*

After being informed by Nxesi that she did not have any Social Science policy document but relied on textbooks, I inquired from her whether the textbooks she was using were helpful. Nxesi responded:

> *Yes. Because what I am teaching, I read it from the book.*

Unlike Nxesi, Luh had both textbooks and Social Science policy documents from which he read. When I asked him what he does to acquire the knowledge that he needed to teach Social Science, he explained:

> *I would be looking…for an example, in the books…there are different books, they explain things in different ways.*

Luh further explained:

> *So, if you're going to start teaching in whatever subject that you gonna teach, in this case Social Science, then have their CAPS documents and I have read some facts in that CAPS.*

When we were talking about professional learning activities organized by the department, Luh informed me that he had not attended any. He also mentioned that he had not received any Social Science policy documents (which are usually handed out in those professional learning activities organized by the Education Department). He claimed that the Social Science policy documents that he had were downloaded by himself from the internet. When I inquired from him about using the internet. He explained:

> *Yes, I have to use the internet because I had no clue on how I am going to get this, because there is no one else who teaches Social Science.*

Mseh eloquently justified his use of textbooks when he wrote:

> *This is a main resource of teaching. It has helped me with necessary information. I also extract sources from the texts.*

About using the internet, he wrote:

> *It has helped me, colleagues and learners to find relevant information which cannot be found on the other sources.*

As a newly qualified teacher with only three months in the teaching profession, Luh explained why he observed other teachers while they performed their professional duties.

> *I am still trying to fit in the Social Science because I am new, but I am learning day by day new things that they are doing and how they so their tasks and how do they do. Because I am trying to get involved in what they are doing, so I learn*

from them on how they mark their assessment task or in whatever they do and how they. And how do their skills…in learners. Sometimes I go with them when I am free to see how learners participate and how the teachers teach.

I wanted to know from Luh whether he found visiting other teachers' classrooms helpful. He replied:

Yes, visiting classrooms is useful because I try to know the learners. They know all the learners because some of them they are the class teachers so they know their learners.

Despite the fact that she had been teaching for more than two decades, Nxesi still required to observe her colleagues teaching in order to acquire the knowledge of how to teach Social Science. In her research diary, she wrote:

On 25th May, 16 I also observe Mrs X teaching Grade 8 and I acquire some knowledge on how to teach Social Science.

It appears that what Nxesi was interested in was to acquire the knowledge that pertains the teaching of Social Science, that is, how to teach Social Science. Grossman refers to this as pedagogical content knowledge.

In their endeavors to learn what they need in order to teach Social Science, the participants either received or sought help from educators who were more knowledgeable in Social Science, in Geography and /or in History. These might be teachers from within or outside of their schools. It might also be their HODs or their subject advisors. Du Plessis (2015) confirms that out-of-field teachers make use of senior and / or specialist teachers when they are faced with difficult concepts in a subject. Senior teachers also assist out-of-field teachers with important concepts that require special attention (Du Plessis, 2013). When we were talking about the difficulties she experienced with topographic maps, Nxesi mentioned that she needed someone to help her out first. When I asked her who that person might be, she replied:

There is a Mam…who is teaching Grade 8 and 9 and I think she knows better.

Shanks reported that she often used information she learnt during casual conversations with her colleagues. She recounted:

> *When talking within the school premises with other teacher like looking at the weather and then would…it would fall under Geography, and I would take that information as we are busy identifying or defining things that are happening in the weather – and would take that and apply it in the class and tell my learners, and when we would go and do some field work based on what particular topic that we were discussing in the school grounds with other teachers.*

Unlike Nxesi and Shanks, Luh had to seek assistance outside of his school because there was no one who taught Social Science, History and or Geography in his school. Geography was not offered in his school, and he was the only History teacher there. He explained:

> *I would go to workshops. I talk to other teachers and find out how they teach Social Science.*

The workshops Luh was referring to were History cluster moderations where FET phase History teachers meet quarterly to moderate learners' work. Amongst those teaches, there are those who teach Social Science. When Luh mentioned that he had not yet begun teaching the Geography part of Social Science but was still looking for help, I asked him how he was looking for that help. He responded:

> *I am trying to consult teachers from other schools because I went to the moderation last week Friday and I told them that I have this problem, that I have no knowledge of Geography. Then they told me that whenever I need to teach the Geography part I have to tell them so they can explain on what to teach and how I am supposed to teach it.*

Unlike Nxesi and Luh, who sought support from teachers within and outside their schools, Gash received his assistance from his senior, and Mseh received his support from his subject advisor. When dealing with the problem of lesson presentation, Gash claimed that he consulted other teachers. I requested him to specify those teachers. He explained:

Specifically, my HOD because she is teaching Geography. So, she helps me a lot when I am in the Geography part.

Mseh claimed that when they attended workshops at the beginning of each year, they were provided with annual teaching plans. When I asked him where they get the information that they were supposed to teach from, he replied:

From the textbooks or if the textbook is not there, the subject advisor provides.

Participants also learnt informally when they conduct individual research and when they found themselves learning from their classrooms encounters. When I enquired from Mays how she prepares herself to teach the Geography section of Social Science, she responded that she reads the textbooks and conducts her own research. I probed further to find out how and what she had researched. She explained:

Yes, there are some parts that talk about soil and rocks, so I had to go and research to see those things that are in the books, so that I will be able to teach learners from what I have seen.

