DESIGNING A STRATEGY TO BRING ABOUT A GREATER PROFESSIONAL CONFIDENCE FOR EDUCATORS BY IMPROVING THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR OWN CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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2012
DESIGNING A STRATEGY TO BRING ABOUT A GREATER PROFESSIONAL CONFIDENCE FOR EDUCATORS BY IMPROVING THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR OWN CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

by
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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Doctor Educationis

In the Faculty of Education at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

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2012
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

“How great Thou art, o Lord.”

This thesis is dedicated to the two people who gave me life, who taught me moral values and who made huge sacrifices so I could get an education: My parents, the late Jacobus and Lizzie Oosthuizen – without whose guidance, love and encouragement, I would not have been the person I am today.

To my Heavenly Father for His help in guiding, supporting and sustaining me throughout this venture and leading me to personal fulfilment.

These past few years have been a journey of growth and development, both personally and professionally. Working on this study allowed me to not only gain knowledge on the topic of my investigation, but it also helped me to strengthen my relationships with family and friends who supported, encouraged, motivated and inspired me to bring this task to fruition.

I wish to express my sincerest, most heartfelt thanks and appreciation to the following people for their contributions:

MY FAMILY:

My sisters, Muriel and Geraldine, for their consistent support and motivation.

My nieces, Tara and Cavel, for making life easier for me by seeing to those things I couldn’t manage.

My son, Ayran, for his love and encouragement. I trust that this will serve as an example to him that anything is possible if you have the will to succeed.

The rest of my broader family for their belief in me, their encouragement and motivation when I felt like giving up.
MY FRIENDS:
To all my friends: Bruce, Ernie, Naadirah, Chantal, Marilyn, Eugene, Roger, Anton, Charlotte, Laverne and all the others who supported me, encouraged, motivated and guided me – thank you will never be enough to express how much I value your friendship, love and support. May God richly bless you all.

To my close friend, confidante, mentor and role model, Dr Deidre Geduld – without whose help, guidance, motivation and encouragement I would have never been able to complete this task: Thank you, thank you and thank you.

MY SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR JL GELDENHUYS:
Thank you for the professional, knowledgeable, yet humane manner in which you advised, guided and motivated me to see this through to the end.

MY LANGUAGE EDITOR: MS MARTIE NEL
Thank you for the professional, efficient way in which you went about editing my study. Your recommendations served to make this study accessible to all and lifted the standard of my language usage.

MY TYPIST: MS JUANITA BOTHA:
Thank you Juanita – you have been a real pillar of strength these past few years. Your patience, high standard of work and your commitment to the task at hand, helped to create this masterpiece.

THE PARTICIPANTS OF THIS STUDY:
Thank you very much for your cooperation and willingness to participate in this investigation. I sincerely trust that this study was of great benefit to you in your quest to enhance your teaching career.

Wishing all of you God’s richest blessings!
DECLARATION BY CANDIDATE

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DECLARATION:

In accordance with Rule G4.6.3., I hereby declare that the above-mentioned treatise/dissertation/thesis is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment to another University or for another qualification.

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ABSTRACT

To ensure the professionalism of the teaching force, it is vital that the growing gap between the knowledge educators acquired during their years of training and emerging knowledge about teaching and education during their teaching careers be closed. The continuous professional development (CPD) of educators is a much-debated issue, the general consensus being that it is imperative that educators themselves become directly involved in their own CPD. School leadership should therefore establish what educators find meaningful and invest in CPD programmes that respond to their needs. Educator development is considered as productive when the educators are involved in planning, decision-making, implementation and evaluation around the CPD programmes offered to them.

As an office-based educator responsible for educator development and training, educators’ perceived lack of interest in their own CPD prompted me to investigate how their professional confidence could be boosted through improved involvement in their own CPD.

The research question that underpinned this study was: What are the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their involvements in their own CPD and how to find a strategy to enhance their professional confidence through such involvement?

This study adopted the interpretive research paradigm, as the aim was to understand how educators understood their involvement in their own CPD. The qualitative research methods employed, allowed me to share the experiences of my participants.

The research sample consisted of Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) coordinators, as members of the school development team (SDT) responsible for educator development, from twelve primary schools in the Uitenhage District. In Phase 1 of the study, data were collected through questionnaires as well as individual and group interviews. Phase 2 consisted of a workshop for the participants, focusing on the key issues identified from the completed questionnaires and
interviews. From the data analysis, five themes emerged, namely the contribution by the school, school management team (SMT), Department of Education (DoE) in the educators’ CPD; the role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD; the factors influencing the effective implementation of educators’ CPD; the skills and competencies that educators need to acquire through CPD; and the role of the IQMS process in the CPD of educators. Based on the research findings, a strategy was designed to guide educators to increase their professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD.

Specific recommendations were formulated, such as that adequate time should be allocated for the CPD of educators; school leadership should make a concerted effort to motivate educators to become involved in CPD programmes; and educators should be encouraged to learn collaboratively through their involvement in communities of learning.

The conclusions from this research are that educators should be life-long learners, actively involved in their own CPD and that schools, SMTs and the DoE should assist them by providing the necessary support, resources and guidance through enabling conditions conducive to a culture of learning.

**KEY WORDS:**
Collaborative learning
Continuous professional development (CPD)
Integrated quality management system (IQMS)
Lifelong-learner
Professional confidence
School development team (SDT)
Self-reflection
Strategy

“Learning is a social process that occurs through interpersonal interaction within a cooperative context. Individuals, working together, construct shared understandings and knowledge”.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

For many decades, the quality of education has been a major concern all over the world. Steyn (2009:257) highlights the fact that in order to address this concern, many global reform initiatives have focused on the quality of classroom teaching, more specifically on educators, as the key to improving learner performance. The effectiveness of reform initiatives depends on the quality of educators, and consequently the professional development of educators has become a major focal point of such initiatives.

In South Africa, education has followed the international trend of constant change; therefore, South African educators need to continuously learn and grow personally in order to remain effective educators. According to Soler, Craft and Burgess (2001:50), the multiple and complex ongoing social changes place numerous demands on educators, and therefore a well educated, flexible, highly competent teaching force is needed to accomplish these changes in the education system and to introduce and implement practices that serve the educational needs of both learners and educators.

Craft (2000:6) argues that professional development has recently attracted increasing attention from those involved in education and other professions. Faced with rapid change, demands for high standards and calls for improving quality, educators are pressurized, as never before, to improve their teaching skills through professional development.

However, educators must first believe in the need for change and determine the direction of the change before embarking on development programmes in such a way that they will learn and benefit from these programmes. De Clercq (2008:8) is of the opinion that educators need to acquire different competencies, such as subject-, pedagogical- and societal knowledge, to enable them to better understand
themselves, their learners, learning and the learning environment, as well as the appropriate nature of curriculum and resource materials.

Reeves, Forde, O’Brein, Smith and Tomlinson (2002:75) concur that people need to have a vision of the bigger picture of what they may become in order to motivate them and offer them an opportunity for growth that will also command the respect and support of those colleagues whose opinions matter to them. In addition, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:126) state that the complex nature of education makes it very difficult for those involved to form a picture of their situation and to relate their own activities on a micro-level to the context as a whole. Consequently, most educators find it difficult to establish a holistic perspective, as they are at a loss to define their own roles in the education system.

Looking at teaching as a profession, it is quite evident that professional development is closely linked to educators’ awareness or realisation of their inability or incompetence to perform according to their own expectations, or the criteria laid down by education authorities. It is therefore important that educators continuously update their own knowledge and be involved in lifelong learning.

Mestry, Hendricks and Bisschoff (2009:478) contend that educator development programmes should focus on school improvement and the professional growth of educators. Educator development programmes are expected to provide the means for educators to experience continuing education as part of a team of professionals. Citing Bush and West-Burnham (1994), Mestry et al. state that professional development embraces two related concepts, namely expanding theory and improving practice, which are explained as follows:

- In the first place, professional development is seen as a process, spanning an individual’s career, in terms of which the educator continues to develop the knowledge and skills required for effective professional practice.
- Secondly, it is the notion that knowledge acquisition and skills development should be more directly related, to a greater degree than in the past, to the substantive problems faced by educators.
As an Eastern Cape educator who was school-based for more than thirty years, and who has subsequently been office-based and professionally involved with educator training and development, I am deeply concerned by the perceived lack of interest in professional development among educators. That, as well as my desire to see educators more motivated to use their potential to the fullest and take charge of their own continuous professional development (CPD), prompted me to embark on this investigation into the possibility of developing a strategy to enhance the professional confidence in their CPD among educators in the Uitenhage area.

Furthermore, in interacting with the literature, I became conscious of the fact that, although there was evidence of studies conducted on the professional development of educators in other provinces of South Africa, very little has been researched about this phenomenon in the Eastern Cape (Mestry et al., 2009:476). This led me to concentrate on the Uitenhage District as part of the Eastern Cape Department of Education (DoE) for this investigation. By doing so, I was aiming at adding to the existing body of knowledge concerning the CPD of educators in the Uitenhage District in the Eastern Cape Province.

This study was aimed at investigating the importance of educators’ motivated involvement in their own CPD, in order to enhance their awareness of their responsibility to engage in professional development in order to (a) improve learner performance; and (b) produce efficient, successful schools.

Educators in South Africa, as in other parts of the world, have been inundated with a plethora of demands and expectations, which constantly change. According to Maistry (2008:135), understanding the historical context of education in South Africa is crucial if education reform, including the CPD of educators, is to be effective. In a country like South Africa, it would be foolish to ignore the historical peculiarities that have shaped the present status of education and CPD in particular. Maistry (2008:135) is also of the opinion that in developing CPD programmes in South Africa, due cognizance must be taken of the fact that apartheid education created huge inequities in education; educator education initiatives need to be particularly sensitive to this legacy of inequality.
Heystek, Nieman, Van Rooyen, Mosoge and Bipath (2008:160) refer to the fact that since 1994, reform in South African schooling has focused on the provision of quality education for all learners, regardless of their background or the circumstances in which they live. The provision of quality education for all has been underpinned by the introduction of a number of education statutes that have changed the way schools are managed and how learners are being taught. In this regard, Heystek et al. (2008:160) mention Outcomes-Based Education (OBE), the South African Schools Act of 1996 (SASA) and the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) as having changed the education scene; by expecting educators to implement and assess learner outcomes, while providing meaningful teaching and learning for a diverse learner population. Given the inequalities that existed in South African education prior to 1994, the present education scenario presents unique challenges for new and practicing educators alike.

Likewise, Ono and Ferreira (2010:59) are of the opinion that the introduction of OBE and Curriculum 2005 (C2005) represented curriculum reform unprecedented in the history of South Africa. However, there was a huge gap at the time between the aims of OBE and C2005 and what the majority of educators had been trained for. Because OBE differs from previous practice, in the sense that instead of rote learning as implemented previously, OBE expected educators to facilitate independent and creative thinking by learners. However, rather than mount a costly and complex professional development programme, the DoE introduced a “cascade” model through which educators were trained and in turn had to pass their knowledge on to their colleagues. However, educators frequently complained that even the district trainers themselves did not always understand C2005. The initial reforms in South African education, which envisaged the implementation of OBE and C2005, might not have been as successful as was hoped. Among the many factors that may have hampered their implementation, the lack of adequate educator professional development probably had the more serious impact.

In a government notice dated 3 September 2010, the current Minister of Basic Education, Ms AM Motshekga, called for public comment on the proposed new curriculum changes, namely the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), which were developed for each subject listed in the National
Curriculum Statement (NCS) for Grades R – 12. In terms of this government notice, the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement is a single, comprehensive and concise policy document that will replace the current subject and learning area statements, learning programme guidelines and subject assessment guidelines for all subjects in Grades R – 12. The notice further states that the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement must not be seen as a new curriculum, but rather as a revised version of the NCS for Grades R – 12. The fact remains, however, that educators will once more have to adapt to the changes that the introduction of the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement will bring about (Government Gazette, 2010).

Mestry et al. (2009:475) draw attention to the fact that professional development has to meet the daunting challenge of developing educators for a new agenda within a transformation framework aimed at reconstructing the education system. Mestry et al. (2009:475) are, however, convinced that certain factors will have to be overcome in order to improve educators’ performance through educator development programmes so as to raise the overall performance of the education system. These factors are, amongst others, the low morale of educators due to their poor working conditions and remuneration packages, their inability to deal with drastic policy changes and to come to grips with OBE, and the negative impact of the RNCS and the NCS on the professional development of educators.

Similarly, Steyn (2009:274) argues that professional development must remain a priority for education leaders and educators in the education system in order to enhance and support teaching and learning.

The deduction may therefore be made that CPD should be seen as a significant vehicle to promote the culture of teaching and learning in South Africa. It is therefore vital that educators’ professional confidence be optimally enhanced through CPD.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The professional development of educators is widely regarded as a vital ingredient for creating effective schools and improving learner performance. Maistry (2008:119)
states that recent curriculum policy changes have increased the demand for the continuing professional development of educators in South Africa. Maistry (2008:119) further emphasises that the professional development of educators should be afforded high priority if reform and restructuring initiatives within the education system are to be implemented effectively and successfully. Likewise, Steyn (2009:274) contends that the ongoing professional development for educators is essential if quality education is to be provided to learners. On the other hand, Nir and Bogler (2008:383) point out that the greater educators’ willingness to participate in CPD processes and their satisfaction with these processes, the more likely that these educators will acquire new knowledge and skills that will improve their professional conduct and benefit the learners and the schools they serve.

Steyn (2008:15) concurs, emphasising that South Africa requires quality educators who are appropriately trained and developed in order to meet its evolving challenges and needs as a developing country. Kriek and Grayson (2009:199) argue that in the South African context, educators need simultaneous development in three dimensions, namely content knowledge; teaching skills; and professional attitudes. However, this study, concentrated on the professional attitude of educators with regard to their own CPD.

The statement by Huberman and Miles (2002:350), that life experiences give greater substance and depth to any problem that researchers may wish to study, guided me as researcher to uncover how educators’ perceived lack of interest in CPD activities influenced the participants of this study. All the above-mentioned led to the formulation of the following problem statement:

The void that exists with regard to the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their own involvement in CPD, influenced the search for possible strategies to enhance their professional confidence through such a connection.
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION AND SUB-QUESTIONS

This study was based on the main research question:

What are the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their involvement in their own CPD and how can a strategy be found to enhance their professional confidence through such involvement?

The research question was supported by the following sub-questions:

- How should the school, as well as the DoE, contribute to the CPD of educators?
- How should educators contribute to their own professional development?
- What is the current situation of CPD in the Uitenhage area?
- Which aspects are indicators of the areas that need development?
- What are the views of the educators regarding the role of Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) in their CPD?
- What strategy could be used to improve the implementation of CPD programmes?

1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

In an attempt to address the research questions, the research aim and objectives were then formulated, as presented below.

1.4.1 Aim

This study consisted of two phases. In Phase 1, the aim of this phenomenological study was to explore and describe the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their own involvement in CPD, while the aim of Phase 2 was to design a possible strategy to enhance their professional confidence through such involvement. Through the development of such a strategy, this study proposed to make a
significant contribution towards the body of knowledge of the CPD of educators and their perception of their own involvement in CPD.

1.4.2 Objectives

The following secondary objectives were identified in support of the primary aim for Phase 1 of this investigation:

- To determine the contributions of the school, as well as the DoE, in facilitating the professional development of educators.
- To establish the role educators can play in facilitating their own professional development.
- To ascertain what the existing situation regarding CPD was in the Uitenhage area.
- To investigate those aspects that indicated the areas in which development was needed.
- To identify the views of educators in the Uitenhage area regarding the role of the IQMS process in their CPD.
- To investigate possible strategies for the improvement of the implementation of CPD programmes.

To achieve these objectives, a two-phased approach was adopted. Phase 1 explored and described the first half of the research aim. Phase 2 consisted of a workshop, based on the results of Phase 1, to empower the educators to facilitate their own CPD. This workshop will be discussed in full detail in Chapter Four, which will deal with the methodology followed in the study.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

Before presenting a brief literature review, important concepts used in the study need to be clarified.
1.5.1 Continuous professional development

Continuous professional development (CPD) refers to those activities that aim to empower educators to perform their duties better and more effectively to achieve enhanced learner performance. It is concerned with improving the teaching skills and subject knowledge of educators to enable them to provide quality education to learners, in order to improve learner performance and create effective schools (Heystek et al., 2008:169). According to Craft (2000:9), CPD is sometimes used in a broad sense, seen as covering all forms of learning undertaken by experienced educators, from courses to private reading to job shadowing; it is also sometimes used to describe moving educators forward in knowledge or skills. In addition, Day and Sachs (2004:220) see CPD as a learning process resulting from meaningful interaction with the context and ultimately leading to changes in educators’ professional practice and in their thinking about that practice.

Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:131) see CPD as relating to lifelong development programmes for educators, which focus on a wide range of knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to educate learners more effectively. These could entail both formal and informal activities or programmes presented by individuals or organisations. In this complex process of learning and developing as an individual, educators improve and develop their teaching skills and their curriculum development, implementation and evaluation skills.

Although this study set out to apply most of the definitions of CPD given above in its attempt to design a strategy to improve educators’ involvement in their own CPD, the view of Day and Sachs (2004:220) that educators’ own involvement can lead to change in their professional practice, and especially in their thinking about it, was of the utmost importance for this investigation. An awareness of what CPD entails could therefore provide impetus to the process of encouraging educators to become more personally involved in their own CPD, in order to enhance the culture of learning and teaching at their respective schools.
1.5.2 **Strategy**

A strategy is a plan designed to achieve a particular long-term aim (Oxford Dictionary, 2005:1160). In the context of this investigation, a strategy had to be designed to improve educators' involvement in their own CPD.

1.5.3 **Educator**

An educator is someone who gives intellectual, moral and social instruction; a person who trains or gives information on a particular subject (Oxford Dictionary, 2005:369). In this study, an educator is viewed as someone who teaches at a school.

1.5.4 **Uitenhage**

Since this study was conducted in the Uitenhage District, a brief description of the town, its history and surroundings will be given to orientate the reader.

Uitenhage is an inland town in the Eastern Cape of South Africa. It is an industrial centre with large railroad workshops, wool washeries, textile plants and motor vehicle assembly plants. The town's most famous 'citizen' is the Volkswagen factory, which is the largest automotive manufacturing plant on the African continent. The city of Port Elizabeth and town of Despatch are located near Uitenhage.

Uitenhage was founded on 25 April 1804 by District Magistrate Jacob Glen Cuyluer, in honour of Commissioner-General Jacob Abraham Uitenhage De Mist. Until 1877, the town of Uitenhage formed part of the District of Graaff-Reinet, when it became a municipality on its own. Uitenhage played an important role in the struggle for liberation in South Africa. Notably, in 1985, police opened fire on a peaceful funeral procession in Uitenhage, killing a number of people. The 'Uitenhage Massacre' became notorious as an example of police brutality in South Africa under the apartheid system (Thornton, 1990:217).

Located only 35 km from Port Elizabeth, Uitenhage is a thriving industrial and commercial town, which forms part of the Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole. The
surrounding area of Uitenhage encompasses the pristine Groendal Wilderness Area that provides a host of eco-outdoor activities.

Education in the Uitenhage area has been entrusted to and is directed by the Uitenhage District Office of the Eastern Cape DoE. The Uitenhage District has both an urban, as well as a rural setting, stretching from the Sundays River Valley at one end, to the borders of the Western Cape Province (including the Gamtoos Valley area, Humansdorp, Jeffreys Bay, Tsitsikamma and the Langkloof area) at the other end. It comprises one hundred and eighty schools, of which thirty six are high schools, and six are private schools.

In 2011 the pass rate for grade 12 learners in the Uitenhage District was 67.7%, compared to a pass rate of 69.9% in 2010 and 64.8% in 2009. This state of affairs poses a challenge to the Uitenhage District to devise practical intervention and support strategies to help schools in this district to improve their grade 12 pass rate in 2012.

1.5.5 Professional confidence

Professional confidence refers to the sense of capability that educators develop to perform their work optimally and successfully (Gouda & Banks, 2006:104). Professional confidence will be discussed in more detail in section 3.2.1.

1.5.6 Motivation

According to Schulze and Steyn (2003:139), the motivation of educators has a significant impact on learning, since educators determine the learning experiences that occur in schools. Consequently, motivation can be regarded as the key to the establishment and further development of quality education. Motivated educators perform consistently well, deliver good results, cooperate in dealing with problems, and are willing to accept responsibility and accommodate change, according to Schulze and Steyn (2003:139). Likewise, Wevers and Steyn (2002:210) claim that motivated educators are a crucial component of effective schools. The degree of satisfaction that educators derive from their work, largely determine the effectiveness
with which they fulfil their responsibilities. Educators are motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors include learner oriented factors such as achievement, acknowledgement and praise, whilst extrinsic factors include aspects such as professional respect, fair treatment and job security.

The examples mentioned by Schulze and Steyn (2003:139) and Wevers and Steyn (2002:210) serve to highlight the fact that school leaders should, in an effort to support the educators’ professional development, make a concerted effort to create an enabling environment that will assist educators to develop both professionally and personally.

1.6 ASPECTS OF CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In this section, three aspects of CPD will be discussed, namely brief international views on CPD, the purpose of CPD, as well as key features of CPD. CPD will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Two.

1.6.1 International views

The international research literature consistently confirms that professional development is regarded as an essential component of successful school development and educator growth, well-being and success. Where educators are able to reflect, access new ideas, experiment and share experiences within school cultures in which leaders encourage appropriate levels of challenge and support, the potential for school and classroom improvement is greater. Where educators have clear professional identities, and receive intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards for their work, they are more satisfied and develop and expand their own teaching repertoires. From the research literature, it was evident that CPD could have a positive, direct impact on curriculum and pedagogy as well as on educators’ sense of efficacy and their relationships with learners (Day & Sachs, 2004:291). CPD in Scotland and England will now be discussed as examples of the international trends.

Livingston and Robertson (2001:183;185;187) argue that in Scotland it is widely accepted that the CPD of educators is as important as initial educator education.
Livingstone and Robertson (2001:183;185;187) further contend that Scotland underwent a period of substantial change in its educational provision just before and after the turn of the century. The thrust of these changes was directed at enhancing the quality of education in schools, making the educational system more responsive to the changing requirements of industry and commerce, raising the levels of learners' achievements, and improving the educational effectiveness of schools. These changes highlighted the need for a systematic approach to the CPD of educators. Livingstone and Robertson (2001:185) cite *The Guidelines for Initial Educator Education Courses* in Scotland (1998), which state that educators are expected to be committed to lifelong learning and to identify their own professional development needs through a process of self-evaluation and appraisal. Educators have a duty to maintain their professional learning and keep up to date with developments in the areas of the curriculum for which they are responsible. The professional development of educators implies a process through which educators may be assisted and supported to achieve a higher level of professionalism. CPD is about educators learning to improve their expertise in what they already do or about developing new knowledge and skills and/or new learning and teaching strategies.

Similarly, Browell (2000:58;59) states that CPD in England is concerned with the constant updating of professional knowledge throughout an individual's working life, requiring self-direction, self-management and a responsiveness to the development opportunities offered by work experience. Furthermore, it requires the ability to look ahead and prepare for change, as well as to respond to more immediate needs and challenges. No matter how well qualified or successful a professional may be, further development is always possible and desirable. Browell (2000:58;59) refers to the Institute of Personnel and Development (IPD), a professional institute in England, which has developed a policy on continuing professional development, which states that CPD is a requirement for corporate members; however, all members, irrespective of grade, are expected to structure their learning and keep a record and provide evidence of professional development. According to the IPD, CPD will ensure that professionals remain up to date and encourage individuals to aspire to improved performance. In creating and maintaining professional standards of competence and behaviour, the IPD expects its members to maintain high standards of performance and believes that CPD will ensure that the reputation of the
profession, in the case of this study, teaching, as a whole is enhanced and remains high. A more detailed discussion on the international trends in CPD can be found in section 3.7.

1.6.2 Purposes of continuous professional development

The following section aims to provide more clarity on the purpose of CPD, substantiated by examples from the literature studied.

According to Steyn (2008:21-22), the purpose of CPD is to equip educators to meet the educational challenges and demands of a democratic South Africa in the 21st century. As such, professional development programmes must emphasise the integrated development of learning area/subject content knowledge and pedagogical skills, educators’ competence in the language of teaching and learning, the changing social character of schools, and the skills required for the teaching of classes with an increasingly diversified learner population.

Craft (2000:10) summarises the purpose of CPD as follows:

- To improve the job performance skills of educators as a whole, or individually;
- To extend the experience of individual educators for career development or promotion;
- To extend the personal or general education of individuals;
- To develop the professional knowledge and understanding of individual educators;
- To develop an enhanced view of the job;
- To enable educators to anticipate and prepare for change.

On the other hand, De Clercq (2008:10) argues that the aim of CPD is to instill in educators the reflexive competencies needed to examine what they have achieved, what professional development they need in order to improve their pedagogical delivery, and to learn new practices.
From the literature studied, it may be concluded that CPD is aimed at contributing effectively and directly to improving the quality of teaching and learning at schools. This topic will be further discussed in Chapter Two.

1.6.3 Key features of continuous professional development

In this sub-section, the study will highlight some of the key features that characterise CPD.

Mashile (2002:175) sees CPD as having four key features, namely:

- CPD must be continuous and should occur throughout a practitioner’s working life. This is necessary, because the conception and interpretation of professional tasks and roles change over time.
- CPD must be organisation focused. CPD activities should of necessity be engaged in maintaining the quality and relevance of professional services linked to a particular organisation, in this case, the school.
- CPD activities must be broad based. Various kinds of learning techniques must therefore be accommodated.
- CPD must be structured. CPD activities must entail a personal development plan that demonstrates systematic maintenance, and the improvement and broadening of professional capability.

Kriek and Grayson (2009:187) agree that CPD must be applied continuously and over a wide range of teaching strategies and features such as:

- reflection on the educator’s own practice;
- development of educator’s content knowledge;
- provision of infrastructure to support educators;
- collaboration with fellow educators and researchers;
- provision of opportunities to try out and discuss new teaching strategies;
- development of educators as lifelong learners; and
- recognition and development of educator beliefs.
Ono and Ferreira (2010:62) argue that CPD programmes must be learner-centred, knowledge-centred, assessment-centred and community-centred to optimise educator learning.

As the objective of this study was to design a strategy to increase educators’ professional confidence through their involvement in their own CPD, I deem it important to mention that educators must structure their CPD activities by having a personal development plan that outlines their developmental needs, as well as the modus operandi for addressing those needs. Furthermore, CPD should include strategies and features that not only recognise educators’ beliefs, but also set out to develop these beliefs as part of their professional development. This is in line with the study’s aim of improving educators’ professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD.

To summarise, the key features of CPD are that it must take into consideration educators’ changing needs, whilst engaging various techniques to promote learning and providing educators with the necessary support.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

Leedy and Ormrod (2001:91) as well as Mouton (2001:55) all regard a research design as a plan or blueprint of how a researcher intends conducting the research. The design will now be discussed under the following headings: paradigm, approach and strategy. The research design will be discussed in detail in Chapter Four.

1.7.1 Paradigm: Interpretivism

Denzin and Lincoln (2000:107) regard a paradigm as a set of basic beliefs that represent a world view. The paradigm, in which this research was conducted, can be described as interpretivistic. According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:123), the interpretive paradigm is characterised by a particular ontology, epistemology and methodology. Researchers working in this paradigm assume that people’s subjective experiences are real and should be taken seriously (ontology); that we understand other people’s experiences by interacting with them and listening to what they tell us
(epistemology); and that qualitative research techniques are best suited to this task (methodology). Esterberg (2005:16) concurs that the interpretive tradition requires researchers to immerse themselves in the world inhabited by those they wish to study.

Briggs and Coleman (2007:24) argue that the starting point for interpretive researchers is to operate within a set of distinctive principles regarding what it means to conduct educational research among people. All educational research needs to be grounded in people’s experience. For interpretivists, reality is a construct in which people understand reality in different ways. According to Briggs and Coleman (2007:24), the following implications flow from this:

• Interpretive researchers recognise that they are part of, rather than separate from, the research topics they investigate. Not only does their work impact upon research participants, but participants impact upon researchers.
• The core task of interpretivists is to view research participants as research subjects and to explore the “meanings” of events and phenomena from the subjects’ perspectives.
• Thirdly, a related issue for educational researchers is the extent to which it is possible to present the account that research participants give in a different language, namely those accounts contained in research reports and theses in educational leadership and management as being accounts by them, and whether or not researchers’ accounts represent or distort what research participants have said or written.

This study attempted to improve the involvement of educators in the Uitenhage District in their personal CPD. As the researcher, I interacted with specific educators at the schools that formed part of my study, and in so doing, I endeavoured to interpret how these educators gave meaning to their experiences of professional development.
1.7.2 **Approach: Qualitative research**

This study made use of qualitative research in an attempt to develop a strategy to improve educators’ involvement in CPD. The motivation for this choice was underpinned by definitions of qualitative research found in literature.

O’Leary (2004:99) states that qualitative research can be viewed as subjective, value-laden and biased; a process that accepts multiple realities by studying a small sample. Similarly, Struwig and Stead (2001:56) explain that qualitative research allows researchers to understand participants’ thoughts, feelings and viewpoints on certain issues.

Wilson (2009:113) maintains that defining what qualitative research is, as opposed to what it is not, presents a challenge, as the term is used to cover a wide range of methodological and epistemological paradigms. In educational research, Wilson (2009:113) adds, the focus is on an in-depth probing of phenomena such as people’s beliefs, assumptions, understandings, opinions, actions, interactions or other potential sources of evidence of the process of learning or teaching.

Heaton (2004:55) highlights the following six key features of qualitative research:

- The description of the social setting being investigated.
- The examination of social behaviour and events in their historical and social context.
- The examination of the process by which social life is accomplished.
- The adoption of a flexible and unstructured approach to social inquiry, allowing researchers to modify and adapt their approach as need be in the course of the research.
- The relevance on theories and concepts that have been derived from the data (rather than defined in advance).

From the viewpoints given above, qualitative research can be summarised as an approach that is useful when attempting to understand a specific phenomenon. In this study, in order to gain more information about the phenomenon, I asked the
participants general questions, collected the participants’ viewpoints and then analysed this information in order to come up with a detailed description of how the participants viewed their involvement in their own CPD. This information was interpreted and presented in the form of a structured report.

The fact that qualitative research places much emphasis on the created or intentional reality and focuses on discovering the multiple perspectives of all participants in a natural setting, made it well suited for giving voice to educators and their views on their involvement in CPD.

1.7.3 Strategy of enquiry: Phenomenology

Since this study focused on educators’ involvement in CPD, their own views on this issue were extremely important. From the following definitions of what a phenomenological study entails, it became clear that this strategy was the best suited for this investigation.

According to Fouché (2002a:273), the product of a phenomenological study is a description of the essence of the experience being studied.

Likewise, Leedy and Ormrod (2010:141) state that a phenomenological study attempts to understand people’s perceptions, perspectives and understanding of a particular situation.

Denzin and Lincoln (2000:139) state that in a phenomenological study, subjectivity is paramount as the researcher deals with how social objects are made meaningful. In addition, O’Leary (2004:122) sees phenomenology as premised in a world that is firstly, constructed; meaning that people are creative agents in building a social world and, secondly, intersubjective, in that we experience the world with and through others.

Briggs and Coleman (2007:24) concur, maintaining that phenomenologists attempt to see things from a participant’s point of view. The emphasis is on how people in
educational settings build understandings of their world by continually trying to interpret data. Reality is viewed as a social construction.

Based on the definitions given above, the use of a phenomenology research strategy for this investigation was deemed appropriate, as it allowed me as the researcher to play a subjective role, whilst experiencing the natural setting of the participants with them and also through them.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this section, the study aims to orientate the reader on the research methods which were followed in order to arrive at the findings. This section will elaborate on what was done, to whom was it done, and how was it done during the investigation. According to Schwandt (2007:133), methodology is the theory of how an inquiry should proceed. In addition, Ritchie and Lewis (2003:34) maintain that the use of qualitative methods will be heavily influenced by the aims of the research and the specific questions that need to be answered. Likewise, Fouché (2002b:120) summarises research methodology as giving a description of the specific techniques to be employed, the specific measuring instruments to be utilized and the specific series of activities to be conducted.

Miller and Salkind (2002:143) state that qualitative research methods are often used when the researcher is interested in obtaining detailed and rich knowledge of a specific phenomenon. Qualitative research methods should, they claim, not be seen as an alternative to quantitative methods, but rather as constituting a new way of answering a different type of question characterised by a unique approach that reflects a different world view of how individual and group behaviour can be studied. Similarly, Henning, Van Rensburg and Smith (2004:1) argue that qualitative researchers proposes to establish not only what happened, but also how it happened and, importantly, why it happened the way it did.

From the definitions and descriptions of methodology provided in the literature, one may conclude that the methodology differs from the research design, which, according to Creswell (2005), as cited by Flick (2007:37), entails choosing an
approach or a tradition of qualitative research design. Similarly, Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2002:472) state that a research design explains the qualitative approach being used and why the researcher chose it to investigate the problem. Therefore, it is evident that whilst the research design explains the qualitative approach used, the methodology entails the methods used in collecting evidence during the investigation and the steps followed to analyse the data collected in order to present the research findings. Subsequently, the following sub-sections will address the methodology of this study, which will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Four.

1.8.1 Population

The population in the sample of this investigation consisted of thirty primary schools in the Uitenhage area, which all resorted under of the Uitenhage District of the Eastern Cape DoE. These schools all had duly elected School Development Teams (SDTs), responsible for coordinating professional development activities at the respective schools.

1.8.2 Sample

In selecting the sample for this investigation, the following information was incorporated into the decision:

Strydom and Venter (2002:199) point out that we study a sample in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn. Gay and Airasian (2000:121) regard sampling as the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that they represent the larger group or population from which they were selected. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:141), a typical sample size in a phenomenological study ranges between five and twenty-five individuals, all of whom have had direct experience of the phenomenon being studied.

This study opted for purposive sampling, as this type of sampling was seen as appropriate for this investigation.
The sample of this study consisted of twelve primary schools in the Uitenhage District, chosen in an effort to ascertain the extent to which the educators at these schools were involved in their own CPD. The sample for both Phase 1 and Phase 2 consisted of the same group of participants, namely the IQMS coordinator of each school, as they also served as members of the SDTs that were coordinating the professional development of the educators at the respective schools.

These participants were selected because of their hands-on experience of CPD programmes, as these formed part of the IQMS guiding the professional development of educators. Their selection was therefore based on their knowledge and experience of the field of CPD of educators.

In order to improve the South African education system, a new system referred to as IQMS was formulated by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) in 2004. The implementation of IQMS has been made compulsory for every public school in South Africa. The ELRC’s training manual (2004) on IQMS for educators, published by the Eastern Cape Provincial DoE, states the following regarding SDTs: SDTs must be made up of principals, whole school evaluation coordinators, and democratically elected members of both the school management and post level 1 educators. Each individual school will decide on the size of its SDT. The manual suggests that the number of SDT members not exceed six, depending on the size of the school. Mestry et al. (2009:478) explain that the ELRC comprises various unions, representing educators and senior officials from the DoE.

With regard to the SDT’s roles and responsibilities, the manual lists, amongst others, the following:

- To ensure that staff is trained on procedures and processes of IQMS;
- To coordinate all activities pertaining to staff development;
- To prepare and monitor the management plan for IQMS (DoE, 2004).
1.8.3  Data collection techniques

As the researcher opted to use qualitative research in this study, she had to employ data collection methods consistent with the qualitative research approach. The data collection methods employed, will be discussed in detail in section 4.6 of this study.

The employment of the data collection techniques chosen for this study comprised Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the research, as presented below.

Phase 1:

During Phase 1, questionnaires and interviews, both individual and focus group interviews, were used.

1.8.3.1  Questionnaires

Delport (2002:172), as well as McMillan and Schumacher (2001:40), explain that a questionnaire is a useful instrument to obtain facts, beliefs, attitudes and opinions from people who are informed on a particular issue. The aim of this study was to identify which strategy was needed to improve the involvement of educators in CPD. The questionnaire was therefore deemed an appropriate data collection instrument to gather data from the participants in order to develop a strategy to improve the educators’ involvement in their own CPD.

1.8.3.2  Interviews

Gay and Airasian (2000:219) and Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2003:96) state that interviews generate data that cannot be obtained from observation and produce rich data, filled with words revealing the participants’ perspectives and views. Based on the identified advantages, I also decided to use interviews as a data collection method for this study.

Interviewing the participants of this study through both individual and focus group interviews, as described by De Vos (2002b:29), helped me to formulate an opinion on
the educators’ involvement in CPD and to fill in the knowledge gaps not addressed by the questionnaires. Greeff (2005:287) state that interviewing is the predominant mode of data collection in qualitative research, thus strengthening my motivation for using this method of data collection in my study.

The data collection methods employed in this study, will be addressed in detail in section 4.6.

Phase 2:

Based on the findings of Phase 1, I designed a workshop aimed at developing a strategy to improve educators’ involvement in CPD. This workshop focused on evaluating the experience gained by the participants, based on completed evaluation questionnaires and/or the personal reflections of the participants. This enabled me to gain insight into how the participants viewed their level of involvement in their own CPD. The workshop was also aimed at steering the participants in the direction of a change in attitude towards greater levels of involvement in their own CPD. This idea is supported by De Clercq (2008:10), who maintains that the aim of workshops is to instill in educators the reflexive competence to examine what they achieved, what professional development they need to improve their pedagogical delivery, and to learn new practices.

The data were collected as follows: (a) At the start of the workshop, educators were given an opportunity to reflect on the challenges they experienced in going about their CPD activities, in the form of personal reflection reports. (b) At the end of the workshop, educators were afforded an opportunity to complete a feedback evaluation form, providing information on how they had experienced the workshop and to what extent their views regarding their involvement in their own CPD had changed.

1.8.4 Data analysis and interpretation

The meaning of data analysis and interpretation has been elucidated in literature by many authors. The following examples could help to clarify these concepts.
Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2003:147) explain that data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, field notes and other materials that researchers accumulate to enable them to come up with findings. Data interpretation refers to developing ideas about research findings and relating them to literature and broader concerns and concepts.

According to Patton (2002:432;453), qualitative data analysis transforms data into findings. In addition, Esterberg (2002:152;157) describes qualitative analysis as a process of making meaning, whilst Leedy and Ormrod (2010:152;153) argue that in quantitative research, data analysis and data interpretation are, in large part, two separate steps, whilst in most qualitative research, data analysis and interpretation are closely interwoven, and both are often enmeshed with data collection as well.

De Vos (2005:333) describe data analysis as a process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. Likewise, McMillan and Schumacher (2010:367) state that qualitative analysis is a relatively systematic process of coding, categorising and interpreting data to provide explanations of a single phenomenon of interest.

As the data collection of this study consisted of Phase 1 and Phase 2, the process of data analysis and interpretation will be discussed as per phase.

Phase 1:

In Phase 1, data were collected by means of (a) questionnaires and (b) both individual and focus group interviews.

In view of the opinions mentioned above, I set about analysing and interpreting the data collected, guided by the literature studied. Phase 1 consisted of the steps explained by De Vos (2005:336-339). De Vos (2005:334), cite Creswell (1998), believe that the process of data analysis and interpretation can best be represented in a spiral image – a data analysis spiral. However, they present this analytical spiral in a linear form. The steps I followed are as follows:
• Firstly, I organised the data into manageable pieces/chunks of information by using files/folders and having the interviews transcribed.
• Secondly, I familiarised myself with the data by reading through it whilst writing memo’s in an effort to make data manageable.
• Next I identified definite, recurring categories, themes and/or patterns that emerge from the data collected.
• I then applied a coding scheme to these categories and themes and marked passages in the data using these codes. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:370), coding refers to the name or phrase used to provide meaning to segments.
• My next step was to evaluate my own understanding of the phenomenon and to determine how useful the data was in highlighting the research question of this study.
• Subsequently, I critically looked at the patterns that seemed obvious and searched for other, acceptable explanations for these data.
• The final step was to present the findings in written form, namely the involvement of educators in their personal CPD, as reflected by the data I had collected and analysed.

Phase 2:

In Phase 2, data were collected during a workshop arranged for the participants of the study, aimed at finding a strategy to improve the educators' professional confidence through their involvement in their own CPD.

Data analysis of Phase 2 entailed the following:

• Organising the data collected at the workshop, by means of the reflection and the evaluation forms.
• Next, I read through it whilst making the necessary notes.
• I then looked for recurring categories/themes/patterns.
• The next step would be the coding process.
• Subsequently, I evaluated my understanding of the phenomenon.
• My next step was to look for other, plausible explanations for the obvious patterns; and
• Lastly, I compiled a written report of my findings on the workshop, in order to lead the study to recommendations on a possible strategy to improve the involvement of educators in their own CPD.

1.8.5 Measures of trustworthiness

Creswell (2005:252) states that throughout the process of data collection and analysis, researchers need to ensure that their findings and interpretations are accurate, in order to ensure the trustworthiness of the research. In this study, the four criteria to ensure trustworthiness, as described by Lincoln and Guba (1985), cited by De Vos (2002a:351), namely credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability, were applied. A brief explanation of these terms will now be given, but a more detailed explanation will follow in Chapter Four. Credibility refers to the measure of the researcher’s confidence in the findings. Transferability refers to the extent to which the findings can be applied to other settings or groups. Dependability refers to whether the findings of the research would be consistent if the study were to be repeated with similar research participants in a similar context. Confirmability is the degree to which the research findings can be confirmed by another researcher (De Vos, 2002a:351-352).

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

McMillan and Schumacher (2001:196) state that ethics are generally considered to deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad. The ethical aspects that this study applied, were the following: the right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity; the right to equality, justice, human dignity and protection against harm; and the participants’ right to withdraw or terminate participation at any time.