To help herself understand how contour lines are depicted on a topographical map, Nxesi had to go to a library in search of a Geography textbook that was prescribed for learners before the introduction of Curriculum 2005 (C2005). She responded:

I went to our library and got Active Geography book that clearly explains contour lines and contour intervals.

In the performance of their professional duties, out-of-field teachers find themselves learning from learners. This is an informal type of learning that occurs by chance (Reid, in Fraser et al., 2007). Nxesi explained how this type of learning occurred when we were talking about assessing learners. She recounted:

Yes, I usually get something like that if I have a specific answer but the learners answer the other way but it is correct also. You find yourself learning from the learners.

When I asked Mays whether she had ever found something unexpected whilst marking learners' work, she responded:

> *I think some of the learners can give you surprise answers. There are some learners that will give you the answer that you were not expecting. Some of them would give you the right answer as if they had seen it from the books. Even the one that you were not expecting.*

Luh claimed that teachers learn from students as much as students learn from teachers. According to him, students have a misconception that teachers know what students do not know. He argued that this was not the case because teachers and students learn from each other. He explained:

> *When you are standing in front of learners, they look at you as someone who knows what they do not know. In fact, we learn from each other, I learn from them and they learn from me. So, when I am going to teach Geography part I will be learning from them because they have learnt Geography part from primary in Grade 5, 6 and 7 so they have the background knowledge of Geography part.*

Reading is the type of learning activity that was reported by all six participants who mentioned that they read mostly from textbooks and curriculum policy documents. Five participants mentioned using the internet either to download curriculum policy documents or to search for information they could not find in other sources. Four participants reported that they learn by observing their peers, they network with their colleagues and either seek or receive help from their seniors. Only two of the six participants indicated that they learn in their encounters with the learners, and learn from conducting individual research.

4.3.3.2 Formal planned learning activities

Formal planned learning activities are organized by education agents who determine what is to be learnt in advance (Reid, in Fraser et al., 2007). Participants reported that there were professional learning activities organized by the Department, and run by the subject advisors usually at the beginning of each year. Both Luh and Gash arrived at their respective schools when these programs had already finished for the year. Because of ill-health, Shanks was not at work when these programs were held during the year this research was conducted. She attended one the previous year, and the year before. Nxesi had not attended any since she began teaching Social Science. Mays last attended these programs in 2014. Mseh attended them yearly. When I asked Mays what was taught in the workshop she last attended, she replied:

> *We were not taught anything but they gave us materials.*

I probed further, for her to specify the materials they were offered. She responded:

> *Like CAPS documents and…those things and we were told that we have to do both sections. There was nothing like teaching the content or…*

Mseh explained to me about these professional learning activities thus:

> *Normally these activities are run at the beginning of the year, then after that it finished. To get the best out of them, I think they should be run quarterly so that teachers can be revised now and again.*

We then discussed the need for a regular occurrence of these programs. Mseh informed me that he had brought this issue up with the organizers of these activities. He elaborated:

> *Yes, I recommended that after we finished the workshop. I wrote down and spoke about it and we agreed that on quarterly basis workshops are going to be done. And on quarterly basis the subject specialist must come and visit our school to come and see the progress of what we have learnt in those workshops.*

When I asked Shanks how the professional learning activities should be organized so that teachers benefit more from them, she stated:

> *Yes, I think they should do more. They have to check whether I have done it properly. They should not just give me the material and not just go away. They have to come back and check if the material that they offered me is working – if I am on the right spot, if I am doing or I am giving learners what they have taught me during their professional development activities.*

Unlike Mays, both Mseh and Shanks acknowledged the importance of these formally planned learning activities. They emphasized that these activities should be organized more frequently, provide opportunities for follow-up support, and be school-based. The manner in which these learning opportunities were planned influenced how teachers learn from them. They only occurred at the beginning of each year. It was partly for this reason that Luh and Gash could not attend them. They were only appointed when these activities had finished for the year. Mays did not find them of much use to her because she had expected to be taught some content knowledge, not just to be given CAPS documents and told to teach both sections of Social Science.

4.3.3.3 Informal planned learning activities

Mseh reported that he also learns in a pre-arranged collaborative setting with his peer who also teaches Social Science at his school. Reid (in Fraser et al., 2007) classifies this type of learning as an informal planned learning opportunity. At the beginning of the year, when this study was conducted, a newly qualified teacher took over the teaching of Grade 8 Social Science learners from Mseh. Mseh informed me how they work together with this teacher.

> *Yes, every day at 14:45 we sit together and do preparation for the next day, from 14:45 to 15:00 and it is very helpful. We do the preparation together and then at times I invite him in my class to come and observe when I present my lesson, at times I go and visit his.*

Mseh was an experienced teacher of 21 years and had been teaching Social Science for six years. He had acquired sufficient knowledge, skills and strategies in teaching Social Science so that he was able to help a novice out-of-field Social Science teacher in learning how to teach the subject. This was probably one of the reasons why Mseh believed that he was adequately prepared to teach Social Science.

In responding to how and where they learn, the participants reported that they were involved in both informal and formal opportunities of learning, and used a variety of sources in different contexts. All the participants engaged themselves mostly in informal incidental opportunities of learning. The formally planned learning opportunities that occur do not consider the specific learning needs of out-of-field Social Science teachers.

4.3.4 Research question 4: What are the types of knowledge (and skills) out-of-field Social Science teachers have learnt in order to teach Social Science?