The steps in the process of ethical measures also involved applying for and obtaining permission from all the relevant persons, institutions and the DoE. This entailed obtaining permission from the DoE to conduct my research at the relevant schools. I
also applied to the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University’s Ethical Committee for permission to conduct the research under the supervision of an appointed supervisor. The final step was obtaining permission from the principals of the identified schools as well as the individual participants at each respective school. I also ensured that my participants were well informed about the purpose and the nature of my study, before I obtained their written consent to participate in my study.

This study also took great care to ensure that it would not, in any way, make itself guilty of plagiarism. According to the South African Concise Oxford Dictionary (2005:891), plagiarism can be defined as the act of having taken the work or idea of someone else and having passed it off as one’s own. Strydom (2002:74) maintains that researchers should take credit only for work done in direct connection with scholarly and research endeavours and should give credit to the contributions made by others. Where the investigation used examples from the literature studied, the author(s), dates of publication and relevant page(s) were mentioned. Where an author’s direct words were quoted, this was indicated by the use of quotation marks. The study will also include a formal declaration by me that the work in this thesis is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment to another university. All of this was done to safeguard myself against any possible allegations of plagiarism.

1.10 PROPOSED DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

This study was sub-divided into six chapters, which were demarcated as follows:

**Chapter One: Introduction**
This chapter entails the background of the study, research question, aim of the research and research objectives, a brief description of the research methodology, concept clarification, as well as the chapter overview.

**Chapter Two: Continuous professional development in education**
This chapter presents a historical overview of the origin of CPD and elaborates on other factors, such as the different models of CPD currently available.
Chapter Three: Stakeholders in and policies on the continuous professional development of educators

In this chapter, the focus is on policies influencing CPD, the aspect of change as a contributing factor to CPD, and the roles of school leadership and individual educators in CPD programmes.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology of the empirical study. The research design, instrumentation, strategies for data collection as well as procedures for data analysis form the core of this chapter.

Chapter Five: Findings and discussion

This chapter centres around the findings of the study and a discussion thereof. The discussion focuses on the findings of the qualitative data collected by means of questionnaires, individual and focus group interviews, as well as the design and implementation of the workshop presented by me. As referred to in the title of this study, the aim of this investigation was to come up with a strategy to increase the professional confidence of educators by improving their involvement in their own CPD. This study proposed to give educators guidance and direction in respect of what they should do to bring about increased levels of professional confidence through CPD activities. The strategy emanated from the findings of the analysis of data collected in both Phase 1 and Phase 2 of this investigation. The findings and results of the data analysis gave direction as to what this strategy expected of educators in their quest for greater professional confidence.

Chapter Six: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

This chapter summarises the study and draws conclusions relevant to the research question, based on the findings. It also makes recommendations in line with the findings of the study.
CHAPTER TWO
CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION

Nothing within a school has more impact upon students in terms of skills development, self-confidence or classroom behaviour than the personal and professional growth of their teachers. When teachers examine, question, reflect on their ideas and develop new practices that lead towards their ideals, students are alive. When teachers stop growing, so do their students (Barth in Fichtman-Dana & Yendol-Hoppey, 2008:1).

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Continuous professional development (CPD) is not only important for the National Education Department, but also for every individual educator in South Africa. It can therefore be regarded as a vital element of the socio-economic and human development of the country. This is particularly so in today’s global competition in education, which calls for educators to confront the broad pressures that now shape children’s future, and which subsequently place greater demands in the workplace (DoE, 2008:xvii). Villegas-Reimers (in Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59) concurs that the professional development of educators should be considered as one of the key elements in educational reforms world-wide. The relationship between educational reform and the professional development of educators is of the utmost importance. Educational reforms that ignored this link, were ultimately unsuccessful. Professional development initiatives that have not been embedded in some form of structures and policies have been doomed.

Heystek et al. (2008:172) concur that mandated professional development is the initiative of the national government and state that the DoE mandates in-service training activities for educators when new policies are introduced. On regional level, workshops are conducted regularly by trained officials, and contracted educator training institutions help educators to update their knowledge and skills, thus enabling
them to cope with policy changes to contribute to quality teaching and learning. Heystek et al. (2008:172) also refer to the fact that the South African Council for Educators (SACE) is expected to promote professional development by engaging educators in professional activities that expand their knowledge base and further enhance performance.

Soler et al. (2001:51) draw the attention to the fact that educators do not enter CPD as empty vessels. They bring existing experiences, practices, perspectives, insights and, usually, anxieties about the highly complex nature of their work. Educators enter CPD courses brimful of thoughts and feelings; with implicit or explicit beliefs about education and their work with children. They come with differences, disagreements, preconceptions, uncertainties and missions.

According to Day and Sachs (2004:220), professional development implies “learning by the educator”. The result of this learning not only becomes visible in changes in educators’ professional practice, but also in their thinking about the how and why of that practice, which is reflected in what Day and Sachs (2004:220) call the educators’ personal interpretative framework: the set of cognitions of mental representations that operate as a lens through which educators view their job, give meaning to it and act in it. This view is shared by Freppan (2001:156), who sees educator change as key to teaching change. Rather than seeking answers, effective educators, he states, should seek “to understand the paradoxes of teaching and the mindset of living well in the imperfect world of human learning”.

The aim of this study is to investigate how educators in the Uitenhage area perceived their own involvement in CPD and to design a strategy to increase educators’ professional confidence through such involvement. In order to do this, a thorough look at CPD in education is necessary. Therefore, this chapter will serve to orientate the reader on the different aspects of the CPD of educators, with emphasis on the professional attitude of educators towards CPD. These will include a brief historical background, concept clarification, the purpose of CPD, factors influencing CPD, as well as key features and some delivery modes of CPD.
2.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In order to understand CPD practices better, this study deems it necessary to give a historical background of educators’ CPD in South Africa, as presented below in various sub-sections.

2.2.1 Apartheid education

Lewin, Samuel and Sayed (2003:29) explain that, under apartheid, education in South African was provided and fragmented along racial lines. Prospective educators were trained in colleges of education that were designed to cater for particular racial groups. Three important features were put into place within this arrangement. Firstly, educator education was located mainly within colleges of education; secondly, educator education was grounded in the philosophy of apartheid and apartheid education; and thirdly, linkages between providers of educator education and schools were also cast in distinct racial moulds. This ensured that those trained to be educators would acquire their professional competences by being socialised in racialised environments. This was reinforced by the schools with which they needed to deal, since the schools would be those catering for the same racial group as that catered for by the colleges with which they were linked. Similarly, Mestry and Singh (2007:477) argue that the legacy of the apartheid education system was characterised by fragmentation, inequity in provisions, a crisis in legitimacy in many schools, and the demise of a culture of learning and teaching.

Gulston (2010:vi) argues that the transition from apartheid to democracy in 1994, led to changes in a multitude of policies and/or legislation. In the past few years, there has been ongoing debate about how the standard of education provisioning in schools could be improved in the light of the many curriculum changes brought about by the RNCS and thereafter the NCS. These reform initiatives generally brought about confusion and a sense of unsettledness amongst educators, including principals as well as school management teams (SMTs). Gulston (2010:vi) further states that the above-mentioned policies required of educators to acquaint themselves with either the materials that were used or the content of the curriculum and the planning and presentation of lessons.
According to a report of a Educator Development Summit compiled and published by the ELRC (2010), South Africa’s apartheid legacy and post-1994 democracy form the basis for concerted action on educator development. The fundamental aims of system-wide educator development are to redress the past neglect of a certain sector of the nation, to enable educators to improve their subject knowledge, competence, morale and professionalism, and to achieve sustainable improvement in the quality of teaching and learning. South African educators come with different historical qualifications and educational backgrounds, the majority of which were developed under apartheid structures that deliberately disadvantaged and underdeveloped large sections of the population. This has resulted in major differences in the development needs of educators across the system, particularly with respect to confidence and competence in dealing with the NCS and changes in education on a broader level.

Matoti (2010:58) states that, given the history of education in South Africa, which was characterised by racial segregation, fragmentation and inequalities, change was inevitable when the country’s first democratically elected government came into power in 1994. In line with the vision and mission of the democratic government, a single coordinated education system, together with new educational policies, was introduced. In addition, November, Alexander and Van Wyk (2010:790) argue that the sustained professional growth and personal development of educators are of cardinal importance in creating awareness and a change in mindset regarding meaningful transformation in the education sphere.

The examples from the literature cited above all emphasise the importance of educators being life-long learners, in order to erase the inequalities of the past and in doing so, placing teaching and learning at all schools in South Africa on an even keel. In order to improve the level of education in this country, educators who have been appropriately trained and developed to perform their roles and responsibilities in the constantly changing environment in which they work, are needed.

2.2.2 National policy framework for educator education and development

Steyn (2009:259) maintains that increased learner diversity and social inequalities require skilled educators who must ensure that all learners learn and perform at
appropriate levels. This author refers to the National Policy Framework for Educator Education and Development (NPFTED) as an attempt to address the need for suitably qualified educators in South Africa.

The NPFTED, outlined in a Government Gazette (2007:13), states that the most profound and enduring legacy of the inequalities in South Africa is to be found in education, which is still characterised by poor or non-existent infrastructures and facilities at schools situated in previously disadvantaged areas; a lack of proper amenities, an artificially constructed parallel system of “special” and “ordinary” education, which marginalises and excludes many vulnerable learners; and inadequate training for educators. Schools must respond to such inequalities by preparing and equipping each succeeding generation of learners with the appropriate knowledge, skills and values to understand and overcome such challenges and fulfil their potential and aspirations. Educator education, including professional development, has the vital role of equipping educators to undertake this task.

The report on a research study on professional development in schools conducted by the SACE and the DoE (2008:xvii) states that the NPFTED was developed to address the challenges mentioned above, brought about by the inequalities and injustices of the education system under apartheid. A task team consisting of SACE and DoE members was set up to respond to the policy and develop CPD implementation strategies. The CPD system initiative calls for the introduction of a professional development points systems in which educators are required to accumulate a certain number of points over a three-year cycle. The concept document identifies three priority areas around the professional development points, namely: educator priority activities; school priority activities; and professional priority activities.

SACE and the DoE mandated a pilot study to test the conceptual design and workability of the planned management activities and the allocation and recording of professional development points in a sample of 37 schools in three provinces, namely Kwa-Zulu Natal, the Free State and the Western Cape. The findings of this report indicate that in the overall scheme of things, CPD does not appear to be a priority in the minds of educators in areas where infrastructure is poor, learners are
difficult, resources are minimal and mere survival is the key focus. This, the report states, further emphasises the need to include a broader range of activities as part of the professional development than has been mooted.

Steyn (2008:119) argues that the Policy Framework is a reform initiative aimed at changing the quality of teaching in South Africa, but that its success cannot be guaranteed unless its potential to lead to educators’ professional development has been considered. The NPFTED has compelled provincial and national education departments to make provision for an enabling environment for proper preparation and development of educators. Early and Bubb (2004:3) argue that the prime responsibility for securing the individual CPD of educators is not only the concern of the DoE as the employer, but that educators themselves should play a key role and CPD opportunities must be made available to help educators become better practitioners.

Inasmuch as the CPD of educators in the NPFTED requires of educators to take the initiative in their own development by identifying their own developmental needs and areas in which they need to grow, the role to be played by South African schools is not very clearly defined.

2.3 FURTHER CLARIFICATION OF THE CONCEPT OF CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Before embarking on a discussion of the different aspects of CPD, I will briefly look at some explanations for CPD as found in the body of literature studied and in addition to those given in section 1.5.1.

Both Mestry et al. (2009:477) and Mashile (2002:175) argue that CPD should be a process through which educators review and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching, and through which they acquire and develop their knowledge, skills and attitudes. Mestry et al. (2009:477) and Mashile (2002:175) see CPD as the systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and the development of personal qualities necessary for the education of professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner’s life. In addition,
Steyn (2005:263) emphasises that CPD is concerned with the continuous updating of professional knowledge and skills throughout an educator’s career, requiring self-direction, self-management and sensitivity to development opportunities at work.

Loucks-Horsley, Stiles, Mundry, Love and Hewson (2010:5) state that there is widespread consensus regarding what constitutes CPD. It is directly aligned with learner learning needs, is intensive, ongoing, and connected to practice, focuses on the teaching and learning of specific academic content, is connected to other school initiatives, provides time and opportunities for educators to collaborate and build strong working relationships, and is continuously monitored and evaluated.

According to Day (1999:2), CPD is central to maintaining and enhancing the quality of educators and the leadership role of principals. It includes the largely private, unaided learning from experience through which most educators learn to survive, become competent and develop in classrooms and schools, as well as informal development opportunities of schools and the more formal accelerated learning opportunities available through internally and externally generated in-service education and training activities. This view is supported by Schreuder and Landey (2001:78) in their description of CPD as the process through which the leadership and management skills of education leaders and the teaching and classroom management skills of educators are developed and perfected. Schreuder and Landey (2001:78) further state that all professional development programmes should aim to improve teaching and learning and that these programmes should concentrate on assisting educators in mastering knowledge, applying their skills and adjusting their perceptions.

Similarly, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:130) maintain that CPD helps educators to acquire the most up-to-date knowledge of the subjects they teach and to use techniques that are powerful in enhancing learner learning. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:130) also view CPD as a responsibility to experiment continually, to reflect deliberately on what has happened as a result of the individual or team effort, and to reflect with others on the action of the whole system in order to learn how to improve. They further emphasise that CPD has to be in line with the educator’s own desire to change existing practice. Day and Sachs (2004:292) concur that CPD consists of all
natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities that are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school, and that contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. Day and Sachs (2004:292) emphasise that CPD is the process through which, alone and with others, educators review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching, and by which they acquire and critically develop the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives.

In addition, Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke and Baumert (2010:1) define CPD as “the uptake of formal and informal learning opportunities that deepen and extend educators’ professional competence, including knowledge, beliefs, motivation and self-regulatory skills”. This definition, Richter et al. (2010:1) state, distinguishes formal learning opportunities from informal ones. Formal learning opportunities are defined as structured learning environments with a specified curriculum, such as graduate courses or mandated staff development, which represent a main component of the “training model”. The training model assumes that educators update their knowledge and skills by means of workshops and courses. Informal learning opportunities, in contrast, do not follow a specified curriculum and are not restricted to certain environments. Such opportunities include individual activities such as reading books, classroom observations, collaborative activities, such as conversations with colleagues and parents, mentoring activities, educator networks and study groups.

In summary, based on the explanations provided in the literature, it may be concluded that CPD is a process that provides educators with the necessary opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills; reflect on their own practice; collaborate with their peers/colleagues; and with the necessary support to develop their professional expertise. It is also quite clear from the descriptions given above, that CPD should be continuous and lead to effective teaching and learning at schools.
The aspects regarding the individual educator’s professional confidence and attitude, including *inter alia* emotional intelligence, motivation and self-efficacy, will be discussed in detail in Chapter Three, section 3.2, under the heading concerning the role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD.

2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

It is a well-known fact that worldwide societal changes request of professionals and organisations to develop professionally if they want to meet the challenges and cope with the rapid changes taking place in their work environments. The teaching profession is no exception. It is widely accepted that CPD is the best possible solution to meet the demands that these challenges and changes bring about and that it will greatly benefit both the educator and the school as a whole.

Steyn (2010:541) maintains that both adult learning and constructivist learning theories shed light on understanding adult development and growth in order to support the development of adults’ knowledge and skills. Adults bring numerous life and work experiences, needs, personalities and learning styles to their learning, which also shape their perspectives on learning, education and CPD. Theories of adult learning and development illuminate how adults can be supported when they engage in CPD.

Steyn (2010:541) continues by referring to Knowles’ theory of andragogy, which emphasises that adults are self-directed and expect to take responsibility for decisions. Andragogy makes the following assumptions about the design of learning: (a) adults want to understand why they need to learn something, (b) experiential learning is recommended for adults, (c) adult learning is facilitated by challenging and relevant problem-solving, and (d) adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value. Steyn (2010:541) cites Hirsch (2005) and Lee (2005) as stating that the beliefs and assumptions about adult learning should form the foundation of CPD programmes.
Steyn (2010:541) further claims that constructivist theory suggests that learning is a constructive process in which the learner builds an internal illustration of knowledge, a personal interpretation of experience, and a “sense-making process where the individual builds new knowledge and understanding from the base of existing knowledge and perceptions”. Constructivist approaches can be used to operationalise certain aspects of CPD. The theories referred to by Steyn (2010:541) all serve to place the process of CPD for educators into a proper context and to highlight how this kind of learning influences the individual educator.

The professional development of educators has been studied and prescribed in the different literature in many ways such as the following: Steyn (2010:541), Avalos (2011:10) and Fishman, Best, Foster and Marx (2000:3). However, always at the core of such endeavours is the understanding that professional development is underpinned by educators learning, learning how to learn, and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their learners’ growth. Educator professional learning is a complex process that requires the cognitive and emotional involvement of educators, individually and collectively, the capacity and willingness to examine where each one stands in terms of convictions and beliefs, and the perusal and enactment of appropriate alternatives for improvement or change. All of this occurs in particular educational policy environments or school cultures, some of which are more appropriate for and conducive to learning than others (Avalos, 2011:10).

Similarly, Fishman, Best, Foster and Marx (2000:3) maintain that professional development is fundamentally about educator learning: changes in the knowledge, beliefs and attitudes possessed by educators, which lead to the acquisition of new skills, new concepts, and new processes related to the work of teaching. Citing Richardson (1996), Fishman et al. (2000:3) they state that a chief objective of professional development should be to foster changes in educators’ knowledge, beliefs and attitudes, because these components of educator cognition show a strong correlation to educators’ classroom practices.

This study done by me came to the conclusion that educators should be the authors of their own development, with the necessary assistance from their school
management, the relevant education departments, as well as all other stakeholders in the education community. This study focused on educators’ professional confidence, proposing to devise a strategy to increase educators’ professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD. A mindset change is vitally required amongst educators as well as schools and communities with regard to the importance of professional development for educators. Educators should play a more prominent role in identifying their own developmental needs, as they are in the best position to do so. This places CPD under the umbrella of educational management, with the focus not only on the educator, but also the roles played by the school leadership, as well as the District Office of the DoE, in providing in these identified developmental needs of educators. Schreuder and Landey (2001:78) maintain that the conditions for successful CPD within a school include the following: a positive, democratic school climate that makes it possible for all to participate, motivated and committed staff who wishes to improve their professional skills and a relationship of trust between all those involved in the process of CPD.

As this study used educational management as a framework for CPD, it is imperative to look at what is meant by educational management. Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:65) claim that educational management is an interactive, interrelated process used by educational leaders who manage learning and teaching in schools. The resources available to them include human resources, e.g. learners and educators, physical resources and financial resources, which they must manage as efficiently as possible in order to satisfy educational needs and achieve the outcome of cultivating a culture of teaching and learning. Along the same lines, Thurlow, Bush and Coleman (2003:34) view the core purpose of educational management as facilitating effective learning through effective teaching. In view of all this, it can be said that the quality of educators directly influences the quality of teaching and learning and education in the broader sense; hence, improving the quality of educators through CPD is a vital part of educational management.

Against this background, this study sought to highlight the roles and responsibilities of school leadership, especially of principals, as instructional leaders, to ensure that schools become sites of productive learning by using their leadership skills and abilities. In this regard, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:137) claim that quality
leadership is required for effective CPD in schools. Quality leadership provides an orderly and nurturing environment that supports educators and stimulates their efforts. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:137) further state that a key skill associated with effective leaders is to inspire people to work more effectively and to embrace ownership. Likewise, citing Day (2000), Singh, Manser and Mestry (2007:542) state that principals need to ensure that educators are given opportunities to play participatory roles in the leadership of their schools. The principal needs to provide the support, preparation and guidance for educators to fulfill such a role.

The views stated above all highlight the fact that schools are complex communities with multiple demands, often battling with the challenges of limited resources and inadequate facilities. Time is always at a premium. These factors all indicate that school leaders who lead CPD should give educators the necessary support, develop and follow a clear vision, and understand their own roles in bringing about noticeable and sustainable improvements within their own schools.

2.5 PURPOSES OF CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

*Effective professional development is designed to help teachers meet the specific needs of real students in real classrooms (Thomas B. Corcoran in Loucks-Horsley et al., 2010:82).*

In addition to what was said in Chapter One (1.6.2), this sub-section addresses what the main purpose is why educators should engage in CPD activities, as illustrated by the literature studied.

According to Day and Sachs (2004:12), CPD essentially entails not particular forms of activity, but rather a range of activities – formal and informal – that meet the thinking, feeling, acting, life, context and change purposes of educators over the span of their careers. It concerns the short- and long-term development of the person, the professional and the classroom practitioner and the occupational role he/she portrays. This view is strengthened by Bartell (2005:61), who argues that
CPD should be based on our best knowledge of the principles of adult learning and engage educators in problem-solving and reflection. The Government Gazette (2007:19-20) states that CPD should be enabling and empowering. The design, content and advocacy of a CPD programme must be capable of reassuring educators that they stand to benefit from it. Successful engagement in CPD activities should lead to greater professional confidence, enhanced knowledge, better understanding and improved teaching and class management skills. Similarly, a report compiled by the DoE (2008:3) emphasises that CPD is aimed at bringing about a community of educators who are competent and dedicated to providing education of high quality, with high levels of performance.

According to Nir and Bogler (2008:377), CPD allows educators to develop a new vision that will enrich their teaching experience, enhance and update their teaching skills and practices, change their attitudes, beliefs and perceptions and bring about improvements in their teaching and in their learners’ academic achievements. More specifically, CPD should equip educators with a “toolbox” that will extend their knowledge of subject content, instructional strategies and interpersonal communication skills. In this sense, Nir and Bogler (2008:377) argue, CPD is considered to be a key component in improving school performance and learner outcomes.

Steyn (2008:220) agrees that the ultimate aim of CPD is to enable learners to learn well and equip themselves for further learning and for satisfying lives as productive citizens, for the benefit of their families, their communities and their nation. CPD especially aims to contribute towards the improvement of educators’ teaching skills by equipping them to effectively execute their essential and demanding tasks; to continually improve educators’ professional competence; and to improve the professional status of educators.

The examples from the literature cited above highlight the fact that CPD should present educators with a wide variety of opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills. In this regard, CPD can be viewed as a medium provided to educators to promote their development in a specific area of their career. More importantly,
though, the ultimate aim of CPD should be to improve learner achievement, resulting from educators’ personal and professional growth.

2.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

This sub-section will take a brief look at factors that influence/impact on CPD activities of educators.

According to Day and Sachs (2004:295), matching appropriate professional development provision to particular professional needs is essential to ensure effective CPD. This “fit” between the developmental needs of the educator and the selected activity is critically important in ensuring that there is a positive impact at the school and classroom level. Day and Sachs (2004:295) further state that where staff development opportunities are poorly conceptualised, insensitive to the concerns of individual participants and make little effort to relate learning opportunities to workplace conditions, they make little impact upon educators or their learners. This view is supported by Lessing and De Witt (2007:55) who argue that effective CPD should firstly be aware of and address the needs of educators. Once these needs have been identified, activities need to be properly planned to support educators in applying the knowledge and teaching methodology creatively and confidently. Lessing and De Witt (2007:55) further add that the best results are obtained if the CPD programme is formally and systematically planned and presented, with the focus on the enhancement of personal and professional growth by broadening knowledge and skills and instilling more positive attitudes. Similarly, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:130) state that CPD is most effective when it is an ongoing process that includes suitable properly planned learning programmes and individual follow-up through supportive observation and feedback, staff dialogue and peer coaching.

This idea of firstly identifying educators’ needs and then organising appropriate CPD opportunities has been elaborated on by Bubb and Earley (2009:25), who list the following factors as important in ensuring that CPD leads to improvement:
• The leadership and management of staff development need to be effective.
• People need a clear shared understanding of staff development.
• Schools need to develop a learning-centred culture.
• Individuals’ development should be linked to needs analysis through performance management and career development, as well as self-evaluation and school improvement.
• The goal and reasons must therefore be clear and ultimately should make a difference to learners.
• The quickest and most effective forms of staff development that will provide the best value for money should be chosen based on what will suit individuals.
• Staff development must involve discussing, coaching, mentoring, observing and developing others in order to be highly effective.
• Staff development must be monitored and its impact must be evaluated.
• Learning and development should be shared, acknowledged and celebrated for improvement to be sustained.

Similarly, Bubb and Earley (2009:82) maintain that the most effective types of CPD are perceived to be those that directly meet individual needs. A growing body of research tells us that the kinds of CPD that make the most difference are based on dialogue about teaching and learning and the improvement of practice through a variety of activities, including coaching, mentoring, shadowing and peer support. Citing Joyce and Showers (1980), Bubb and Earley (2009:82) state that for training to be truly effective, it needs to include the following five components or stages:

• Theory – explaining and justifying the new approach.
• Demonstration – presenting a model of how the new approach can be put into practice.
• Practice – staff members must try out the new approach.
• Feedback – reporting back on how well the new approach is working.
• Coaching – helping staff members to discuss teaching and learning in a supportive environment and consider how it may be improved.
Steyn (2010:548) is of the view that successful CPD is embedded in daily practice, is needs based, linked to learner needs, and tailored to meet the specific circumstances or contexts of educators.

From the above, it may be concluded that the nature of CPD requires that, amongst others, a wide variety of programmes be on offer to address the diverse needs experienced by different educators in their respective contexts. This is especially relevant in the South African context, where educators find themselves at different levels in terms of career path, skills, knowledge and other competencies necessary for their profession. It stands to reason that it is expected of the education system to be pro-active and creative in providing opportunities for the professional development of educators, taking into account the different needs of educators, as well as the inequalities that characterise South African schools, due to its history of segregated development prior to 1994, as pointed out in section 2.2.

2.7 KEY FEATURES OF CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In this sub-section, the focus will be on those features that characterise CPD activities, as substantiated by the literature.

Citing Joyce (1980), Livingston and Robertson (2001:187) maintain that CPD must fulfil three needs, namely the social need for an efficient education system capable of adapting to evolving social needs; the need to find ways of helping educators to improve the wider personal, social and academic potential of young people; and the need to develop and encourage the educator’s desire to live a satisfying and stimulating life. The first need concerns the society in which the educator is functioning; the second, the spirit and morale of the school in which the educator is employed; while the third concerns the calibre of educator selected for training and employment. These comments, Livingston and Robertson (2001:187) argue, highlight the multi-dimensional nature of CPD. However, the key person in the system remains the educator. In addition, Steyn (2008:27) argues that the implementation of CPD should acknowledge appropriate approaches to learning, to include the following: more collaboration and interaction between educators; continuous support to educators in schools; more longer-term programmes; and
feedback on educators’ development. Furthermore, it is recommended that accredited CPD programmes should make provision for measuring the results of classroom practice, increased learner performance and the influence of the CPD programme on the development of the school. Steyn (2008:28) cites Lee (2005) as giving the following view on CPD: overall, for the best possible outcomes, a CPD programme should have an appropriate level of challenge and support, provide activities demonstrating new ways to teach and learn, build internal capacity, use a team approach, provide time for reflection, and evaluate the effectiveness and influence of its activities.

As mentioned in Chapter One (section 1.6.3), Mashile (2002:175) highlights four key features of CPD. Firstly, CPD must be continuous and should occur throughout a practitioner’s working life. This is necessary, because the very conception and interpretation of professional tasks and roles change over time. Creating a culture of lifelong learning that encourages participation in CPD and maximises benefits for the individual and the organisation requires an understanding of the attitudes of individuals and organisations, and the development of the right atmosphere and infrastructure within which CPD could be offered. Secondly, CPD must be organisation focused and is necessary for the execution of professional and technical duties. Citing Francis and Mazany (1998), Mashile (2002:175) asserts that the purpose and values of the organisation should always be taken into account when developing CPD activities in order to ensure that the quality and relevance of professional services linked to the particular organisation, in this case, the school, are maintained. Thirdly, CPD activities must be broad based and should develop all aspects of professionals, including their knowledge, skills and personal qualities. Activities should also impact on the professionals’ praxis. Activities that facilitate professionals’ ability or opportunity to improve the way they increase their unique body of knowledge should be provided. This implies that various kinds of learning techniques must be accommodated. Lastly, CPD activities must be structured and should entail a personal development plan that demonstrates the systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of professional capability.

Similarly, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:135) state that Ashworth (1999) has identified the following four key features of learning through CPD:
• Attunement to others’ discourse. The way in which educators participate in CPD programmes from the viewpoint of their own backgrounds should be acknowledged. Educator learning most likely occurs when CPD takes the diverse needs of educators in the specific context of their classrooms into account.

• Sharing emotionally in concerns relevant to learning. An essential feature of participation in CPD programmes is that educators see themselves as having the right to voice their opinions and be listened to.

• Being assured that they can contribute appropriately and worthily. Educators need to feel respected for what they know and can do and they should be treated accordingly.

• Being relatively unthreatened concerning one’s identity. Many educators faced with changes in curricula may feel that their threshold of competence has been threatened by having to adjust their methods. For some, it could be a source of growth, but support and sensitivity, are, however, needed from those initialising and stimulating change.

Considering these key features, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:135) come to the conclusion that different contexts and different learning styles may require different techniques. Therefore, CPD should offer various opportunities for educators to construct their own meaning and theories in a collaborative setting. CPD has to be individualised to the extent that it builds on each educator’s experience and expertise, while also providing the basic knowledge that developing professionals require to succeed.

Loucks-Horsley et al. (2010:57) identify the following features of CPD: It should make useful connections between educators’ existing ideas and new ones; it should provide opportunity for active engagement, discussion and reflection to challenge existing ideas and construct new ones; it should support educators to develop strategies for eliciting prior knowledge and use formative assessment information to guide instruction; and it should develop educators’ understanding of research on learning, so that they become intentional in their selection of effective instructional strategies.
From the literature, it is evident that educators’ CPD is vital in order to provide quality education to learners. As the skills and knowledge of educators may decline and become obsolete as time passes, it becomes critical for educators to be continually involved in CPD, with the view of improving learner performance. The literature also stresses the importance of educators’ commitment to their own development. The challenge for school leaders and educational bodies is therefore to encourage a collaborative culture in which educators become involved in joint activities and discussions, supporting one another and sharing their knowledge and skills, in order to stimulate the professional and personal growth of educators in South Africa. Likewise, Wood and Olivier (2008:249) concur that the development of self-efficacy will not only enable educators to prepare learners for life after school, but also benefit educators in all aspects of their teaching and have a positive influence on them and the school as a whole.

Most of these key features can be used in support of the aim of this study, which seeks to increase and enhance the professional confidence of educators in the Uitenhage area through their involvement in their own CPD.

2.8 PRESENTATION OF CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In this sub-section, I will concentrate on the different formats in which CPD can be presented to educators.

Citing Eraut (1994), Kennedy (2005:236) claims that it is not merely the type of professional knowledge acquired that is important, but the context through which it is acquired and subsequently used that actually helps us understand the nature of that knowledge. Analysing the means through which educators’ CPD is organised and structured, may help us to understand not only the motivation behind such structures, but also the nature of professional knowledge and professionalism itself. In that regard, Drago-Severson (2004:29) cautions that the professional development models employed in schools may not necessarily provide a good match with the developmental level of the educators they are designed to benefit. In some cases, the author states, educators may need to have a self-authoring way of knowing in order to participate effectively in implementation. This means that they must be able
to take stands for what they believe in, exercise authority, act upon their values and beliefs, and take responsibility for themselves and their own work.

2.8.1 Continuous professional development models

Kennedy (2005:237-240) refers to a range of CPD models, some relevant to the Scottish context. I have elected to mention only a few, especially those that are relevant to the South African context.

Firstly, in terms of the Training Model, a skills-based view of teaching is adopted whereby educators are provided with the opportunity to update their skills in order to be able to demonstrate their competence. It is generally delivered to educators by an expert, with the agenda determined by the deliverer and the participants placed in a passive role. This form of training is commonly delivered off-site and is often criticised for its lack of connection to the actual classroom context in which participants work.

The second model is the Award-Bearing Model, which relies on or emphasises the completion of award-bearing programmes of study.

The third model is the Cascade Model, in terms of which individual educators attend training events and then cascade or disseminate the information to colleagues. Kennedy (2005:237-240) cites Solomon and Tresman (1999), suggesting that one of the drawbacks of this model is that what is passed on in the cascading process is generally skills-focused, sometimes knowledge-focused, but rarely value-focused. It could therefore be argued that the Cascade Model supports a technicist view of teaching, in which skills and knowledge are given priority over attitudes and values.

Guskey (2002:383) advocates a model of educator change as illustrated in Figure 2.1. In terms of this model, significant change in educators’ attitudes and beliefs occurs primarily after they have gained evidence of improvements in learner learning. These improvements typically result from changes educators have made in their classroom practices: a new instructional approach; the use of new materials or curricula; or simply a modification in teaching procedures or classroom format. The
The crucial point is that it is not the professional development *per se*, but the experience of successful implementation that changes educators’ attitudes and beliefs. They believe it works because they have *seen* it work, and that experience shapes their attitudes and beliefs. Therefore, in terms of this model, the key element in significant change in educators’ attitudes and beliefs is clear evidence of improvement in the learning outcomes of their learners. This model of change is premised on the idea that change is primarily an experientially based learning process for educators. The need for educators to change their attitudes and beliefs is discussed in detail in Chapter Three, sub-section 3.5, under the heading Change Management.

**FIGURE 2.1: Model of educator change (Guskey: 2002)**

![Model of educator change](image)

### 2.8.2 Modes of delivery

Citing Lieberman, Day and Sachs (2004:13) propose an expanded view of professional learning, locating CPD in three settings, namely:

- **Direct learning** (e.g. conferences, workshops, consultations).
- **Learning in school** (e.g. peer coaching, mentoring, critical friendships, active research, team planning).
- **Learning out of school** (e.g. school-led renewal or reform networks, school-university partnerships, subject or phone-specific networks, professional development centres).

Day and Sachs (2004:13) further state that in the foreseeable future, educators will need to engage with all of these if they are to keep pace with and respond to the challenges in society, the demands of the results-driven standards, agendas of government and at the same time retain their energy, enthusiasm and commitment to high-quality teaching.
Similarly, Bubb and Earley (2009:92) maintain that the range of CPD activities is wide and includes off-site, on-site and close-to-the-site opportunities. These can be categorised into four overlapping groups: individual, within school, cross-school networks, and external. Examples of these groups are the following:

- **Individual** – thinking, reading books, research and enquiry, self-study, keeping a reflective diary.
- **Within school** – working with others, development days, being observed, discussing a lesson, collaborative planning, action research groups, training others, leading working groups.
- **Cross-school networks** – formal and informal networks, training, visiting other schools, networks of local schools or ones set up for a specific project, developing people from other schools.
- **External expertise** – one-day events, longer courses, conferences, working with community groups, universities, subject associations.

According to Bubb and Earley (2009:92), the most successful learning is likely to involve activities from several or all of the above groups, but many adults in schools have confirmed that they learn best through on-the-job training and applying skills in real-life situations – from the workplace more than from the workshop.

Another mode of delivery for CPD programmes is that of mentorship. Van Louw and Waghid (2008:211) have elaborated on this aspect of CPD. With regard to the fundamental nature of mentorship, it is evident that the strategy is mostly described as one where a more experienced person supports a less experienced person in a profession or career development process. The relationship between mentor and mentee is regarded as intense and focuses on the psycho-social development of the protégé, in addition to professional development. The role of the mentor seems to be a complex one, encompassing various sub-roles that include *inter alia*, that of coach, role model, guide, a wise and patient counselor, and a gifted and experienced roleplayer.

Citing Hopkins-Thompson (2000), Van Louw and Waghid (2008:211) state that mentors transfer wisdom with regard to norms, values and morals of organisations.
and support mentees through mediation, counseling and support, while providing information that mentees would otherwise not have been able to access. Van Louw and Waghid (2008:211) further refer to the statements of Wasden and Daresh (1995) regarding the mentor as a master who provides opportunities for growth by identifying situations and events that will contribute to enhancing the knowledge and experience of mentees and help them recognise and deal with dangerous situations. This topic will be addressed in section 3.3.3.

Although there are various other modes of delivery of CPD available to educators, this study elected to concentrate on only a few of them. One other mode of delivery of CPD is educator learning communities, which will be broadly discussed in section 3.2.4. Maistry (2008:134) argues that collaborative initiatives that manifest themselves in educator learning communities, allow educators to participate more in decisions that affect them. They also allow educators to share pressures and burdens that result from policy changes. While collaboration may at first glance suggest an increase in the quantity of educators’ tasks, it is likely to make educators feel less overloaded if their tasks are viewed as being more meaningful and the educators have high collective control and ownership of them. This author cites Hargreaves as maintaining that CPD based on the principles of social practice theory minimises the uncertainties faced by educators and is likely to create situated certainties and collective professional confidence among particular communities of educators.

The questions this study are faced with, are: If educators are exposed to all or most of these modes of delivery of CPD activities, why are some educators lacking professional confidence? Why do the results of the Grade 12 examinations not reflect a well-developed and suitably equipped teaching force? It is evident that the answers to these questions will only be known after an in-depth investigation through data collection, an analysis of the data collected, and a summary of the findings provided by the data analysis. All of this will be addressed in Chapter Four, which covers the methodology of this study.

However, from the literature studied, one may conclude that it is imperative for educators to be directly involved in their own professional development. In order for
CPD programmes to be successful, it needs to be personally meaningful to the participating educators. The challenge for school leadership therefore is to find ways and means of understanding what the educators want and what they regard as meaningful, and to design CPD programmes that address the educators’ needs. This in effect means that educators need to be not only involved in the planning of CPD programmes, but that such programmes must be in line with educators’ personal circumstances and serve as motivation for these educators to develop professionally. Educators will only change if they deem it necessary to change and if they see some benefit in the changes confronting them.

2.9 CONCLUSION

Based on the views expressed in the body of literature studied for the purpose of this chapter, it may be deduced that the individual educator is key in his/her own CPD.

This chapter discussed in broad detail the various aspects of the CPD of educators, in order to ascertain how these aspects influence the professional and personal growth of any educator. These aspects included, amongst others: the importance of CPD, the historical background against which South African educators have to develop, clarification of CPD, the theoretical framework that underpins CPD, the purpose of CPD, factors influencing CPD, key features of CPD, as well as the different models and modes of delivery of CPD available to educators.

The vast array of CPD activities available to educators are all aimed at enhancing the education of learners, whilst at the same time leading to the professional and personal growth of the educators. CPD activities should make provision for the developmental opportunities of educators, thereby ensuring their continuous growth.

In reviewing the literature on the various aspects of CPD, this chapter served to orientate the reader on what the CPD of educators entails.

The next chapter will focus on the importance of policies, as well as the role of school management and individual educators in supporting educators in the CPD process.
CHAPTER THREE

STAKEHOLDERS IN AND POLICIES ON CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATORS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Educators should be the authors of their own CPD, but this does not necessarily mean that other stakeholders can abdicate their responsibility regarding educators’ professional development. All stakeholders, including the individual educators, the school leadership as well as the District Office of the DoE, should take responsibility for the professional development of educators. Of paramount importance for educators’ CPD is the provision of an enabling environment, supported by the school and the Education Department.

Glover and Law (2002:150) claim that schools that reflect and achieve successful and continuing professional development are hooked into a system that provides the following:

• An annual review of school, departmental and individual needs.
• A synoptic view of all that was being sought, matched to the aims and objectives of the school.
• A programme that addressed both generic and subject-based skills.
• A programme that provides opportunities for reflection and development, without the pressure to introduce change until it has been tried, evaluated, refined and adequately explained.

Likewise, Heystek et al. (2008:173) maintain that in order to achieve continuity in professional development, schools should conduct their own professional development programmes. It is crucial that the principal and the heads of department (SMT) view professional development within the school as their responsibility. The SDT, who is responsible for the professional development activities of educators, as mentioned in section 1.8.2, should work hand in hand with the SMT in coordinating professional development activities for the educators. Citing Du Plessis (2007),
Heystek *et al.* (2008:173) maintain that educators and administrators need to work in teams, conduct action research, participate in seminars, coach one another and plan lessons together. Supervisors form a crucial link in the successful transfer of knowledge and skills to the work setting. This implies that in-service training conducted internally should link with and perpetuate mandated professional development programmes. In addition, Drago-Severson (2004:42) states that many principals across school types and resource level, emphasise their roles as “orchestrators”, “supporters”, “bridges”, and/or “encouragers” of educator learning. Nearly all voice the importance of “modeling lifelong learning”. This, in their view, helps educators become more effective, increases their satisfaction, supports them in acclimating to change, and decreases educator isolation. Some of the principals achieve this by both creating structures within the school and supporting educators as they embark on learning experiences outside of the school.

The following sub-sections will describe in detail the different roles and responsibilities of the various stakeholders in the CPD of educators, under the relevant headings.

### 3.2 ROLE OF THE INDIVIDUAL EDUCATOR

If the individual educator has to be the author of his/her own CPD, it is important for this study to investigate why this is important, what the benefits are that CPD holds for educators, why some educators are not taking an interest in their own CPD, what the things are that educators need in order to develop both professionally and personally and, most importantly, what needs to be done to get educators to boost their own professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD. All of these issues will be elaborated on in the different sub-headings under the role of the individual educator.

According to Livingston and Robertson (2001:193-194), it is essential that educators have the opportunity to have a central role in making decisions about their own professional development. They claim that CPD must not be something that is “done” to educators: educators should accept ownership of it. The individual needs of educators should not be forgotten or lost in an overly systematic structure.
3.2.1 Some professional characteristics of educators

3.2.1.1 Professional confidence

As the title of this study refers to increasing educators’ professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD, it stands to reason that this investigation should touch on the issue of educators’ professional confidence.