In the section below I present findings on the types of knowledge (and skills) out-of-field Social Science teachers have learnt in order to teach Social Science. Grossman (1990) argues that the types of knowledge important for teaching are general pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and context knowledge. Participants in this study mentioned three of Grossman's (1990) types of knowledge as key in their learning to teach Social Science. All the six participants reported that they learnt the knowledge of the content that they needed in order to teach Social Science. Grossman (1990) refers to this type of knowledge as content knowledge. Three of the six participants mentioned that they had learnt how to teach content knowledge to their learners. According to Grossman (1990), this is pedagogical content knowledge. Furthermore, three participants reported that they had learnt different skills, teaching methods and assessment strategies that helped them when teaching Social Science. Grossman (1990) refers to this type of knowledge as general pedagogical knowledge. These participants relied heavily on informal learning opportunities to acquire the knowledge they needed (Reid, in Fraser et al., 2007). They reported that they learnt content knowledge by reading textbooks. They indicated that they acquired general pedagogic knowledge, mostly form policy documents and from networking with teachers more knowledgeable in Geography, History and / or Social Science. The participants learnt and developed their pedagogical content knowledge by observing their peers, and by adapting the general teaching methods they had learnt during their ITE. The participants reported that they acquired mostly some assessment skills from the formal learning opportunities that only three of them attended.

4.3.4.1 Knowledge of the subject content

The knowledge of the subject content relates to the knowledge of concepts, ideas or facts within the subject, including how these are linked (Grossman, 1990). Five of the six participants indicated that they had acquired this type of knowledge when learning to teach Social Science. Although all the six participants reported that they were involved in informal incidental learning opportunities reading textbooks to acquire content knowledge, Mseh and Shanks applauded formal planned learning activities for offering them opportunities to learn Social Science content knowledge (Reid, in Fraser et al., 2007). Mseh claimed that he gets updated on what learners need to be taught by attending professional learning activities that are formally organized at the beginning of each year. He explained:

> *Huh…every day I need to be updated because the system of education is ever changing. So, the workshops that I am attending now and again provide me with necessary information to go to class.*

When I asked him to elaborate on the changes that had taken place in the curriculum, he explained:

> *The curriculum and so on the changes, maybe let me say in Social Science this year first term there is French Revolution then next year there is no French Revolution another aspect comes in, so the workshops help me to be prepared because it ever changing.*

Mseh attended these workshops on a yearly basis. Shanks also attended these workshops, but did not attend them in the year of this research because of ill-health. She applauded the organizers of these professional learning activities for providing her with subject content knowledge to teach learners. She claimed:

> *I find it very helpful because they usually touch those topics which I am usually not familiar with and then they would explain more about those topics and I would get more information from them – so they usually help a lot.*

Four of the six participants, discussed below, reported that they had learnt the content knowledge they required in order to teach Social Science from incidental informal learning

opportunities (Reid, in Fraser et al., 2007). In her diary entry, Shanks recorded how reading a particular textbook helped her develop the knowledge of both Geography and History content. She wrote:

> *It has helped me understand how processes that shape natural and cultural environment/change over time, vary in scale and from place to place and create spatial patterns (this is based on geographical side). On the History side, I now understand how trends over time reflect social, economic and political forces.*

Luh, also, acquired the knowledge of the content that needed to be taught to learners by reading from textbooks. He wrote:

> *I have learnt new things under the topic Development from the textbook. All I knew about development is that it involves change, it happens over time and those progress affect people's lives. However, today I learnt that development is divided into 3 aspects which are economic development, social development and environmental development.*

Unlike Luh and Shanks, Gash reported that he learnt the content knowledge from discussing particular topics in a subject with a more experienced teacher who taught Social Science in Grade 8. Gash explained:

> *We would just discuss the topic. For an example, if I am going to teach the History part sometimes I start by talking to Mr. X because he is the one who teaches Grade 8. He also helps me when I am going to teach the History part because he knows History part better than me.*

Nxesi mentioned that whenever she went to a classroom, she ensured that she prepared herself well for the lesson. She indicated that she read the content knowledge from textbooks when she was explaining how she prepared herself. She explained:

> *By taking the books, there are different books of Social Science. Some are easy and some have knowledge that is not easy. I read those books and combine then I do preparation before I go to class.*

All the participants discussed above indicated that they acquired content knowledge from learning opportunities that were both formal-planned and informal-incidental. Formal-planned learning opportunities were only accessed by half of the participants. Even these participants do not all attend them on a regular basis. These learning opportunities occurred at the beginning of each year. For this reason, most of the participants relied heavily on informal-incidental learning opportunities to acquire the content knowledge they need to teach Social Science.

4.3.4.2 Knowledge of making the subject content accessible to learners.

To make the subject content easily accessible to their learners, three participants indicated that they had to acquire some "instructional strategies and representations for teaching particular topics" (Grossman, 1990, p.9). According to Grossman (1990), this is one of the components of pedagogical content knowledge. The teaching method that the participants learnt during their ITE, and other methods they develop as they continue teaching, appear to have helped them in developing their pedagogical content knowledge. When I inquired from Mseh, he responded:

> *They helped me and they are still helping me and it varies you know, other methods you just use them as you go along with teaching. And you…it is not the methods that you learnt at school, some methods you develop them on your own when you go along with teaching these learners. So, these methods helped, sometimes I use to change them and sometimes I use to combine them and sometimes as I have said that you develop other methods as well.*

Grossman (1990) argues that experienced teachers have a variety of ways effective for teaching. With six years of teaching Social Science, Mseh appeared to have had sufficient time to adapt and use the methods he learnt. Goge (2005) attests to this when claiming that experienced teachers possess various explanations, illustrations and examples they use when teaching the subject content.

To ensure that learners fully participate in his lessons, Luh reported that he uses examples as his "representations for teaching particular topics" (Grossman, 1990, p.9). Using examples, experiments or activities is regarded as the manifestation of pedagogical content knowledge (Grossman, 1990). Luh explained:

To make them participate, I find them examples that will include them and those who don't want to partake in the classroom discussion.

Gash indicated that he had not experienced much problem with the subject content that needs to be presented to learners. According to him, the problem he experienced was the presentation of the subject content. He indicated that his HOD, an experienced Grade 12 Geography teacher, helped him. I inquired from him how she helped him. He explained:

Yes, she tried to teach how I would go to present the lesson in the classroom.

Grossman (1990) argues that instructional strategies form part of pedagogical content knowledge, which is an essential type of knowledge for teaching. According to her, experienced teachers possess a variety of instructional strategies useful for teaching. This is why Gash approached his HOD, an experienced Geography teacher, for assistance with instructional strategies.

All the three participants discussed above indicated that they had acquired teaching strategies and representations for teaching that helped them in their teaching. They had developed and adapted teaching methods they had learnt in their ITE. One of them used examples to make learners understand the content knowledge they were explaining, while others sought the assistance of their seniors in acquiring the teaching strategies they needed.

4.3.4.3 General pedagogical knowledge

According to Grossman (1990), general pedagogical knowledge includes knowledge and beliefs concerning learning and learners, knowledge of general principles of instruction, knowledge and skills related to classroom management, and knowledge and beliefs about the aims and purposes of education. Four out of the six participants reported that they had learnt this type of knowledge. Shanks, Nxesi and Luh reported how they acquired the knowledge of general principles of instruction. Gash and Luh reported how they had gained knowledge and skills related to classroom management.

The general teaching methods that the participants learnt in their ITE helped them in their out-of-field positions. Shanks explained how she uses those general teaching methods when she taught Social Science

Yes, they were useful, like I would also involve learners when I am teaching. I don't only teach, I would ask learners to answer some of the questions. Like, for instance when I am introducing a topic, I would have to start from unknown to – from known to unknown…yes.

Shanks used the question and answer method she had learnt in her ITE. She also indicated that she uses learner centered pedagogy and the integration of knowledge, two of the key principles of curriculum 2005 (C2005).

Nxesi explained how doing lesson preparation had helped her gain confidence to go and teach thus:

Before I go to class I prepare myself, and by doing so that I am gaining confidence because I know what to deliver to the class.

A lesson plan enables teachers to be better prepared for what, and how they are going to teach in the classroom. Both the teachers' knowledge of the subject content and his or her knowledge of how to make the subject content easily accessible to learners need to be depicted in the lesson plan. The ability to design a lesson plan is an essential skill in lesson preparation. When I asked Shanks what she had learnt from her colleagues while they were performing their individual work, she responded:

What I have learnt is that whenever you are going to class, you have to go prepared. You have to make some preparation like doing lesson plan.

When I asked Luh whether he had learnt anything from his HOD besides the marking of learners' scripts, he explained:

Yes, I learnt that when marking the scripts you don't specifically have to rely on memorandum. Because memorandum doesn't include all the answers, so you have to have a knowledge of what has been written in the paper. If using only the memorandum then you are going to fail other learners who have written something that you didn't know about because maybe your knowledge is shot.

Luh went on to emphasize the importance of being acquainted with the content knowledge being assessed when marking learners' work.

Gash and Luh specifically reported how they had acquired knowledge and skills related to classroom management. This is another type of knowledge which falls within general pedagogical knowledge (Grossman, 1990). These participants had only been teaching for three and four months respectively. As newly appointed teachers, they were still concerned with issues of learner discipline. When I asked Gash how the general teaching methods helped him in his out-of-field position, he explained:

> *I think when you are talking about methods, you also include on how to manage the classroom. So, while I am in the classroom learners behave very well, so I think that taught me a lot.*

Luh reported that he acquires classroom management skills when he visited other teachers teaching in their classroom. He explained:

> *As I was explaining earlier that I do go to classes with other people to see how they are teaching. So, to see how are they getting to know their learners, because as I have said that I am new in the school. I still need to see who are the chaotic, who are the naughty ones like…when I go to class then I would know how to manage those people who are chaotic in class.*

The participants mentioned above, indicated how they had learnt general pedagogical knowledge. They reported how they used general methods of teaching in their out-of-field position. They also observed their peers, and learnt the importance of doing lesson plans. While others realized the importance of knowing the content knowledge of a subject when marking learners' work, rather than relying on a memorandum. Some indicated that they learnt skills related to classroom management from the general teaching methods they learnt during their ITE studies. Others learnt classroom management skills by conducting class visits.