Tomlinson (2004:3) states that in recognising an educator’s competencies that have to be managed, it is important that the “change of self by self” be viewed as the only basis for profound change. This entails “changes in self-awareness”. What it suggests, is a central focus on “the concepts of self-image (how we see ourselves); self-esteem (the value we place on ourselves); and self-efficacy (our beliefs about being able to bring about successful results)”. Citing Schlager and Fusco (2003), Gouda and Banks (2006:104) similarly highlight that much of what educators need to know is learnt in the context of practice. Through practice, many educators are seen to develop a sense of capability to perform their job “successfully”. This is referred to as professional confidence, which is considered part of professional identity. Citing Brown, O’Mara and Hunsberger (2003), Gouda and Banks (2006:104) point out that professional confidence is seen to be developmental, dynamic, complex and essential for carrying out the role in the profession. Educators are considered to develop professional confidence as a result of inter alia doing the job for a considerable period of time, experiencing different situations and problems and dealing with different types of learners. In addition, Mushayikwa and Lubben (2009:375-379) claim that over the years the focus in professional development has shifted from content knowledge to teaching practice to educator professionalism and context. Thus, the provision of professional development changed from external expertise to empowerment. By empowering educators, professional developers encourage them to take the initiative in identifying and acting on their own individual needs. This simply means that an educator has to cultivate professional confidence in order to become professionally competent.
3.2.1.2 Professional identity

In my opinion, an educator has to have enough professional confidence in order to be able to define, accept and be comfortable with what is known as professional identity.

O’Connor (2008:117-118) claims that by making the choice to care for their learners, educators are able to construct and maintain a sense of professional identity that agrees with their philosophical or humanistic beliefs about the teaching role. Professional identities are regarded as the means by which individual educators negotiate and reflect on the socially situated aspects of their role. Educator’s individual beliefs about their role in caring for learners form a vital part of their professional identity. Similarly, Sachs (2001:154) states that for educators, professional identity is mediated by their own experience both inside and outside of schools, as well as their own beliefs and values about what it means to be an educator and the type of educator they aspire to be.

It seems evident from the body of literature that educators must first establish their own professional identity in order to be able to become effective role models to the learners in their charge. This is in line with the objective of this study, namely to design a strategy to bring about increased levels of professional confidence for educators by greater levels of involvement in their own CPD.

Subsequently, the study will look at how educators’ professional attitude has a bearing on their professional identity and how this relates to their level of professional confidence.

3.2.1.3 Professional attitude

Citing Van Eckelen, Vermunt and Boshuizenn, Mushayikwa and Lubben (2009:376) describe the will to learn as characterised by “having the ambition to discover new practices, being open to experiences and other people, being pro-active, attribution of success and failure in terms of internal causes, question-asking after performance, undertaking action to learn, and recognition of learning processes and results”.

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Similarly, Steyn (2010:539) maintains that a crucial factor for educators’ successful CPD appears to be the ability of educators at all levels to learn and be receptive in their work. From these examples, one may safely deduce that in order for educators to grow professionally, they have to display the proper professional attitude towards CPD – meaning that educators must be willing to learn and should be receptive to the various CPD activities in which they are expected to participate. Thus, in order to improve educators’ performance in schools, it is essential that school leaders and other stakeholders in education pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances educators’ professional attitude.

The next important aspect of an individual educator’s professional journey is the issue of his/her practical knowledge, or knowledge of the practice of teaching. This will be discussed in section 3.2.2 below.

3.2.2 Practical knowledge

The ongoing expansion of professional knowledge and skills forms a vital part of the continuing professional development of educators. According to Gouda and Banks (2006:105), educators’ confidence in their personal practical knowledge develops through the professional journey, whatever the current level of his/her professional knowledge base.

Fichtman-Dana and Yendol-Hoppey (2008:2-4) mention three types of knowledge educators may possess e.g. knowledge for practice is often reflected in traditional professional efforts when a trainer shares with educators information produced by educational researchers. Given that research can wisely inform teaching practice, this knowledge for practice generated by an outside source is useful to educator growth, but not sufficient. Knowledge for practice may suggest a potential solution for a generic learning dilemma, but offers little insight into how to implement that solution within educators’ specific classroom contexts. In most cases, educators need support as they transfer that newly acquired knowledge in the learning process within their classrooms. The problem with relying solely on professional development focused on knowledge for practice is that these research-based practices are not easily transferable to a specific classroom context.
Fichtman-Dana and Yendol-Hoppey (2008:3) are of the view that educators should also cultivate knowledge in practice. This type of knowledge is apparently generated as educators test out their new knowledge for practice gained from traditional professional development training. As educators apply this new knowledge, they construct knowledge in practice by engaging in their daily work within the classroom and school. This knowledge in practice is strengthened through collaboration with peers.

Thirdly, knowledge of practice emphasised that through systematic inquiry, “educators make problematic their own knowledge and practice as well as the knowledge and practice of others”. Educators create this kind of knowledge as they focus on raising questions about and systematically studying their own classroom teaching. Fichtman-Dana and Yendol-Hoppey (2008:4) argue that educators interested in constructing knowledge of practice receive support as they collaboratively inquire with colleagues about how their own teaching practice may hamper the learning that takes place in their classrooms. For example, educators may work in study groups to uncover hidden agendas and explore issues that may influence the learning within their school. Throughout the past several decades, there have been suggestions that new approaches to professional development should acknowledge all three types of knowledge. This could enhance professional growth that would lead to real change. Subsequently, educators need to constantly reflect whether they are adequately knowledgeable about their teaching practice, and if this knowledge is being implemented in the different areas of their teaching careers. The following section addresses the issue of educators as reflective practitioners.

3.2.3 Educator as reflective practitioner

It is important that educators, in their quest to continually develop professionally, critically reflect on their teaching practice and look at issues that may influence the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.

An educator who is reflective is one who “examines, frames and attempts to solve the dilemmas of classroom practice; is aware of and questions the assumptions and
values he or she brings to teaching; is attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches; takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts; takes responsibility for his or her own professional development” (Adler & Reed, 2002:121).

Likewise, Bartell (2005:117) maintains that teaching that is reflective is done in a deliberate, thoughtful manner that is hardly routine or formulaic. Reflective educators make conscious choices and are able to articulate why they make these choices. They examine and scrutinise their own practice. They analyse their learners’ work and progress and adapt their instructional approach based on that analysis.

Citing Valli (1997), Bartell (2005:131) categorises approaches to educator reflection as follows:

- Technical reflection: Focuses on specified domains of teaching techniques and skills and their application. Educators reflect on how they are doing against specified criteria.
- Reflection in action and reflection on action: Focuses on having educators look back on experiences and events in the classroom and encourage them to think critically about these occurrences and events.
- Deliberate reflection: Emphasises decision making, based on a variety of sources that may include research, experience, educator advice, personal beliefs and values. Educators make decisions after gathering and analysing evidence.
- Personalistic reflections: Focus on educators’ personal growth and relational issues. Personal self-awareness and development is central in this approach. Educators think about their own progress in the light of their own background, training and experience. They get to know their learners as persons – what motivates them and what is important in their lives.
- Critical reflection: Based on concepts about beliefs about what is good or desirable. Political, social and ethical questions about schooling are examined. The quality of educator reflection is determined by the
educator’s ability to apply ethical criteria to the goals and processes of schooling.

On the other hand, Moore (2004:105) refers to five “sites” of reflective practice as follows:

- Thinking about your practice on your feet – that is to say, reflection in action.
- Solitary “in-the-head” retrospective reflections on lessons or events carried out some time after the lesson has been taught.
- Evaluations (usually written, usually carried out after individual lessons, confined to individual lessons and focusing on learner and educator performance).
- Intra-professional verbalised reflections carried out in the company of others in the same community of practice (for example, other educators or beginner educators, not necessarily working at the same school).
- Extra-professional verbalised reflections carried out in the company of selected support networks (for example, family or friends working in other occupations).

Steyn (2009:267) is of the opinion that it is the responsibility of each individual educator to continually experiment, deliberately reflect on what has happened as a result of his or her individual effort or a team effort, and to reflect with others on the teaching and learning process, in order to learn how to improve his or her teaching career. According to Osterman and Kottkamp (2004:66), reflective practice is a valuable process for schools. Osterman and Kottkamp (2004:66) maintain that reflective practice should be an integral part of the educational setting. To engage in reflective practice requires trust and openness of communication. It requires people to be willing to analyse their own behaviour and explore thoughts, feelings and actions. Reflective practice can be learned and integrated into professional practice on an individual as well as a collective basis. Citing Dewey (1997), Dymoke and Harrison (2008:14) similarly contend that reflective action stems from the need to solve a problem and involves “the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it”. Dewey further proposes a five-step model of problem-solving, which includes
suggesting solutions, posing questions, hypothesising, reasoning and testing. These together form a sequential process for reflective thinking.

In addition, Drago-Severson (2009:155) is of the opinion that engaging in reflective practice should be seen as a learning tool for individuals and schools. Improving one’s teaching, which means paying attention to one’s emotional and intellectual well-being and development, is one main goal of reflective practice. When educators engage in reflective practice, they have the opportunity to become aware of their own as well as others’ thinking and assumptions. This awareness can, in turn, clarify thinking and help educators to better understand their own behaviour, leading to growth. Citing York-Barr (2001), Drago-Severson (2009:155) claim that the ultimate goal of collective reflective practice is increased learner learning. All professionals need to reflect on their practice and experiences if they are to grow and develop constantly. To encourage educators to be reflective, they should be required to write about their learning experiences. When educators record what they have learnt, what they are still unsure of, how they are implementing different teaching strategies and how they can change their teaching practices, their reflections become a tool for their own professional development, and their mega-cognitive studies are enhanced (Kriek & Grayson, 2009:192).

It would seem from the body of literature consulted, that professional development should provide opportunities for educators to reflect critically on their teaching careers by discussing their achievements and problems as they employ new strategies. Furthermore, educators’ ownership of what is happening in their classrooms should become a driving force for their own CPD. Educators should play the biggest role in identifying their own development needs, as they are best positioned to do so, but at the same time they should also be assisted in going about effecting this professional development.

Finally, educators should realise that professional growth cannot take place if they work in isolation. Therefore, the next section will focus on the importance of communities of practice, in which educators learn with and through other educators.
3.2.4 Communities of practice

The various examples cited in literature all emphasise the importance of educators frequently, continuously, talking about their teaching practice, as well as observing one another in the practice of teaching and working collaboratively on curriculum issues. Therefore, the issue of communities of practice will be discussed to highlight how educators can benefit from it.

Maistry (2008:364) is of the opinion that educator development through participation in educator communities of practice is a relatively new phenomenon in South African educator education. Locating educator professional development activities within a community of practice, supported by access to quality resources and expert input from Higher Education Institutes, offers much potential for advancing the educator professional development agenda in South Africa. Communities of practice originated in response to several barriers to professional development that exist in the culture of schooling, such as the isolated nature of teaching and the lack of agreement as to what constitutes acceptable practices. Citing Wideman and Owston (2003), Maistry (2008:364) suggests that communities of practice are seen to be vital in sustaining and expanding the momentum of change. It is important to value the learning that takes place in communities of practice, by making time and resources available for their work, encouraging participation and removing barriers.

In the same vein, Steyn (2008:24) maintains that approved professional development programmes should be differentiated to meet the learning needs and learning styles of all educators and, more importantly, to encourage collective learning in communities of practice. Effective professional development programmes require the isolation that permeates teaching to be broken down, so that educators can work together as professionals and assist in developing their schools. This collaboration will contribute towards the development of a positive school culture that is committed to change and the creation of better learning opportunities for all. Collaboration amongst educators utilises their strengths, knowledge and skills, whilst also stimulating reflection and broadening perspectives – this gives rise to more effective teaching and ownership of their professional learning. Steyn (2008:25) cites Wenger (2000) as stating that communities of practice are a prerequisite for learning. The
value of participation to the community and the educator lies in becoming part of the community and experience a sense of belonging. Moving towards full participation involves greater commitment of time, intensified effort and more responsibility within the community with more difficult tasks and an increasing sense of identity as a master educator. Steyn (2008:25) also cites Lee (2005), who in line with Wenger’s reasoning, who believes that professional development programmes designed for groups of educators from the same school generate several benefits. Educators can share experiences, skills and problems encountered during the development programme. In addition, the professional development approach is receptive to educators’ needs and goals and how they learn, whilst also promoting the goals of the school. It also has a greater influence on changing educators’ practice.

Maistry (2008:122) provides the following brief outline of Wenger’s social practice theory. The work of theorist Etienne Wenger (1998) has much significance for understanding educator learning in a community of practice. Wenger (1998) argues that educators should adopt a perspective that places learning in the context of our lived experience of participation in the world. Learning is as much part of human nature as eating or sleeping. Learning is a “fundamentally social phenomenon”. Wenger’s four main assumptions about learning are as follows:

• People are social beings.
• Knowledge entails competence with respect to valued enterprises.
• Knowing involves participating in the pursuit of such enterprises.
• Meaning is the eventual product of learning and refers to our ability to experience the world and our engagement with it as meaningful.

Wenger’s theory is on “learning as participation”, i.e. learners being active participants in the practice of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities. For communities, it means refining their practice and ensuring new generations of members. Learning is an integral part of our daily lives and is represented by our participation in our communities and organisations. In addition, Kennedy (2005:244) states that Wenger (1998) contends that learning within communities of practice involves three processes, namely:
• Evolving forms of mutual engagement.
• Understanding and tuning their enterprise.
• Developing their repertoires, styles and discourses.

According to Kennedy, Wenger’s social theory of learning recognises that learning within a community of practice happens as a result of that community and its interactions, and not merely as a result of planned learning episodes, such as courses. Depending on the role played by the individual as a member of the wider team, learning within such a community could either be a positive and proactive or a passive experience, in which the collective wisdom of dominant members of the group shapes the other individuals’ understanding of the community and its roles (Maistry, 2008:122).

Citing Little (1981), Fichtman-Dana and Yendol-Hoppey (2008:23) state that four specific behaviours characterise the conditions of a community of practice. Firstly, educators must have frequent, continuous, concrete and precise talk about their teaching practice. Secondly, they should observe each other engaged in the practice of teaching and administration and serve as critical friends to each other as they talk about those observations. Thirdly, educators are expected to be collaboratively working on the curriculum by planning, designing, researching and evaluating their curriculum work. Fourthly, educators must become comfortable sharing their new craft knowledge by teaching each other what they have learned.

Professional learning communities are associated with both changed educator practices and a changed professional culture by embedding continuous educator learning into that culture. Simply being a “member of a community of practitioners” provides meaning and context to educators’ learning experiences. Rather than educator collaboration simply being a contextual variable that enhances individual change and growth, it also nurtures and supports learning and change in the community. It is the culture of the community that contributes to both individual and group changes and learning (Loucks-Horsley et al., 2010:142).

From the various sources of literature studied, it is evident that professional communities of learning hold many benefits for the individual educator wishing to
grow professionally. These learning communities not only allow educators to participate more in decisions that affect them, but it also allows them to share the pressures and burdens that emanate from everyday teaching. It would also seem as if these learning communities give educators ownership of their own learning, and as such, enhance their professional confidence.

3.3 ROLE OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The professional development of educators has been widely accepted as crucial to school improvement, and as such, is seen as a core task of the management and leadership of the school. Any SMT who wishes its school to produce healthy, positive learner outcomes and who values the educators of the school, will make a concerted effort to ensure that the school is an enabling environment in educators’ CPD.

Leadership plays a significant role in establishing the overall health of a school. There is a positive relationship between a principal’s actions and an educator’s affective outcomes, such as feelings of trust, respect, job satisfaction, empowerment and perceived principal effectiveness (Steyn, 2005:269). In addition, Zepeda (2003:1) states that the principal must be in a position to promote the continuous learning and development of educators who are challenged to teach learners to higher standards of accountability. Zepeda (2003:1) cites Tirozzi (2001) as maintaining that “the principals of tomorrow’s schools must be instructional leaders who possess the requisite skills, capacities and commitment to lead the accountability parade, not follow it”. Likewise, Drago-Severson (2009:18) states that principals are responsible for creating conditions that nurture educators’ growth in schools. To be effective leaders, principals need to understand what makes for effective professional learning that supports educator development. Principals must allocate resources to support school-based and job-embedded professional development for educators.

The following matters will thus be discussed under these headings, namely: emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, mentoring of educators, motivation of educators and leadership development.
3.3.1 Emotional intelligence

In order for any principal to meet the challenges posed by managing a school, it is important that he/she understands the notion of emotional intelligence. It is for this reason that this section addresses the issue of emotional intelligence, in order to highlight how it may influence the principal’s role in the CPD of educators.

Lambert (2003:44) refers to Goleman (1995) as suggesting that one of the critical elements of a healthy leadership perspective is emotional intelligence. An emotionally intelligent principal is self-motivating and empathetic, persistent in pursuing the goal of educating all learners, and manages his emotions and stress so as not to lose sight of his core values and commitments. This individual is able to create an organisational climate of trust, information sharing, healthy risk-taking and learning. Similarly, Davies (2009:47) argues that emotional intelligence in leaders is displayed through the personal attention devoted to an employee (in this case the educator) and the use of that employee’s capacities, increasing levels of enthusiasm and optimism, reducing frustration, transmitting a sense of mission, and indirectly increasing performance. In addition, Tomlinson (2004:22) is of the opinion that emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive, integrate, understand and reflectively manage one’s own and other people’s feelings. The author cites Cooper as defining emotional intelligence in leadership as the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power of and acumen about emotions as a source of energy, drive, information, trust, influence and creativity. It entails accessing untapped individual, team and organisational capacity under pressure that leads to improved importance. Bush and Middlewood (2005:198) maintain that the task of the principal is to recognise that all educators are different and have different aspirations, both personally and professionally. These differences must not only be recognised, but celebrated so that any achievement in learning and development by an educator can be reinforced.

According to Singh et al. (2007:541), emotional intelligence has become a vital part of how today’s leaders meet the significant challenges they face. Emotional
intelligence can assist leaders in an ever more difficult leadership role. Singh et al. (2007:541) cite Gardner and Stough (2002) as stating that for educators to reach a level of job satisfaction that produces high levels of efficiency and effectiveness, principals must demonstrate very specific emotionally intelligent behaviours and leadership skills. Singh et al. (2007:542) further cite Day (2000) as maintaining that successful school leaders are recognised as those who, in order to ensure that their schools provide relevant learning opportunities, engage in reflective practices to maintain staff satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Those who are emotionally intelligent connect quite smoothly with people, are astute in reading their reactions and feelings, lead and organise, and are able to handle disputes that are bound to flare up. They are the natural leaders, the people who can express the unspoken collective sentiment and articulate it so as to guide a group towards its goals. They are emotionally nourishing and they leave people in a good mood. Emotional intelligence is the most important factor in achieving success, seeing that high levels of achievement, success and happiness are self-defined and directed. These views are echoed by Calitz, Fuglestad and Lillejord (2002:54), who are of the opinion that effective leadership is linked to emotional intelligence, which is exemplified in the leader’s self-confidence and self-awareness, integrity, enthusiasm and drive, empathy and social skills.

3.3.2 Transformational leadership

As highlighted in the topic, this study is aimed at bringing about greater professional confidence for educators by improving their involvement in their own CPD. In discussing the role of school leadership in realising this goal, it is imperative that the study looks at transformational leadership and how it serves to lead principals to support educators throughout the process of their continuing professional development. Therefore, this sub-section will examine the issue of transformational leadership and how it influences educators’ CPD.

Drago-Severson (2004:21-25) refers to Kegan’s (1994) constructive-developmental theory as being necessary to interpret principals’ practices that support transformational learning. Before embarking on a review of the literature on
transformational learning, this study will give an overview of Kegan’s constructive-developmental theory, as reflected in Drago-Severson (2004:23-29).

According to Drago-Severson (2004:23-29), the constructive-developmental theory offers tools for understanding and reviewing leadership practices and models of educator development that can inform practice. The basic principles of Kegan’s constructive developmental theory are based on two key ideas: (a) that people construct – or actively make sense of – the reality in which they live (with regard to cognitive, interpersonal and intrapersonal development); and (b) that people (and their constructions of reality) can change or develop over time with developmentally appropriate supports and challenges. The first basic principle of constructive-developmental theory is that growth and development are lifelong processes. A person’s meaning system – through which all experiences are filtered and understood – is referred to as a way of knowing, a developmental level, an order of consciousness, or a stage. The second basic principle of the constructive developmental theory is that development involves a qualitative change in the ways in which a person makes sense of or constructs his/her experience, rather than the acquisition of more skills and knowledge. A person’s way of knowing dictates how learning experiences will be taken in, managed, handled, used and understood. For instance, a way of knowing shapes how a person understands his/her role and responsibilities as a educator, leader and how that person thinks what makes a good leader and what constitutes a good staff member.

Drago-Severson (2004:28) further states that understanding Kegan’s theory of constructive development will help us understand the developmental basis of principals’ practices, as well as how educators may experience participation in programmes aimed at supporting their learning. This theory suggests that educators at different developmental positions will experience learning opportunities differently – depending on their way of knowing. The constructive-developmental theory provides a new way of thinking about supporting educator growth. It involves more than merely giving information and/or developing skills; it also attends to how individuals cognitively organise their experiences and to ways in which transformational learning can be facilitated. A developmental perspective provides a lens through which to view and understand people’s attitudes, behaviours and
expectations and helps to understand how to support and challenge growth for individuals at diverse levels of perception. Principals who are mindful of and attend to this developmental diversity will be better equipped to support educator learning.

According to Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:137), quality leadership is required for effective CPD in schools. Quality leadership provides an orderly and nurturing environment that supports educators and stimulates their efforts. A skill associated with an effective leader is inspiring people to work more effectively and to obtain ownership. Current trends in leadership reflect a shift from bureaucratic managerial styles to leadership styles that reflect human dignity and promote collaboration in decision-making. If principals do not share leadership with educators, development and staff empowerment will be unlikely to take place. Transformational forms of leadership fundamentally aim to make events meaningful, cultivate professional development and higher levels of commitment to organisational goals on the part of staff. These authors cite Yu, Leithwood and Jantzi as using a model that includes various transformational leadership dimensions that could influence educator commitment and have an effect on CPD. These dimensions and their usefulness, they claim, are also supported by other researchers. The dimensions are:

• Charismatic leadership. This type of leadership provides a vision and a sense of mission. Charismatic leaders are able to exert a profound influence on staff by means of their personality, abilities, personal charm, magnetism, inspiration and emotion.

• Cultivating the acceptance of cooperative goals. Principals play a major role in transforming norms, values, beliefs and assumptions of staff and subsequently affect the way in which they make decisions.

• Creating high performance expectations. This refers to leaders’ expectations of excellence, quality and high performance on the part of staff members.

• Providing individualised support. The way in which educators are supported through the process of change is important.

• Offering intellectual stimulation. This kind of stimulation challenges educators to re-examine certain assumptions of their practices and rethink what they could accomplish.
• Strengthening school culture. Without effective leadership, in particular transformational leadership, efforts to change school culture and influence educator commitment will most likely fail. Such behaviour encourages educator commitment through their effect on educators’ understanding of the shared goals (Yu et al. in Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2005:137).

In addition, Davies (2009: 38-47) argues that all transformational approaches to leadership emphasises emotions and values, and share the fundamental aim of fostering capacity development and higher levels of personal commitment to organisational goals on the part of educators. Increased capacities and commitments are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity. Transformational leaders create conditions in their schools that support and sustain the performance of educators, as well as learners. This set of practices acknowledges the importance of collective or organisational learning and the building of professional learning communities as key contributors to educators’ work and learner learning.

3.3.3 Mentoring of educators

The onus is on the school leadership to ensure that mentoring takes place in the school. This should be done by creating an environment conducive to educators being mentored by those with the necessary expertise and knowledge. The school leadership should set the example by acting as mentors to those aspiring to acquire a leadership role in the school. Mentoring should form an integral part of the professional developmental activities initiated by the school. By ensuring that those who need mentoring receive it, the school leadership will be contributing to the professional as well as the personal growth of all staff members. This will result in a positive school climate in which everyone is willing to create a progressive culture of teaching and learning.

Moon, Butcher and Bird (2000:97-98) argue that mentoring in education can be characterised in a variety of ways. One view of mentoring sees it as a framework of positive support by skilled and experienced practitioners to other practitioners who need to acquire complex new skills. This model is based on the mentor as “guide” or
“interpreter”, providing access to the craft of the classroom through collaborative teaching, modeling, observation and discussion. Another view is linked to the system of pre-service training. A mentor who systematically and actively helps a learner educator reach a threshold in a set of pre-defined professional competencies is perceived as an instructor, trainer or coach. A third view of mentoring recognises that growth in teaching is a process over time. A mentor focuses on learning rather than teaching, and engages in co-enquiry to encourage reflection on teaching as a process. This reflective model incorporates a more crucial element in the mentoring process to move educators from novice through to expert status. Such a conceptualising of mentoring utilises an open-minded challenge to confront beliefs and values, as well as support. Inevitably, elements from all three interpretations come together in the process, underpinning mentoring in professional development.

Similarly, Drago-Severson (2004:123-124) view mentoring as a reciprocal learning opportunity, meaning that both the mentor and mentee benefit from the mentoring, because both learn as a result of the relationship. Acting as a mentor is a leading role and mentoring creates opportunities for the perspective broadening and examination of assumptions. Mentoring is distinct in three ways: Firstly, mentoring allows for leadership roles that are less public and formal, offering leadership opportunities to those who may prefer a more private setting. Secondly, mentoring is often used to introduce new members of a community to the school, to foster their belonging and ownership of the mission in a more social and less pedagogical setting. Thirdly, mentoring typically operates in one-on-one relationships, versus collegial inquiry, which primarily occurs in groups. In addition, Cunningham (2005:123) refers to the following recommendations for mentors: mentoring should be developed and promoted as a supportive and developmental process; mentors should have job descriptions that clarify their role; mentoring and observation should apply to all educators (full-time as well as part-time); mentoring should be part of the school management/leadership’s commitment to improving quality and raising standards of teaching and learning; mentors should be best-practice practitioners; teaching observations should be used to identify educators who are strong role models to become mentors; mentors should be formally trained; mentors should be either paid for mentoring or given time to carry out the job; mentoring should be used
to increase the sharing of good practice; mentors need to be successful practitioners with strong interpersonal skills.

In reflecting with new educators, experienced educators are often required to examine their own practice in a more thoughtful and critical way. They are called upon to explain what they do and why they do it in a certain way. Mentors have also indicated that the training they received to serve in the role has increased their own understanding of practice. For many who have been teaching for a number of years, the opportunity to learn about the latest educational ideas and practices is invigorating. The most effective programmes offer opportunities for continued meetings and discussions among mentors. In these discussions, mentors share their successes and challenges and continue to focus on their own development (Bartell, 2005:81). November et al. (2010:787) state that in their roles as agents of change and leaders of learning within their schools, principals are expected to expand their school’s capacities to learn democratic values by creating learning communities that collaboratively solve problems facing their schools. As internal change agents, school principals are expected to initiate, facilitate and implement change with regard to democratic school practices. Educators, on the other hand, are assets who appreciate in value through knowledge, skills and experience, which can be acquired by means of professional development training sessions.

3.3.4 Motivation of educators

Based on the fact that this study is aimed at bringing about a strategy that will increase educators’ professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD, the issue of the motivation of educators will be addressed in this section. Educators cannot be expected to perform well and deliver good results if they are not well motivated. Therefore, the onus is on the school leadership to create an environment that motivates educators to continually develop themselves, professionally as well as personally.

Heystek et al. (2008:79), as well as Heystek, Roos and Middlewood (2005:38-39), all agree that motivation is the force that energises behaviour, gives direction to behaviour and forms the basis of people’s tendency to persevere, even when faced
by challenges. Heystek et al. (2008:79), as well as Heystek et al. (2005:38-39) further state that, in order to understand the concept of motivation, we need to be made aware of the nature of motivation and the factors affecting it. Motivation, they claim, is needed to achieve long-term goals and must therefore be considered with the culture and climate of the school, as well as the changes and resistance being encountered. All these authors argue that motivation is essentially an individual phenomenon, but there is no simple way to ensure that everyone is motivated. As motivation is a long term activity, it needs proper planning on the part of school leadership.

Heystek et al. (2005:39) further refer to McClelland’s (1987) work on high achievers as leading us to believe that his theory of high achievers preferring to set their own goals may be relevant to many people. This suggests that school goals by themselves do not sufficiently motivate school staff members; they also need to have some sense of ownership of the goals or targets set. The staff needs to relate to a small enough group of people to allow a personal strategy to motivate the individual to be involved. Encouraging staff to work in teams is a powerful motivational tool to secure commitment to the school and high performance, to the benefit of both the individual educator and the school.

Citing Mills (1987), Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:162-163) suggest the following guidelines for motivating teaching staff:

• Be aware of basic human needs and motivation processes. Human behaviour is determined by human needs. Insight into general and work-related needs and knowledge of the relationship between the variables influencing motivation is important for an understanding of motivation.

• Put the motivation process in the context of the education system. Motivation comprises more than human needs – it is also determined by the individual educator’s post level and the climate of the school.

• Remember that individuals differ. In other words, their need structures will also differ. Something that motivates one person will not necessarily have the same effect on another. School leaders must determine the
motivational level of each educator and the motivational tools available and then match the personal level to the tool.

• Know your staff member as a unique individual. School leadership should create opportunities to get to know the needs, aspirations and frustrations of each educator. They should note the important role that effective communication, mutual trust and openness between leadership and staff can play. If an educator is seeking promotion, provide opportunities for exposure and growth.

• Watch out for factors that threaten existing needs satisfaction. Changes to post structures, qualifications for promotion, procedures and policies can threaten individual needs that may be satisfied at present.

• Initiate changes that will further the satisfaction of human needs. There is the possibility, however, that these changes may be resisted by some educators.

• Leaders should first earn respect and credibility before developing the motivation process. The more respect and credibility the educator perceives the principal to have, the greater the motivational ability of the principal. People respond to other people based on their credibility in a specific area.

On the other hand, Bush and Middlewood (2005:79) are of the opinion that motivation is an extremely individual matter and since needs and desires are internal states, the task of the school leader in trying to analyse the factors influencing motivation is complex.

These authors claim that these factors can be categorised into the following four groups:

• Individual factors include the educator’s gender, age and experience. The leader has no influence over these factors.

• Social factors pertain to work relationships; whether the educator is part of a team, has mentoring links and is involved in personal relationships at work or not. The leader has limited influence in this regard, as the educator selects his/her own groups.
• Organisational factors relate to conditions of service. Included is the workload and work incentives, and opportunities for career development. Leaders have full responsibility for creating a fair and appropriate working environment.

• Cultural factors make the educators feel they work for a school in which they believe. By creating equal opportunities and showing consideration for work/life balance, the leader shows fairness and that he/she values educators as people.

Clarke (2007:39-43) maintains that research findings have shown that the things that matter and motivate most people are not the hard, tangible things such as money and material possessions, but the softer, less tangible things such as the freedom to develop their own ideas and a sense of being valued. In this regard, the author refers to the work of Maslow, who describes five levels of needs for all individuals, and ranks them in order of priority. This hierarchy is normally presented by a triangle, with the most fundamental need forming the base of the triangle and the most intangible need forming the apex. In thinking about the kinds of things needed to motivate staff members, leaders should think of the things they need to create a working environment that caters for the physical, emotional and professional needs of staff members.

**FIGURE 3.1: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs**

![Maslow's hierarchy of needs diagram](source: Clarke, 2007:39)
The five needs identified by Maslow indicated in Figure 3.1, include:

- **Survival**: This is the most basic and immediate of needs and includes the need for things necessary to sustain life: food, water, shelter and sleep. Individual educators may not necessarily lack these, but may have problems related to ill-health, etc. The school can assist in guiding them towards counseling and/or treatment.

- **Security**: The second most basic need. This is the need for safety and freedom from fear of physical and emotional injury.

- **Belonging**: Individuals inherently have the need to belong to a group, bound by bonds of loyalty and support. The sharing of experiences, care and respect for one another creates a sense of belonging.

- **Prestige**: The need to be recognised and afforded status by others.

- **Self-fulfillment**: This refers to the individual’s need to do things that he/she finds fulfilling. This relates to independence.

The message from Maslow is clear, according to Clarke (2007:40): no individual can work effectively if his or her basic needs are not met. In applying Maslow’s principles to the management of staff, school leaders need to consider these principles as part of their strategy for creating a teaching environment which encourages educators to give their best.

However, Clarke (2007:43) argues that whilst Maslow’s hierarchy provides the stepping stones for developing a positive working environment, it does not answer the question what it is that motivates people. This author further maintains that a wonderfully lucid analysis and summary of the research findings on the issue of staff motivation is provided by Herzenberg. Herzenberg contends that the things that make people satisfied and motivated in their jobs are different from those that make them demotivated and dissatisfied. In other words, the answers people provide as to what makes them dissatisfied and unhappy at work are not the opposite to the answers that they give as to what makes them enjoy their work and gain satisfaction from it. The interesting implication of this is that the removal of those things from the workplace that make people unhappy or dissatisfied does not make them more
motivated, it simply makes them less dissatisfied. In his theory of job attitudes, which he terms the “motivation-hygiene theory” (see Figure 3.2), Herzenberg separates the factors that lead to extreme dissatisfaction, which he refers to as the “hygiene” factors, from those that motivate staff to do their best. It is interesting to note that the motivating factors are mostly intrinsic factors, while the hygiene factors are extrinsic factors.

**FIGURE 3.2: Herzenberg’s “motivation-hygiene theory”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HYGIENE FACTORS</th>
<th>MOTIVATORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfaction with:</td>
<td>Opportunities for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• company policy and administration</td>
<td>• professional growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• supervision</td>
<td>• advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• relationships with supervisor</td>
<td>• greater responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• salary</td>
<td>• interesting work</td>
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<tr>
<td>• relationship with peers</td>
<td>• recognition</td>
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<tr>
<td>• personal life</td>
<td>• achievement</td>
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<tr>
<td>• relationship with subordinates</td>
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<tr>
<td>• status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• security</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Clarke, 2007:43)

Clarke (2007:43) further emphasises that improving staff morale and getting the best from one’s staff therefore involves two things: (a) Hygiene – removing or changing those things that irritate them or interfere with their ability to get the job done; and (b) Motivation – providing individual members of staff with opportunities to grow and develop professionally. Individuals like to have control over decisions about what they do and how they do it. They need opportunities to be creative, to try new ideas and to take responsibility for their own performance. Making this possible is a matter of proper delegation and trust.

Citing Handy (1994), Bush and Middlewood (2005:21) divide motivation theories into the following three categories:

- **Satisfaction theories.** The assumption here is that satisfied workers are more productive, but Handy states that there is little evidence to support this, although they are more likely to remain with a specific school.
Incentive theories. The assumption of these theories is based on the principle of reinforcement, the “carrot” approach. Individuals work harder when given specific rewards or encouragement for good performance. Handy (in Bush & Middlewood, 2005:21) states that incentive approaches may work if:
- the individual perceives the extra reward to be worth the extra effort
- the performance can be measured and attributed to the individual
- the individual wants that particular kind of reward
- the increased performance will not become the new minimum standard.

Intrinsic theories. The assumption here is that people work best if given a worthwhile job and allowed to get on with it. The reward will come from the satisfaction in the work itself.

All these theories, Bush and Middlewood (2005:21) state, are based on the assumption that motivation is essential if staff members are to perform well. People are motivated in different ways and knowing what works for each person provides the potential for enhanced long-term performance.

From the body of literature studied, it may be deduced that with regard to motivating their staff, school leaders should recognise individual differences and the diverse needs of their staff members; they should also set specific goals for staff and provide them with immediate feedback on their progress and, above all, leaders should ensure that staff members perceive the goals set for them as attainable. School leaders should also not lose sight of the very important fact that staff members are motivated by different types of rewards; hence motivation should be aimed at what motivates the individual educator.

3.3.5 Leadership development

As the demand increases that schools improve learner performance, the need for principals to cultivate broad-based, skilful participation in the work of leadership becomes essential. As a school moves towards becoming “leaderful”, the principal must balance the work of building and sustaining leadership capacity at the same
time. Different educators are at different places on the leadership continuum. A principal’s ability to support, encourage, involve, recognise, model, teach and give others the opportunity to lead brings about the development of a culture of leadership: the continuous development and permeation of leadership and leaders within a school, making it live with the school community. The principal models, teaches, coaches and provides leadership training to school staff members as they become skillful participants in the leadership. Principals sustain “leaderful” schools by keeping structures in place that foster leadership and showcase leaders in leadership roles. Principals should use many simple yet effective strategies to build and sustain the leadership capacity of their staff members (Lambert, 2003:117-119).

Similarly, Drago-Severson (2009:109) is of the opinion that the development of leaders in school systems is critical in today’s educational world. Citing Elmore (1999), Drago-Severson (2009:109) states that in calling for a new structure of leadership, it is the work of school leaders to ensure that educators continue to develop. His first two principles for this new structure of leadership are as follows: “the purpose of leadership is the improvement of instructional practice and performance, regardless of role”, and “instructional improvement requires continuous learning”. Drago-Severson (2009:109) also refers to Fullan (2003) as urging principals to exercise leadership that will foster “developing a collaborative culture among educators that focuses on ongoing, relentless improvement of instruction”. Fullan (2003) urges school leaders to build cultures of shared leadership by focusing on integrating “individual and organisational development”. Drago-Severson (2009, 109) further states that to build such school cultures, leaders must focus on supporting educators as they assume new leadership roles. This type of school community in which leadership is shared and adults are collectively responsible for learning, will build individual and organisational capacity.

Principals need to secure resources to support educators who assume leadership roles. One such resource is the time to support shared practice, planning, and professional learning. In addition, what is important to the principal’s explicit acknowledgement of educator-leaders is essential and powerful partners in leadership. Principals need to create a safe environment for educators to engage in risk-taking, delegate important tasks to educators and provide opportunities for
educators to learn leadership skills. These skills can be acquired through participation in workshops, courses, readings and consultations. According to Davies (2009:168;180), leadership development refers to the activities involved in strengthening one’s ability to establish a clear vision and achievable goals, and to motivate others to subscribe to the same vision and goals. Leadership development opportunities and programmes should be tailored to fit the shifting needs and contexts of those for whom they are designed. Programmes designed to develop leadership capability for individuals and teams should be logical and coherent and provide continuity for educators in terms of their professional and career development. An appropriate combination of school-based and externally provided developmental opportunities and experiences must be provided. This may mean providing educators not only with leadership development opportunities within the school, but also offering them the chance to work in a range of different contexts, so that they will emerge as leaders with a breadth of expertise and experience. The best leaders develop leadership capacity in themselves as well as in others; their schools become known as “training grounds”, spotting and nurturing talent, developing the next generation of school leaders.

In addition, McEwan (2003:104) identifies five primary ways in which educators can function as leaders in a school. They can train and provide staff development for other educators; coach and mentor other educators; develop and write the curriculum; be decision makers and leaders of school-making teams; and serve as members of teams, committees, task forces or quality circles.

McEwan (2003:105) further states that an important prerequisite to the training and development of educator-leaders in any of these areas, however, must be the encouragement and fostering of a collegial atmosphere in the school. Without collegiality, educator leaders will wither and die. Their efforts will be poorly received. The principal’s motivation will be suspect and everyone’s time will be wasted. In order for principals to develop educator leaders, this author suggests that principals do the following: scheduling, planning, or facilitating regular meetings of all types with and among educators to address instructional issues; providing opportunities for, and training in, collaboration, shared decision making, coaching, mentoring, curriculum development and presentations; and providing motivation and resources
for educators to engage in professional growth activities. Leaders who develop, reward and recognise those around them, are “simply allowing the human assets with which they work to appreciate in value”.

Bush and Bell (2002:65) argue that in contemporary educational management, the emphasis falls strongly on educators being equipped to meet the challenges of a changing educational environment. How leadership can facilitate educator action learning is a vital part of leadership development. A particularly crucial issue in leadership development is how leadership can be developed for facilitating the paradigm shifts in education towards individualisation that can enable educators to develop in meaningful ways.

It is quite evident from the various sources of literature consulted that, given the complexities of schools, leadership cannot be vested in principals alone. Principals can assert their effectiveness by distributing leadership to a larger set of stakeholders, namely educators. Effective principals will support the construct of educator leadership. Educator leaders promote learning when they lead, and as such, principals should find opportunities for educators to share in the leadership within the school.

3.4 OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

As the school community comprises the educators, learners, parents as well as the DoE, this study will also discuss the importance of the parents, as well as the DoE as stakeholders in the CPD of educators. In addition to the school leadership and the individual educator, these other stakeholders, namely parents and the DoE, also have an important role to play in ensuring that educators are given the necessary support with regard to CPD, as this will have a direct bearing on the learners’ performance.

3.4.1 Parents

The involvement of parents in school affairs and their children’s education has become a prerequisite for school improvement and positive learner outcomes.
Everyone seems to be in agreement that it is essential that communities become involved in the activities of schools, as they have a direct interest in what is being taught at schools.

Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:260) point out that since education involves transmitting people’s knowledge, culture, attitudes and skills to the next generation, it is appropriate for the community to make an input into the curriculum to achieve this. Through their participation in the work of the school, parents may become more interested in what their children are doing. In addition, Van der Westhuizen (2003:423) argues that parents generally accept responsibility for the training and education of their children. Without infringing on the school’s terrain of expertise, parents should have a joint say in the educative school teaching of their children. This author further states that school principals must assume the lead in the teaching and education partnerships between schools and parental homes and that regular two-way communication is necessary for exchanging information.

In view of the fact that the primary aim of CPD is to improve educators’ teaching practice, and in so doing improve the learner outcomes of schools, the involvement of parents in school activities is of paramount importance. School leadership should make a concerted effort to involve parents in all school activities through well-planned and structured school programmes, which make provision for active participation on the part of parents. It is the duty of the school leadership to establish functional partnerships with parents and to ensure that information flows freely and consistently between the school and the learners’ homes.

3.4.2 Department of Education

The District Office of the DoE, as representative of the Ministry of Education of the country, has a duty to assist schools and to provide the necessary support and guidance to ensure that the educational and other needs of the learners of every school are being met.

Mashile (2002:178) is of the opinion that the DoE should provide training and development to its employees, namely the educators. Mashile (2002:178) further
maintains that as employer, the DoE should ensure that educators are motivated to perform at optimal levels. The DoE has a critical role to play in educators' learning, and as such, should promote CPD. This basically means that the DoE should use all the resources at its disposal to enhance the CPD of educators.