4.4 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to present and simultaneously discuss and analyze the findings of this study. Findings identified in the data were presented in relation to the research questions to establish how out-of-field Social Science teachers experience learning to teach Social Science. Data were collected by means of interviews and research diaries. Excerpts from the interview transcripts, and participants' recordings in research diaries were used as evidence of the identified findings. It was found that, although half of the participants stressed the importance of the knowledge of the instructional strategies, all the six participants reported that the knowledge of both History and Geography content is essential for Social Science. The study also found that the participants' self-efficacy depended on their experiences in teaching Social Science, and the knowledge, skills and strategies they had acquired in either History or Geography or both. It was also found that the participants were involved in both formal and informal learning activities, and used a variety of sources in different contexts to learn content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and general pedagogical knowledge. The participants were engaged in informal-incidental opportunities of learning mostly. These findings are discussed further in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE:
DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore the learning experiences of out-of-field Social Science teachers. The study focused on acquiring insights into these teachers' experiences on how they learn to teach Social Science. In the preceding chapter I presented findings that emanated from data collected by means of semi-structured interviews and research diaries. In this chapter I present a discussion of the key findings, offer recommendations and conclude the study.

5.2 Discussion of themes

In this section I discuss the issues that I have organized into these themes:

5.2.1 Out-of-field teachers feel inadequately prepared to teach Social Science

In line with research literature on the out-of-field teaching phenomenon, this study confirms the existence of this phenomenon in schools where this study was conducted. Although this was a small-scale study, it affirms that teaching in an out-of-field position is associated with insufficient content, and pedagogical content knowledge (Kola & Sunday, 2015; Du Plessis, 2015; Hobbs, 2012). Out-of-field teachers' insufficient content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge tarnishes their self-esteem and confidence as confidence is associated with having sufficient knowledge (Du Plessis, 2015; Darby-Hobbs, 2002). This lack of sufficient content, and pedagogical content knowledge renders the out-of-field teachers inadequately prepared to teach it, especially when they are first assigned to teach it.

While all the teachers mentioned insufficient content knowledge, half of them indicated that they required instructional strategies to be able to teach Social Science. However, instructional strategies are only one type of knowledge that constitute pedagogical content knowledge (Grossman, 1990). According to Grossman, (1990), pedagogical knowledge is the "knowledge that is specific to teaching particular subject matters" (p.7). In addition to the knowledge of instructional strategies, a Social Science teacher should know why teaching certain concepts, ideas or themes is important for Grade 8 and 9 Social Science learners. A Social Science teacher should also have an idea about what learners already know, and what they find confusing about

a particular topic in the subject. Moreover, a Social Science teacher should know what textbooks, maps and instruments are available to teach the map work section, for example. Furthermore, a Social Science teacher should know what the learners have been taught previously, and what they will be taught in the future in the subject. In addition to all this, a Social Science teacher should have the knowledge of the content taught in other subjects that is related to the content taught in Social Science.

As a result of the lack of all this knowledge, and therefore being inadequately prepared to teach Social Science, out-of-field teachers tend to avoid or postpone teaching sections they find difficult. According to Aina (2016), a teacher will avoid teaching a given task if he or she is not confident about it. Bandura (1993) claims that a teacher who has low self-efficacy will avoid teaching a topic that is challenging to him or her.

All of the participants encountered challenges when they began teaching Social Science. Most of them mentioned facing problems with the map work section of Geography. Amosun (2016) found that the main reason teachers find map work challenging was that they were inadequately prepared in Mathematics. According to him, map analysis requires not only abstract thinking, but it also requires mathematical skills. Given this, inadequately prepared out-of-field teachers represent the opposite of what Mukeredzi et al. (2015) claim is needed by an education system, i.e., teachers "who are well equipped to effectively discharge their roles" (p.1). When these teachers are first assigned to their out-of-field positions, they do not only become unqualified in those positions but they also become incompetent in the performance of their duties. Their incompetence, as a result of the out-of-field teaching phenomenon, exacerbates the poor quality education that the country presently endures.

5.2.2 Out-of-field Social Science teachers' learning needs are varied

Although all the participants were inadequately prepared to teach Social Science when they were first assigned to teach it, their learning needs varied. Out-of-field Social Science teachers' needs depend on the amount of time they have been teaching Social Science, whether they specialized in Geography, History or both, whether they did not do any of these subjects, and whether they are qualified to teach in the year levels in which Social Science is offered or not. For example, a teacher with several years teaching experience in a subject would not have

similar learning needs as a newly appointed teacher. An out-of-field Social Science teacher who specialized in Geography, for example, would not require Geography content knowledge as much as the one who specialized in History would. It follows that an out-of-field Social Science teacher who did not specialized in either Geography or History would need to learn both Geography and History content, and pedagogical content knowledge. An out-of-field Social Science teacher trained to teach in the FET phase, for example, would need to know the "purposes for teaching a subject at different grade levels" (Grossman, 1990, p.8) in order to be able to teach Social Science at Grade 8 and 9. Out-of-field Social Science teachers' varied needs points to that the extent to which they are prepared to teach Social Science varies as well. They point this out when they mention different sections they find challenges in.