According to Mestry and Singh (2007:478), providing principals with the necessary knowledge, skills, values and attitudes becomes increasingly important in relation to the difficulties faced by a dynamic and changing educational sector. Mestry and Singh (2007:478) also mention that the National DoE had embarked on an intensive CPD programme for appointed school principals and those aspiring to become principals. To ensure that suitable candidates are appointed as principals, a new entry requirement to qualify as school principal in South Africa is soon to be imposed, giving recognition to those who obtain the National Professional Qualification for Principals. However, four years down the line, this has not yet materialised, as principals are currently being appointed without this qualification having been made available and set as prerequisite for appointment as principal.

The District Office of the DoE is expected to monitor and support the CPD of educators by providing training, and giving guidance through its officials, such as subject advisors, educational development officers (EDOs) and other relevant district officials. As representative of the employer (the national DoE), the District Office is supposed to take a keen interest in the CPD of educators and to monitor the CPD activities of the schools under its jurisdiction.

3.5 CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Educators, especially South African educators, are constantly faced with changes relating to policy and specifically, the curriculum. These changes, if not managed properly, could have a profound effect on the educators' morale and self-esteem. In most cases, educational changes are aimed at bringing about school improvement and, primarily, improving learner performance. In order for school leadership to successfully manage these changes, they need to know what the change entails, and also what will be required to effectively implement the changes. This section will thus
give a detailed discussion of the role and responsibilities of school leadership in terms of change management.

Clarke (2007:394-395) explains that change management can in some ways be seen as part and parcel of strategic planning, partly because the implementation of any strategic plan inevitably brings about change. Change, however, is more pervasive than that. In the public education sector in South Africa, the extent and depth of change after 1994 has been massive, and unfortunately left many of those involved overwhelmed and schools in disarray. The problem with change is usually not the change itself, but the way that people respond to it. Clarke (2007:396) cites Bridges (1992) as emphasising that for change to work, transition must occur, and that the focus of those responsible for the management of change should be on the transition that the individuals involved must make before they can produce the change, rather than with the physical and situational processes that are required.

Learning to manage transitions is one of the most important of all leadership skills. Principals, school leadership teams and school governing bodies should make a point of investing time, effort and money in improving their knowledge and skills of transitions, because this is an investment that can profoundly affect the extent to which they can lead, manage and govern their schools successfully.

Heystek et al. (2008:35) argue that people form the core of any organisation and when changes constantly impact on them, attempts should be made to help them cope. Change poses challenges, and school leaders and leadership styles have to adapt accordingly. This implies that South African schools have to act as innovative agents of change, in order to ensure effective functioning. Leaders have to remain a step ahead in order to anticipate the issues that will have to be handled, and plan accordingly. It is therefore important that key issues that could have an influence on the school and its culture are identified timeously. In addition, Zebeda (2003:11) states that school systems respond to change daily in response to internal forces and to external forces. It is the principal’s role to set forth the conditions necessary for educators to implement change because change is integral to school improvement processes.
Effective instructional leaders understand that the difficulty of change rests in the nature of human response to change. For leaders to assist educators with the many challenges associated with meeting the needs of learners and the school, an understanding of change is necessary. For change to be successful, principals need to involve educators as leaders. Schools wanting to improve will need to change patterns of thinking, cultures entrenched by past practices, and the climate in which the school culture rests.

According to Matoti (2010:569), the term “change” has various meanings within the context of educational management; it can be defined as “the struggle between what is and what is desired. It is an unavoidable feature of human experience”. He cites Credaro as claiming that the change process progresses through three stages. The initial stage is the identification of the areas for improvement, which is followed by the generation of possible solutions to address the issues raised. The third stage, the implementation, is the most complex and difficult to achieve. Educational changes occur at different levels, the systemic, school and classroom level. It is important for school leaders to have a common understanding of what the change entails and the mechanisms for its implementation. Thus individual change management becomes an important factor in change management if the goals of the school are to be realised.

Similarly, Blankstein, Houston and Cole (2008:49) are of the opinion that creating deep-rooted change in schools requires the leadership to engage in deep personal change. That commitment must be visible to others in the school. If educators do not believe that their principal or other school leaders are willing to question how they carry out their jobs, why should they be asked to engage in difficult and fundamental questioning of their own practice? The need for principals, in particular, to work backward from educators’ work to their own work, and to engage in serious questions about how their schools are organised and for what purpose (and for whose benefit) may easily be seen as false professionalism.

The abovementioned ideas are further enhanced by Loucks-Horsley et al. (2010:75), who maintain that all educational changes of value require individuals to act in new ways (demonstrated by new skills, behaviours or activities) and to think in new ways
(demonstrated by new beliefs, understandings or ideas). The question of the relationship between thoughts and actions is therefore important for professional development. The school of thought has always been that professional development should be aimed at changing educator beliefs, because when one believes differently, it will lead to new behaviours. This is in line with the aim of the study, namely to enhance educators’ professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD. Loucks-Horsley et al. (2010:75) further claim that research on educator change reveals that changes in beliefs emerge only after educators have implemented new practice and have seen the benefits thereof.

Instead of being linear, changes in ideas and attitudes, actions and behaviours occur in a mutually interactive process. On the one hand, people’s current thoughts influence what choices they make and what they attend to as they plan and carry out educational activities. On the other hand, people’s reflections on these activities and their outcomes influence their thoughts about educational matters. Change in attitudes and behaviours is iterative; well-conceived professional learning experiences address both, knowing that change in one brings about and then reinforces change in the other. This view is substantiated by the model of educator change as illustrated in Figure 2.1, in which Guskey (2002:383) states that educators’ beliefs are formed after improvement in the learning outcomes of their learners has become evident.

In conclusion, the body of literature concurs that change is a process that takes time and persistence. At different stages in the change process, school leaders and educators alike need different kinds of support and guidance. In order for change efforts to be effective, the change should be clearly defined and communicated; support and assistance should be available and both leaders and policies should support the change. Schools wishing to engage in continuous cycles of professional development, do so when they analyse data, set goals, take action, assess their results and make the necessary adjustments.

Change cannot happen in isolation – it needs to form an integral part of the strategic direction in which the leaders are taking the school. Effective change demands of
the school to strive for continuous learning and to adopt new approaches and strategies quickly in response to new needs in the school system.

3.6 POLICIES

Recent curriculum policy change has increased the demand for CPD for educators in South Africa.

Sayed (2002:382) explains that the post-1994 democratically elected government has had to deal with a deeply divided and fragmented system of educator education provision.

“The educational commitments of the new government were captured in the National Education Policy Act (DoE, 1996), which addressed issues of democracy, equity, redress and transparency. The post-apartheid policy framework for educator education encompasses amongst others:

• The National Educational Policy Act (DoE, 1996), which empowers the Minister of Education to set the guidelines for the education and accreditation of educators and determine matters such as the curriculum framework and the certification of qualifications.

• The C2005 Framework, which commits the education system to an outcomes-based approach with an emphasis on learning areas rather than subjects, with implications for educator education training and provision.

• The Norms and Standards for Educator Education (DoE, 1997, 2000, 2000), which uses an outcomes-based approach to educator education and constitute an attempt to provide a detailed account of what a competent educator can and should demonstrate.

• The SACE, set up in 1996, which is responsible for educator registration, discipline and conduct, and professional development.

• The National Qualifications Framework and the South African Qualifications Authority Act (DoE, 1995), which are responsible for the standards of educator education and quality assurance of the programme.” (Sayed, 2002:382)
According to Sayed (2002:382), the above-mentioned policy framework reflects a complex array of different policy documents that attempt to tackle the difficulties of educator education in South Africa in relation to regulation, governance, curriculum, quality assurance and stakeholder participation in policy formulation.

Heystek et al. (2008:143) state that South Africa had a number of assessment mechanisms and methods before 1994, in an era of judgemental performance appraisal. Assessment was neither transparent nor really formative, and lacked any form of feedback. After 1994, the first attempt at changing this situation was the Developmental Appraisal System, but this was not accepted by the South African Educators’ Unions. Negotiations resulted in the adoption of the current IQMS. Heystek et al. (2008:143) cite Circular 18 of 2007 of the Gauteng DoE as describing the main objective of the IQMS as to ensure quality education for all, and to constantly improve the quality of learning and teaching.

According to Heystek et al. (2008:143), the implementation of the IQMS is guided by the following principles:

- The need to ensure fairness; for example, there can be no sanction against an educator in respect of his or her performance before providing meaningful opportunities for development.
- The need to minimise subjectivity through transparency and open discussion.
- The need to use the instrument professionally, uniformly and consistently.

In addition, De Clercq (2008:12) states that IQMS combines educator monitoring and appraisal for development and is based on an instrument with standardised performance areas. The first part of the instrument is used for lesson observation, with four individual-based teaching performance standards, while the second part is used to assess professional issues outside the classroom with three performance standards. A further four standards are used to assess senior management. Educators do their ongoing self-evaluations on the basis of this instrument, which are then verified by a development support group (DSG), consisting of a head of
department and selected colleagues on the staff. This evaluation records an educator’s strengths and areas in need of development. This DSG evaluation serves as a baseline to inform an educator’s personal growth plan (PGP). All educators’ PGP s inform the School Improvement Plan, which is intended to guide the district and school on educators’ identified targets and areas requiring support.

Clarke (2007:334) maintains that the legislative framework within which public schools must operate is extensive, and can be categorised into four broad areas:

- General statutes that affect the broader education framework, and statutes that affect any organisation or employer.
- Public service statutes.
- General labour legislation that affects all employers and employees.
- School-specific statutes.

SDTs are part of the IQMS, as set out in the policy of the ELRC (2003:20). According to this policy, principals must establish SDTs immediately after the initial advocacy of and training of educators in IQMS. SDTs, in conjunction with SMTs, are responsible for liaising with educators as well as District Offices to coordinate the provision of developmental programmes for educators. SDTs must monitor the process of Developmental Appraisal, coordinate the observation of educators in practice and the appraisals for Performance Measurement, and keep a record of these processes. It is also the duty of SMTs and SDTs to develop the “School Improvement Plan (SIP)”, a document which sets targets and timeframes for school improvement, including the CPD of educators. This SIP must be submitted to the District Office of the DoE, in order to enable the District Office to coordinate the provision of in-service training and other CPD programmes (ELRC, 2003:20-21). The composition of SDTs was detailed under section 1.8.2.

Lastly, I would say it is of vital importance for any principal to make sure that the school has copies of all relevant policies, any amendments that have been enacted, as well as the appropriate regulations. Every principal should also ensure that he or she has at least some knowledge of the laws and/or policies that have a bearing on the school’s day-to-day operations and that he or she has readily available copies of
this legislation. The principal should also be aware of which items are legally required to be displayed in a public area (e.g. the staff-room) or should be available to employees. Schools must therefore be aware of and have access to all relevant acts and regulations that govern their functioning. In order to facilitate educators’ meaningful participation in professional development opportunities, it is necessary to identify and institute policies that increase the capacity of educators and schools to take advantage of every available opportunity to help educators in their professional development. Professional developers must work with policy-makers at all levels to develop and implement policies that recognise that the professional development of all educators is an essential school activity, instead of an add-on activity that can be discarded when times are difficult.

3.7 INTERNATIONAL TRENDS

In view of the fact that the CPD of educators is a global issue, this study thought it necessary to investigate how the CPD of educators is managed in countries other than South Africa, and how these CPD programmes and practices influence the educators of that specific country. At the same time, the study wished to look for similarities to CPD practices in South Africa, as well as to highlight major differences, if any.

Clement and Vandenberghe (2000:81) state that societal developments in several domains confront schools and educators, with ever more and various demands. In order to meet these challenges, educators’ professional development is considered vital. More than that, current societal developments are so all-encompassing and encroaching, that it cannot be expected from educators to take care of their professional development individually. Each school is expected to create favourable conditions for educators’ professional development – especially in countries with a deregulating, decentralising and privatising educational policy.

In order to get a general idea of what is happening internationally with regard to CPD and in addition to the discussion in section 1.6.1, developments in the United States of America (USA), Scotland, Germany as well as the United Kingdom (UK), will now be discussed, with reference to the models, approaches and theories used.
3.7.1 United States of America

Marsh, Hamilton and Gill (2008:423,431-435) claim that The Edison’s approach to managing schools in the USA is comprehensive and can be broadly classified into two categories: (a) providing resources and assistance in support of a coherent and comprehensive school design; and (b) implementing accountability systems that aim to ensure that the resources and assistance for the design are in place and used as intended. These strategies include a variety of centrally provided professional development programmes, as well as school-site based resources that are designed to develop educators’ knowledge and skills and promote elements of social capital such as morale, trust and school spirit. One of Edison’s key strategies is to promote learner learning. This involves, first of all, a substantial increase in instructional time for learners. In order to support such an environment, Edison has developed “character and ethics”, a curriculum that promotes the teaching and modeling of core values – wisdom, justice, courage, compassion, hope, respect, responsibility and integrity – throughout the school.

Another USA investigation was conducted into 89 San Francisco Bay area schools. Anderson and Kumari (2009:284) cite Copeland (2006) as having conducted an investigation of the implementation over a five-year period of a continuous improvement model that emphasised the use of a cyclical process of inquiry focused on learner learning, collaborative decision-making and leadership distribution. Of the many findings from this study, four are of particular interest:

- School personnel were at different starting points in terms of their prior experience with school improvement, use of data, participatory decision-making and shared leadership.
- The researchers identified developmental stages in the practice of inquiry-based reform, and tracked movement at some schools over several years, from novice, to intermediate to advanced stages of implementation of the processes and a culture of continuous improvement.
- While principals played a key role as catalysts in initiating reform and as facilitators in sustaining the improvement practices, they increasingly
enabled the distribution of leadership functions and practices more broadly to educators with appropriate expertise in the schools.

- Schools that seriously engage in continuous improvement practices may introduce multiple innovations, all directed towards incremental improvement in targeted learning results for learners.

### 3.7.2 Scotland

Livingston and Robertson (2001:192-194) refer to Sutherland (1997) as proposing that CPD in Scotland should be structured within a national framework in which all provision is accredited and in which there is an agreement on the range and level of CPD that should be undertaken by educators at different stages of their careers. In Scotland, there has previously not been any general obligation on educators to undertake the professional development or training leading to further qualifications. The government is in agreement with Sutherland and believes that arrangements for CPD would be improved if development and training were to be underpinned by a formal structure of competence and standards, which are clearly stated and made widely available. Livingston and Robertson (2001:192-194) also cite Fullan (1991), who contends that the implementation of a CPD framework in itself will not necessarily improve professional development. The key, instead, is the articulation of the effectiveness of the inputs with a systematic structure, as well as an appropriate method of monitoring the progress. The successful inter-relationship of all elements is crucial to the overall professional development of educators in Scotland.

### 3.7.3 Germany

Richter et al. (2010:9) report on a study that investigated educators’ uptake of learning opportunities across their careers. Analyses were based on data from educators at secondary schools across Germany. Richter et al. (2010:9) cite Huberman’s (1994) theoretical framework of educators’ career stages, which suggests that educators make use of different types of learning opportunities across their careers. The finding was that educators collaborated more at the beginning of their careers than in the middle or final stages and that that could possibly be
attributed to the fact that younger educators were still more eager to learn from and draw on the professional expertise of more experienced educators. Another finding was that educators with high work engagement and educators who held service or management responsibilities pursued more in-service training. The authors also referred to the socio-emotional selective theory as suggesting that individual educators tend to prioritise short-term over long-term goals and tend to pursue less new information as they become aware of their limited time perspective.

3.7.4 United Kingdom

Bubb and Earley (2009:23-37), in a research report that they undertook in the UK to highlight the role of continuing development of educators as crucial in helping to bring about school improvement and enhancing the quality of learning, pointed out the following facts regarding the professional development of educators: Most of the schools studied, had developed a learning-centred culture in which educator learning was valued as highly as learner learning. Many schools had useful resources to support adult learning. Several of the schools studied had a policy of encouraging people to achieve Advanced Skills Educator status and to work with other staff at the school. Schools that made successful journeys to school improvement had integrated systems so that professional development of educators linked naturally with performance management and self-evaluation for all educators. In some schools, performance management contributed strongly to keeping school improvement projects on track, because educators’ targets were closely related to the overall goal of their school. Giving educators some element of choice in professional development programmes was viewed as important in some schools. The research attempted to show ways in which schools could improve and assist educators in becoming better at what they did, but also how they could become more effective in evaluating whether real improvements occurred in the quality of teaching and learning provided by the school.

From the international trends discussed here, it is evident that the continuing professional development of educators is viewed as central to school improvement and in promoting a culture of teaching and learning in all the countries mentioned. The literature also highlights the fact that as educators are at different levels of their
careers, CPD programmes should provide different types of learning opportunities to cater for all educators. Furthermore, the body of literature leads one to conclude that educators should be encouraged to set goals for their own CPD, which are directly related to the overall goals of their school. Finally, educators need to have some choice in the types of CPD programmes their school decides on, as this will have a direct bearing on their personal and professional growth.

3.8 CONCLUSION

From the literature studied for the purpose of writing this chapter, it is evident that the professional development of educators and the support thereof, need to be central to any intervention strategies planned for education. This is supported by Mokhele and Jita (2010:1762), who view educators’ professional development as increasingly becoming a priority in most countries throughout the world. CPD is seen as the most effective approach to prepare educators adequately and to improve their instructional and intervention practices during their teaching careers. Today, educators are expected to be dual professionals who can focus on their discipline and engage in CPD in generic teaching and learning skills. To be able to do this, educators have to receive high quality professional development and be given time to implement what they learn through valid interventions. CPD programmes are regarded as systematic efforts to bring about change in the classroom practice of educators, in their attitudes and beliefs, and in the learning outcomes of learners.

Similarly, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:132) argue that educator learning is most likely to happen when educators have influence over the content and process of CPD. For many educators, they state, CPD is a mind-numbing experience in which they passively “sit and get”. By empowering educators, a sense of ownership is facilitated, which promotes internalisation of learning. Educator ownership is crucial for CPD effectiveness. One could therefore safely conclude that educators should be encouraged to innovate and improve their performance in the classroom in order to improve the quality of education in this country. In addition to this, Maistry (2008:373) maintains that if we believe that learning is social in nature, the challenge then is to create contexts in which educators and other stakeholders interact in ways that will help them to overcome barriers to continuing professional development.
With regard to the role of school leadership in the CPD of educators, Steyn (2007:269) is of the opinion that principals can play a key role in CPD by identifying educators’ needs, motivating and supporting their development and working towards a collaborative school culture with shared values and norms.

It is evident from the literature that the role of leadership would be to create a school culture that is conducive to sound inter-personal relationships, effective support systems for CPD, and adequate resources and opportunities for educators to learn in a collaborative manner. Nir and Bogler (2008:379) support this view, stating that principals are the key participants in determining the characteristics of CPD programmes and educators’ influence over these programmes, and that these principals are expected to exhibit strong and consistent instructional leadership.

In addition, November et al. (2010:791) claim that principals are expected to be knowledgeable about curriculum changes, instructional effectiveness, staff development and learner leadership development. November et al. (2010:791) cite Fullan and Boltoms (1998) as arguing that the role of principals is to encourage collaboration among staff, learners, school governing bodies and communities to play a more central role through active participation in school affairs and activities.

Another aspect highlighted by the literature is the fact that new policies and programmes should not just be implemented at random, but that those already in existence should be utilised functionally and optimally. This is substantiated by Anderson and Kumari (2009:283), who state that the idea of CPD should be about deepening expertise through existing programmes and practices, not just about adding or replacing them with new ones.

Teaching learning is to refine what educators already do versus those in which the goal is to learn to use methods and programmes that are new to the implementers, in this case, the educators. All of this is summarised by Steyn (2007:272) who cites Guskey (2002), Birman (2000), Somers and Sikovara (2002) as arguing that CPD programmes and policies, I might add, must be contextualised for the school and should deepen educators’ content and pedagogical knowledge and skills relating to a particular subject.
The literature in this chapter highlighted that the CPD of educators should, amongst others, display the following characteristics, namely it should:

- be related to the overall goals of the school
- be long term with constant feedback and follow-up
- encourage educators to work collaboratively
- have sufficient support from the school leadership and
- take into account educators’ existing beliefs and practices.

The next chapter will focus on the methodology of this study. The research design, instrumentation, methods of data collection, as well as the data analysis procedure will form the basis of this chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR
METODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will outline the research design and methodology employed in conducting the study. This study followed the qualitative research approach and the interpretivistic paradigm, because I wished to describe and understand the views of educators regarding their involvement in their own CPD. In addition to providing a description of the design and methodology that were followed in carrying out the study, this chapter will also explain the reasons or motivation for selecting the said procedures, including the methods for data analysis. Included in this chapter are the ethical issues that were taken into consideration during the investigation.

This chapter will address the research design by elaborating on the following: the research paradigm, namely interpretivism; the research approach, namely qualitative research; as well as the strategy, namely phenomenology. It will also expand on the chosen research methodology by discussing the population and the sample, as well as the data collection methods, data analysis process, measures of trustworthiness and the ethical measures employed during the investigation.