Du Plessis et al. (2014) argue for professional learning programs designed with out-of-field teachers' lived experiences in mind. I argue for professional learning activities that are appropriate for the varied learning needs of out-of-field Social Science teachers. In this study, only half of the participants attended workshops in Social Science. The Ministerial Committee on Rural Education (2005) highlighted problems that included limited access to PD programs for teachers. This problem is made even worse for out-of-field teachers because the PD programs that occur are never designed with the varied learning needs of out-of-field teachers in mind. Even when the out-of-field Social Science teachers attend these PD programs, they rarely ever get what they really need, which is content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. This is supported by Bertram (2011) when she argues that, PD programs in SA have been associated with curriculum changes. She refers to Bantwini (2010) who indicates that these professional learning activities concentrate on what the curriculum policy documents are about rather than on content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge or general pedagogical knowledge. Bertram (2011) maintains that professional learning activities should focus more on content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and general pedagogical knowledge instead of concentrating on the implementation of curriculum policies – which frequently change anyway. To accommodate the varied learning needs of teachers Bertram (2011) purposes that in a workshop offering teachers' content knowledge, there should be differentiation between teachers with varying levels of content knowledge. This means that workshops designed for out-of-field Social Science teachers should not be of the same kind. Firstly, out-of-field Social Science teachers' learning need differ substantially from those of

qualified Social Science teachers. Secondly, out-of-field Social Science teachers' learning needs differ with regards to their individual experience in teaching Social Science and subject specialization at tertiary level.

5.2.3 Out-of-field teachers participate in both informal and formal learning activities.

Feeling inadequately prepared to teach Social Science and having different learning needs, the out-of-field Social Science teachers embark upon various learning activities in different contexts to ensure that they are able to teach the subject. All the participants were involved in learning activities that they initiated themselves. Reid (in Fraser et. al., 2007) refers to these as informal learning activities. While most of these activities were never planned, one participant's collaboratively learning with his peer fell within the informal planned dimension. Those learning activities that occurred as informal incidental included participants observing their peers, networking with other teachers, reading textbooks and policy documents, conducting individual research and using the internet. The professional learning activities that were formally planned are organized by the Education Department at the beginning of each year. The only two participants who had recently attended these PD activities, expressed a desire that they be organized more frequently. They also mentioned that there should be follow-up sessions in which the organizers would see to it that teachers actually do what they would have been taught in them. It is worth noting that these formally planned learning opportunities are meant for all Social Science teachers. This means that, when planning for these activities, the organizers do not have out-of-field teachers' learning needs in mind. Bertram (2011) argues that teachers' differences with regards to their content knowledge should be taken into account so that learning opportunities are meaningful for all.

The limited access to these PD programs (as reported by The Ministerial Committee on Rural Education, 2005), coupled with the fact that these learning opportunities are not organized strictly for out-of-field teachers compel these teachers to rely heavily on informal learning opportunities. Hoekstra and Korthagen (2010) argue that informal learning occurs in the absence of any formally organized professional learning activity. The informal learning activities out-of-field teachers were involved in were initiated by the teachers themselves with minimal support from the schools. The support that the teachers received was the support that

the teachers had sought for themselves. Such a state of affairs puts unnecessary demands on out-of-field teachers, especially the newly appointed ones.

5.2.4 Teacher efficacy develops through engagement in learning activities

Although out-of-field Social Science teachers feel inadequately prepared to teach Social Science, their engagement in various learning activities in different contexts enables them to develop some level of self-efficacy. The out-of-field Social Science teachers feel inadequately prepared to teach Social Science because they were not trained to teach it. When they began teaching Social Science, they had insufficient knowledge, skills and strategies which a Social Science teacher needs in order to be able to teach Social Science. When they compare their capabilities to what is expected of a Social Science teacher, they realize that they need to learn the different types of knowledge, skills and strategies required of a Social Science teacher. This explains the reason for their low levels of self-efficacy when they are first assigned to teach Social Science.

The out-of-field Social Science teachers deal with their low levels of self-efficacy in different ways. Some postpone teaching the challenging parts to a later date. Some concentrate on teaching the challenging parts they are familiar with. Others totally avoid teaching difficult parts. Whilst avoiding or postponing teaching the challenging parts in Social Science, these teachers engage themselves in different learning activities. They involve themselves mostly in informal incidental learning activities. They observed their peers, read textbooks and policy documents, networked with other Social Science teachers, and even conducted individual research on topics they were not familiar with. Of the three teachers who have attended formally planned learning activities, only one has attended them on a regular basis. This participant ascribes his development of self-efficacy to his involvement in various learning activities in different contexts where he learns different types of knowledge, skills and strategies which he uses when teaching Social Science. This teacher had six years' experience teaching Social Science. Morris et al. (2016) argue that the development of teacher self-efficacy is associated with a teacher acquiring the requisite knowledge, skills and teaching strategies to teach a subject.

The level of self-efficacy that develops as out-of-field Social Science teachers gain experience and acquire more knowledge, skills and strategies is simply not enough for them to be teachers "who are well equipped to effectively discharge their roles" (Mukeredzi et al., 2015 p.1). Out-of-field teachers cannot perform their duties effectively without any "specialized intensive assistance from staff development programs" (Du Plessis et al., 2014, p.2). As it is, these teachers do everything on their own to enable them to teach Social Science. There aren't any professional learning programs specifically designed for out-of-field teachers. This has serious implications for the quality of instruction rendered by these teachers. To eliminate the negative effects of the phenomenon of out-of-field teaching, out-of-field teachers should not be left on their own when they learn how to teach a subject or a learning area in an out-of-field position.

5.3 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of this study, I present the following recommendations.

5.3.1 Recommendations for policy

Policy makers should consider the varied learning needs of out-of-field Social Science teachers. PD programs should be designed in such a way that they focus more on developing out-of-field Social Science teachers' content, and pedagogical content knowledge rather than on curriculum implementation. Should a PD program aim at improving teachers' content knowledge, for example, teachers' varying levels of subject content knowledge should be considered. After each PD program, follow-up sessions should be arranged where teachers' individual needs are attended to in their own classrooms.

5.3.2 Recommendations for Higher Education

While involved in their ITE studies, all pre-services teachers should be made aware of the existence of the out-of-field teaching phenomenon so that they are not taken aback when they find themselves experiencing this phenomenon. Institutions of higher learning should encourage educational scholars to conduct large-scale research projects that would generate relevant data on the out-of-field teaching phenomenon in South Africa. This will help ensure that appropriate professional learning opportunities for out-of-field Social Science teachers can be designed to improve the competency of these teachers.

5.3.3 Recommendations for the provincial Departments of Education.

Officials in school district should identify subject specialists to render support to out-of-field Social Science teachers on a continuous basis. A close collaboration between school districts and research institutes should be cultivated so that the school districts may also use data generated in those institutes to deal with the problems associated with the out-of-field teaching phenomenon. Out-of-field Social Science teachers should be afforded sufficient time to network, observe and search for knowledge, skills and strategies that they require in their out-of-field positions. This implies that these teachers' duty loads should be reduced accordingly.

5.4 Conclusion

This is a qualitative case study situated within the interpretive paradigm. It explored the learning experiences of secondary school out-of-field Social Science teachers. Data were generated through research interviews and research diaries. All the chapters in this dissertation, including this one, provide the basis for this conclusion. The aim of this conclusion is to summarize the discussion presented in this chapter.

The study found that out-of-field Social Science teachers' insufficient content, and pedagogical content knowledge in Geography and History render them inadequately prepared to teach Social Science, especially when they are first assigned to teach it. This causes them to avoid or omit teaching sections or parts thereof they find challenging to them. Map work reading and interpretation is the most challenging part to the out-of-field Social Science teachers. The study also discovered that out-of-field Social Science teachers have different learning needs. These needs depend on, firstly, the amount of time the teacher has taught Social Science. Secondly, they depend on whether the teacher specialized in Geography, History or both. Thirdly, the varying needs also depend on whether the teacher did not do any of these subjects. Finally, out-of-field Social Science teachers' varying needs depend on whether the teachers are qualified to teach in the year levels in which Social Science is offered or not. It was also found that out-of-field Social Science teachers participate in both formal and informal learning activities, using mostly informal-incidental learning opportunities when acquiring different types of knowledge, skills and strategies they need to teach Social Science. The final finding made was that out-of-field Social Science teachers' participation in a variety of learning activities in different contexts, over an extended period of time, enable them to develop some level of self-efficacy – which is inadequate for effective teaching for quality education.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Gate keeper permission letter

Social Sciences, College of Humanities

University of KwaZulu-Natal

Pietermaritzburg Campus

GATE KEEPER PERMISSION LETTER

The principal

My name is Nkosinathi Seshea. I am a second year Master's student studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. I am conducting a study on Social Science teachers' learning experiences. The title of the research study is: *An exploration of out – of – field teacher learning: A case of Grade 8 Social Science teachers at Pholela circuit.* It is hoped that knowledge gained from this study will assist in the development of appropriate professional learning activities for out – of – field teachers.

I would like to have your permission to interview your Social Science teachers. You are assured that we will arrange suitable times that will not interfere with the school time table.

If you have any further questions, concerns or queries related to the study, please contact my supervisor.

: Dr Mbatha

: Tel: 033 260 5501

: Cell: 0723406256

You may also contact the UKZN Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Administration:

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Telephone: 031 260 4557 or through

: P. Mohun

: HSSREC Research Office

: E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

: Telephone: 033 260 4557

: Fax: 031 260 4609

Thank you

N.E. Seshea

Principal signature: .....

School stamp:

Appendix 2: Informed consent letter

Social Sciences, College of Humanities

University of KwaZulu-Natal

Pietermaritzburg Campus

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Dear Participant

My name is Nkosinathi Seshea. I am a second year Master's student studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. I am conducting a study on Social Science teachers' learning experiences. The title of the research study is: *An exploration of out – of – field teacher learning: A case of Grade 8 Social Science teachers at Pholela circuit.* It is hoped that knowledge gained from this study will assist in the development of appropriate professional learning activities for out – of – field teachers.

I would like to request your participation in the study. You have been specially identified for the study because you teach Social Science. You will be expected to take part in one hour recorded semi – structured interview and to keep a diary for a month's period. Your confidentiality and anonymity is assured, as pseudonyms will be used when writing up the report. The data collected will be used for purposes of the research only. You are at liberty to decide not to participate, or to withdraw at any stage of this research project. This will, in no way, impact negatively on you whatsoever.

Data will be stored in my supervisor's cabinet and disposed of after a period of five years. Your participation is solely for academic reasons, and there are no financial incentives involved whatsoever. Please indicate below (by ticking where appropriate) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	Willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

If you have any further questions, concerns or queries related to the study, please contact my supervisor.

: Dr Mbatha

: Tel: 033 260 5501

: Cell: 0723406256

You may also contact the UKZN Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Administration:

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Telephone: 031 260 4557 or through

: P. Mohun

: HSSREC Research Office

: E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

: Telephone: 033 260 4557

: Fax: 031 260 4609

Thank you for your contribution to this research

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I..... (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to

participating in the study. Furthermore, I understand that I am free to decide not to participate in this research project, and that I can withdraw from the study at any time should I wish to do so.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT.....DATE.....

Appendix 3: Teacher background form

TEACHER BACKGROUND

Dear Participants

This questionnaire aims to collect background information about you, the participants. The collected information will be kept confidential, and will be used for research purposes only.

1. Please tick what is applicable to you

Age (years)	
20 - 29	
30 - 39	
40 - 49	
50 - 59	
60 +	

2. Write down the subjects you passed in your matric

3.

Provide the name of the institution where you received your initial teacher education	What initial teacher education qualification and you receive there	Year obtained

Teaching subject you specialized in doing your initial teacher education	

5. What other academic / professional qualifications do you hold?

Qualification	Year obtained	Institute	Specialization (s)

6. How many years have you been:

6.1 Teaching. _____

6.2 Teaching at this school._____

6.3 Teaching Social Science._____

6.4 Teaching Social Science at this school._____

7. Which other subjects do you currently teach?

Subjects	Grade
7.1	
7.2	
7.3	
7.4	

Thank you

Appendix 4: Interview schedule

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR OUT – OF – FIELD SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS

Knowledge and skills required

1. Who decides what teachers teach in your school?
2. How is the decision made?
3. What sort of knowledge and skills do you think a Social Science teacher should possess?
4. Would you say that the knowledge of the subject matter is more important than the methods of teaching that subject? Why?
5. In teaching Social Science, do you feel that you are doing something that you like, that you are merely performing your normal duties, or that you are (temporarily) in place for someone else? Elaborate.
6. Would you describe yourself as a Social Science teacher? Why?

Preparedness level

7. In terms of knowledge and skills, how prepared were you when you were assigned to teach Social Science?
8. Explain the impact your level of preparedness had on your confidence to teach Social Science.
9. At the present moment do you feel that you are adequately prepared to teach Social Science? How?
10. What aspects, sections or topics of Social Science are you confident in? Elaborate.
11. What aspects, sections or topics of Social Science are you not confident in? Elaborate.
12. How do the learning methods you learnt at tertiary level help you when teaching Social Science?
13. Do you feel that you still need to know more about how to teach Social Science? Explain.
14. If time and money was not a problem, which subject would you like to further your studies on?
15. If time and money was not a problem what academic or professional qualification would you like to acquire?

Learning manner and context (s)

16. How many teachers teach Social Science in your school?
16.1 Is there anything you can say you have learnt from the Social Science teachers?
16.2 Is there anything you can say you have learnt from your senior teacher, HOD or subject advisor?
16.3 Is there anything you can say have learnt from other teachers in your school?
16.4 Is there anything you can say you have learnt from teachers from other schools?

17. What kinds of continuing education activities have you been involved in Social Science?
17.1 Who runs them?
17.2 What is taught?
17.3 Comment on how these activities can be run so that you get the most out of them.

18. Comment on what you have learnt from the following (activities):
18.1 Reading (textbooks, CAPS documents, journals, internet, etc.)
18.2 Media (television, videos, compact discs, newspapers etc.)
18.3 Collaboration (at grade, school, cluster level)
18.4 Assessing learning' work (individually or with others)
18.5 Individual inquiry
18.6 Reflection on classroom practice
18.7 Creating materials (individually or with others)

THANK YOU

Appendix 5: Research diary prompts

RESEARCH DIARY SCHEDULE FOR OUT-OF-FIELD SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS

1. Use the prompts provided below to record your learning experiences, and what you learn during those experience.
    a) Interacting with colleagues
    b) Reading
    c) Reflecting
    d) Analysing learners' work
    e) Observing peers
    f) Sharing resources
    g) Networking
    h) Discussing concepts, ideas or strategies
2. Use the clues provided below to record what you learn from them.
    a) Policy documents
    b) Textbooks
    c) Curriculum and syllabus
    d) Internet
    e) Radio and Television programs
    f) Staff meetings
    g) Team teaching
    h) School clusters

Appendix 6: Permission to conduct research from DOE

education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Nomangisi Ngubane Tel: 033 392 1004 Ref.:2/4/8/589

Mr N Seshea
P.O. Box 101489
SCOTTSVILLE
3209

Dear Mr Seshea

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **"AN EXPLORATION OF OUT - OF - FIELD TEACHER LEARNING: A CASE OF GRADE 8 SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS AT PHOLELA CIRCUIT"**, 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 January 2016 to 31 January 2017.
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 Connie Kehologile 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.

Sisonke District

Nkosinathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education
Date: 30 November 2015

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL: Private Bag X 9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa ...dedicated to service and performance
PHYSICAL: 247 Burger Street, Anton Lembede House, Pietermaritzburg, 3201. Tel. 033 392 1004**beyond the call of duty**
EMAIL ADDRESS: kehologile.connie@kzndoe.gov.za / Nomangisi.Ngubane@kzndoe.gov.za
CALL CENTRE: 0860 596 363; Fax: 033 392 1203 WEBSITE: WWW.kzneducation.gov.za

Appendix 7: Ethical clearance from UKZN

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

5 February 2016

Mr Nkosinathi Seshea 862876365
School of Education
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Seshea

Protocol reference number: HSS/1857/015M
Project Title: An exploration of out-of-filed teacher learning: A case of Grade 8 Social Science teachers at Pholela Circuit

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 15 December 2015, 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 Shenuka Singh (Chair)
Humanitities & Social Scinces Research Ethics Committee

/pm

Cc Supervisor: DR T Mbatha
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor P Morojele
Cc School Administrator: Ms T Khumalo

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
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Website: www.ukzn.ac.za