4.2 PARADIGM: INTERPRETIVISM

According to Schnelker (2006:44), fundamental philosophical systems that distinguish approaches to research are referred to as research paradigms. Research paradigms are sets of basic beliefs, accepted on faith, that provide frameworks for the entire research. The various taxonomies used to distinguish paradigms share three fundamental elements: ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontological assumptions concern the nature and form of reality and determine what constitutes “legitimate”, researchable questions. Epistemological assumptions deal with the nature of knowledge and what counts as knowledge. Methodological assumptions deal with the procedures researchers use to investigate what they believe can be known, and the rationale behind these procedures. Assumptions about the elements
are interdependent; that is, assumptions about the nature of reality (ontological assumptions) are logically related to assumptions about the nature of knowledge (epistemological assumptions), which are logically related to assumptions about procedures for investigating what can be known (methodological assumptions). Therefore, each paradigm contains a set of assumptions that are logically related in a unique manner and have practical implications for the conduct, interpretation and utilisation of research (Schnelker, 2006:44).

For the purpose of this study, the interpretive paradigm was selected for conducting the investigation. Denzin and Lincoln (2000:107) argue that interpretivists state that it is possible to understand the subjective meaning of action, yet do so in an objective manner. In order to understand the intersubjective meanings of human action, the researcher may have to participate in the life-world of others. It is therefore evident that interpretivist researchers want to develop an understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

Vine (2009:1) states that, in the mid-twentieth century, Wilhelm Dilthey was influential in the interpretivist paradigm. Dilthey highlighted that the subject matter investigated by the natural sciences was different from the social sciences, in which human beings as opposed to inanimate objects could interpret the environment and themselves. In contemporary research practice, this means that there is an acknowledgement that facts and values cannot be separated and that understanding is inevitably prejudiced, because it is situated in terms of the individual and the event. Researchers recognise that all participants involved, including the researcher, bring their own unique interpretations of the world or construction of situations to the research. Therefore, the researcher needs to be open to the attitudes and values of the research participants or, more actively, suspend prior cultural assumptions. Interpretivist research methods include focus groups, interviews and research diaries – all methods that allow for as many variables to be recorded as possible. One of the criticisms against interpretivism is that it does not allow for generalisations, because it encourages the study of a small number of cases that do not necessarily apply to the whole population. However, other authors have argued that the detail and effort involved in interpretive inquiry allows researchers to gain insight into particular events
as well as a range of perspectives that may not have come to light without that scrutiny.

Lichtman (2010:244) defines Interpretivism as a theory or philosophical doctrine that emphasises analyzing meanings people confer on their own actions, while Creswell (2009:8) likens interpretivism to social constructivism, which holds the assumption that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences, directed towards certain objects or things. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The goal of the researcher is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied. The researcher’s intent is to make sense of/or interpret the meanings others have about the world. Instead of starting with a theory, researchers generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning. In addition, Porta and Keating (2008:27) contend that interpretive research aims at understanding events by discovering the meanings human beings attribute to their behaviour and the external world. The focus is on understanding human nature. More specifically, this type of social science aims at understanding the motivations that lie behind human behaviour, a matter that cannot be reduced to any predefined element, but must be placed within a cultural perspective. This type of research seeks explanations for social outcomes, but does not expect to derive these from universal rules. Rather, explanation comes from the interpretation of people’s motives for their actions.

On the other hand, Briggs and Coleman (2007:23) claim that the basis of the interpretivistic approach is one in which research participants negotiate meanings about their activity in the world. Societal reality therefore consists of attempts to interpret the world. Gubrium and Holstein (2002:678) observe the following with regard to interpretivism: multiple realities exist; data reflect the researcher’s and the research participants’ mutual constructions; and the researcher enters into and is affected by the participants’ worlds. The researcher aims to learn participants’ implicit meanings of their experiences, to build a conceptual analysis thereof.
Interpretivists believe that reality is not objectively determined, but socially constructed. The underlying assumption is that placing people in their social contexts, will enhance the opportunity to understand the perceptions they have of their own activities. By its nature, interpretivism promotes the value of qualitative data in pursuit of knowledge. In essence, this research paradigm is concerned with the uniqueness of a particular situation, contributing to the underlying pursuit of contextual depth. However, while interpretive research is recognised for its value in providing contextual depth, results are often criticised in terms of validity, reliability and the ability to generalise, referred to collectively as research legitimisation. In reality, all the issues are interdependent and reflect on the layered complexity of the phenomenon at hand (Kelliher, 2005:123).

Similarly, Rowlands (2005:81-83) is of the view that interpretive research acknowledges the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is being explored. Interpretive research does not predefine dependent or independent variables, and does not set out to test hypotheses, but aims to produce an understanding of the social context of the phenomenon and the process through which the phenomenon influences and is influenced by the social context. An interpretive paradigm is based on the view that people socially and symbolically construct their own organisational realities. The research approach is consistent and compatible with the epistemological and ontological assumptions that the world and reality are interpreted by people in the context of historical and social practices. That is, experience of the world is subjective and best understood in terms of individuals’ subjective meanings rather than the researcher’s objective definitions. Interpretive researchers therefore attempt to understand phenomena through accessing the meanings that participants assign to them. Interpretive researchers reject the possibility of an “objective” or “factual” account of events and situations, seeking instead a relativistic, albeit shared (between researcher and participant) understanding of the relevant phenomenon. The intent is to understand the deeper structure of a phenomenon, which understanding can then be used to inform other settings. Schnelker (2006:45) maintains that interpretive researchers focus on how people make sense of their worlds, rather than on what people conclude about their worlds. Understanding the process occurs within the context of the individual or event of interest. The aim of interpretive research is to generate idiographic
knowledge; descriptions of individual and unique realities that provide readers with a deep understanding or vicarious experience of the individual or event of interest. Researchers are ultimately responsible for interpreting how others make sense of their experiences and conveying those interpretations to readers. Interpretive researchers use their own subjective experiences to develop an empathetic understanding of the feelings, perceptions, values, etcetera that influence the way in which participants make sense of their worlds.

Based on the body of literature studied, I came to the conclusion that the interpretive paradigm would be the most appropriate choice for my research, mainly because interpretive research would allow me as the researcher to gain insight into and interpret how my participants made sense of their experience of how they as educators were involved in their own CPD. The differing realities of the participants would enable me to improve my own comprehension of the phenomenon being studied, namely how to improve educators’ professional confidence by improving their involvement in their own CPD.

4.3 APPROACH: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

In order to investigate how the participating educators viewed their involvement in their own CPD, I decided to use qualitative research for this study, since I was attempting to find ways of improving educators’ professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD.

Lichtman (2010:12-16) contends that, in general, the main purpose of qualitative research is to provide an in-depth description and understanding of the human experience. The purpose of qualitative research is to describe and understand human phenomena, human interaction or human discourse. Qualitative researchers tend to ask “why” questions, and questions which lead to a particular meaning. Because qualitative researchers are interested in meaning and interpretation, they typically do not deal with hypotheses. While early efforts at qualitative research might have stopped at description, it is now more generally accepted that a qualitative researcher adds understanding and interpretation to the description. The researcher plays a pivotal role in the qualitative research process. Data are
collected, information is gathered, settings are viewed, and realities are constructed through an interactive process that moves back and forth between data collected and data analysed. And finally, the qualitative researcher interprets and makes sense of the data. In addition, Miller and Salkind (2002:143) claim that qualitative research methods are often used when the researcher is interested in obtaining detailed and rich knowledge of a specific phenomenon. These authors emphasise the point that qualitative research methods are not to be seen as alternatives to quantitative methods. They are not another way to answer the same question; instead, they constitute a relatively new way to answer a different type of question, one characterised by a unique approach, with a different set of underlying assumptions, reflecting a different world-view of how individuals and group behaviour can best be studied.

According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:188), qualitative research can, theoretically speaking, be described as an approach rather than a particular design or set of techniques. Welman et al (2005:188) claim that it is an “umbrella phrase” covering an array of interpretive techniques that seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world. Therefore, the qualitative approach is also fundamentally a descriptive form of research. Qualitative field studies can be used successfully in the description of small groups, communities and organisations, whereas quantitative methods may be more useful in hypothesis-testing research. Qualitative research studies may lend themselves more aptly to studying cases that do not fit into particular theories.

Lankshear and Knobel (2004:68-70) argue that qualitative research refers to a complex array of perspectives and techniques that have grown out of diverse theories and disciplines. Many “qualitative ways of knowing” originate in the tradition of “interpretive sociology”, which includes approaches like interactive sociology and ethnomethodology. Qualitative research has also emerged partly out of social and cultural anthropology (e.g. ethnographic approaches to understanding the world), and stands within linguistics, philosophy (e.g. hermeneutics and phenomenology) and non-quantitative forms of psychology. By comparison with quantitative research, qualitative inquiry makes relatively little use of statistical forms of analysis and
refuses to restrict data collection to the use of highly structured, replicable and standardised instruments within decontextualised settings. Qualitative research does not presuppose large samples. Whereas quantitative research is strongly concerned with identifying causal, correlative or other kinds of close associations between events, processes and consequences occurring in the mental and social lives of humans, qualitative research is centrally concerned with how people experience, understand, interpret and participate in their social and cultural worlds. Qualitative researchers place much importance on data being gathered in natural or real-life settings as the “action” happens. Data collection methods primarily comprise observations of “real practices” or recordings of recounts of real life. Qualitative researchers aim to collect data that is contextualised. Such data take into account the kind of school and community in which the research takes place, the socio-economic status of the community in which the school is located, and the history of the community. The detailed descriptions distinctive of qualitative research are often complex, and data analysis is a process of making sense of, or meaning from, these descriptions (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004:68-70).

Gay and Airasian (2003:169) maintain that the central focus of qualitative research studies is to provide understanding of a social setting or activity, as viewed from the perspective of the research participants. In order to achieve this goal, they state, qualitative research is guided by five general characteristics, which cut across most types of qualitative studies. Firstly, the source of data for qualitative research is real-world situations; natural, non-manipulated settings. Researchers spend a great deal of time in the selected setting. Secondly, qualitative research data are descriptive. Data, in the form of interview notes, observation records, documents and field notes, are the basis for analysis and interpretation. Numerical data are very rarely the main focus of a qualitative study. Thirdly, qualitative research emphasises a holistic approach, focusing on processes, as well as final outcomes. The researcher is immersed in the details and specifics of the settings. It is the detailed recording of the processes occurring in the natural setting that provides the basis for understanding the setting, the participants and their interactions. Fourthly, qualitative data are analysed inductively; that is, patterns and relationships are developed from collecting or observing multiple specific instances. As the data are analysed, the researcher seeks specific pieces of data that can be generalised. He/she seeks to
find patterns and common themes. The more data is collected, the more likely that inductive analysis will be confirmed. Fifthly, the researcher strives to describe the meanings of the findings from the perspective of the research participants, not of the researcher him- or herself. Throughout this process, the focus is on the meanings that participants have identified in their own natural settings or contexts. This focus on the research context is very important in qualitative research, because each research setting and its participants are viewed by the qualitative researcher as unique, thus making the researcher’s task one of describing participants’ understanding of their own, unique reality.

Although qualitative researchers work in many different ways, their studies have certain characteristics in common that set this approach apart from quantitative research. Ary et al. (2002:424) list some of the more important aspects of qualitative research as follows:

• Qualitative research shows concern for context – it assumes that human behaviour is context-bound, that human experiences takes its meanings from, and therefore is inseparable from social, historical, political and cultural influences. Thus inquiry is always bounded by a particular context or setting.

• Qualitative research studies real-world behaviour as it occurs naturally in a classroom, an entire school, a playground or in an organisation. Qualitative inquiry takes place in natural settings, as they are found. In addition, qualitative inquiry places no prior constraints on what is to be studied. It studies human experience holistically, taking into account all factors and influences in a given situation.

• One of the key characteristics that distinguish qualitative research is the method used to collect and analyse data. In qualitative studies, the human investigator is the primary instrument for gathering and analysing data. Ary et al. (2002:424) cite Lincoln and Guba (1985) as introducing the concept of human-as-instrument to emphasise the unique role that qualitative researchers play in their inquiry. Because qualitative research studies human experiences and situations, researchers need an instrument flexible enough to capture the complexity of the human
experience. According to Lincoln and Guba, only a human instrument was capable of this task.

- The qualitative inquirer deals with data that are in the form of words, rather than numbers and statistics. The data collected are the participants’ experiences and perspectives; the qualitative researcher attempts to arrive at a rich description of the people, objects, events, places, conversations and so forth. Managing the large volume of descriptive data generated from interviews, observations and the collection of documents is an important consideration in qualitative studies. Qualitative investigators also typically keep a personal or reflexive log or journal in which they record accounts of their thoughts, feelings, assumptions, motives and the rationale for decisions made. This is one way in which the qualitative researcher can address the issue of the inquiry being value bound.

- Qualitative researchers rarely, if ever, fully specify all aspects of a design before beginning a study; rather the design emerges as the study unfolds – hence the name: emergent design. They adjust their methods and way of proceeding to the subject matter at hand. This is necessary, because the qualitative inquirer is never quite sure just what will be learned in a particular setting. Thus, a qualitative inquiry can only be characterised beforehand in a very general way that indicates how a study may unfold.

- In most qualitative studies, data collection and data analysis take place simultaneously. From the outset of the first interview or observation, the qualitative researcher is reflecting on the meaning of what he/she has heard and seen, developing hunches about what it means and seeking to confirm or disconfirm those hunches in subsequent interviews or observations. It is a process of inductive data analysis. As the researcher reduces and reconstructs the data through the process of coding and categorisation, he/she aims to develop a theory about the phenomena being observed that is directly tied to the data about those phenomena.

Creswell (2009:175-176) concurs with the views of Ary et al.(2002, 424) on the characteristics of qualitative research. In addition to the characteristics mentioned by Ary et al.(2002, 424), Creswell (2009:175-176) also includes the following:
• Theoretical lens: Qualitative researchers often use a lens to view their studies, such as the concept of culture, or gendered, racial or class differences. Sometimes, the study may be organised around identifying the social, political or historical context of the problem under study.

• Interpretive: Qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers interpret what they see, hear and understand. Their interpretations cannot be separated from their own backgrounds, history, contexts and prior understandings.

• Holistic account: Qualitative researchers try to develop a complex picture of the problem or issue under study. This involves reporting multiple perspectives, identifying the many factors involved in a situation, and generally sketching the larger picture that emerges; a visual model of many facets of a process or a central phenomenon and in establishing this holistic picture.

Similarly, Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2007:5-8) mention the same characteristics of qualitative research, as explained by all the former authors. They also include the following characteristics of qualitative research:

• Concern with process: Qualitative researchers are concerned with process, rather than simply with outcomes or products. Questions that concern them, include: How do people negotiate meaning? What is the natural history of the activity or events under study?

• Meaning: “Meaning” is of essential concern to the qualitative approach. Researchers who use this approach are interested in how different people make sense of their lives. In other words, qualitative researchers are concerned with what are called participant perspectives. They focus on such questions as: What assumptions do people make about their lives? What do they take for granted? Qualitative researchers are concerned with making sure that they capture perspectives accurately. Qualitative researchers in education can continually be found asking questions of the people they are learning from to discover “what they are experiencing, how they interpret their experiences, and how they themselves structure the social world in which they live”. Qualitative inquirers set up strategies
and procedures to enable them to consider experiences from the participants’ perspectives. For some, the process of undertaking qualitative research can be characterised as a dialogue or interplay between the researcher and his/her participants.

In reflecting on the literature I consulted on qualitative research, I grew convinced that the qualitative research approach would be the most suitable to my study. As an office-based educator concerned with educator development, this approach would allow me as the researcher to interact with my participants in their natural setting, namely the school. I would also be complying with the characteristics of qualitative research by being the most important instrument in the data collection process and by making use of those data collecting methods that are indicative of qualitative research, namely questionnaires, interviews and the workshop. My aim as researcher would be to interpret that which I would be seeing, hearing and understanding of my participants’ perspectives on their experiences of educators’ involvement in their own CPD. My data analysis procedures would be consistent with that which is applicable to the qualitative research approach. In general, because qualitative research makes use of description rather than numbers and statistics, I became convinced that qualitative research would be suitable to the nature of my study.

4.4 STRATEGY: PHENOMENOLOGY

In attempting to understand what the participants’ perceptions, perspectives and assumptions of their own CPD is, I decided to employ phenomenology in this study. In looking at the different perspectives on the same situation, I would be able to form a picture of how these participants viewed their involvement in their own CPD. A phenomenological study would enable me to give voice to participants’ lived experiences of their involvement in their own CPD. This strategy of enquiry further afforded me the opportunity to enter the life-world of the participants by means of the interaction that the data collection methods, namely questionnaire, individual and focus group interviews, and the workshop, provided.
Phenomenological research is a qualitative strategy in which the researcher identifies the “essence” of human experiences concerning a phenomenon, as described by the participants in a study. Understanding the “lived experiences” marks phenomenology as a philosophy as well as a method, and the procedures involve studying a small number of subjects through extensive and prolonged engagement to develop patterns and relationships of meaning. In this process, the researcher “brackets” his/her own experiences in order to understand those of the participants in the study (Creswell, 2005:15).

In addition, Ary et al. (2002:22-23) argue that qualitative research is rooted in phenomenology, which sees social reality as unique. The phenomenological approach sees the individual and his/her world as so interconnected that, essentially, the one has no existence without the other. Thus, the researcher can only understand human behaviour by focusing on the meanings that events have for the people involved. You must not only look at what people do, but also at how they think and feel, and must experience what happens to them. The result of a phenomenological study is a narrative report so comprehensive that you can understand the social reality experienced by the participants. Furthermore, because researchers don’t know in advance how naturally occurring events will unfold, they do not begin a study with hypotheses.

Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2007:25-26) maintain that researchers in the phenomenological mode attempt to understand how ordinary people make sense of the meaning of events in particular situations. Phenomenologists emphasise the subjective aspects of people’s behaviour. They attempt to understand how their participants construct meaning around events in their lives, and also what this meaning entails. Phenomenologists are of the opinion that people can, through their interaction with others, interpret experiences in multiple ways. It is then the meaning of these experiences that constructs reality. In essence, then, reality is “socially constructed”.

Springer (2010:403) concurs that in a phenomenological study, the researcher attempts to describe the subjective experience of participants. Drawing on both theory and methods from early 20th century philosophy and psychology,
phenomenological studies are based on extensive interviews in which both researcher and participant attempt to give up habitual ways of interpreting experience and focus instead on how the participant directly experiences particular situations. Although ethnographic studies tend to have a phenomenological aspect, what distinguishes the phenomenological approach is a more exclusive focus on the subjective experience of participants and less attention to cultural themes.

Lichtman (2010:75-80) has the following views on phenomenology: its purpose is to describe and understand the essence of lived experiences of individuals who have experienced a particular phenomenon. Phenomenology, which was originally proposed by Husserl, has been reinterpreted by a variety of writers. Bracketing is a key concept in, whilst hermeneutics is closely associated with phenomenology. Hermeneutics is generally thought to be the science of interpretation and explanation. Two assumptions of hermeneutics are that humans use language to experience the world and that understanding and knowledge are obtained through language (Lichtman, 2010:75-80).

Miller and Salkind (2002:151) view a phenomenological study as one in which researchers search for the essential essence or the central underlying meaning of the experience. They emphasise the intentionality of consciousness, in which the experiences contain both an outward appearance and inward consciousness, based on memory, image and meaning. Phenomenological data analysis proceeds through the methodology of reduction, the analysis of specific statements and themes, and a search for all possible meanings. The researcher also sets aside all prejudgements, brackets his/her experiences and relies on intuition, imagination and universal structures to obtain a picture of the experience.

Similarly, Welman et al. (2005:191-192) maintain that phenomenologists question the possibility of studying a reality with so-called objectivity. According to the phenomenologists, what the researcher observes is not the reality as such, but an interpreted reality. Human behavioural researchers are in reality members of the group being studied. This enables direct understanding; this implies that the researchers can understand the circumstances of the object of study, because they can picture themselves in the participants’ shoes. Because of the unity between the
researcher and what is being researched, the phenomenologist believes that human behaviour cannot be understood without appreciating the context in which it takes place. Although the meaning of human existence is not equated with its context, it cannot be separated from it. Phenomenologists are not concerned as much with the description of the phenomenon, as with the participants’ experiences of these phenomena.

In addition, Lichtman (2010:79-80) refers to phenomenology as a method and mentions the following in this regard:

- What is meant by the lived experienced? Lived experiences, or life experiences, are those in which we all are involved. Often, a researcher selects a particular experience or event on which to focus. The individuals who are studied, have been involved in the experience. Every experience has an objective and a subjective component; therefore you must understand all aspects of a phenomenon.

- What is meant by the essence of the experience? Another way of asking this question is: How does the nature of the experience indicate the nature of the human being’s existence? When we consider the essence of the experience, we are moving to a deeper level of understanding.

- What is the reductionist process? Phenomenological reduction is a process that is used to facilitate seeking the essence of a phenomenon. It is here that bracketing describes the change in attitude that is necessary for the philosophical reduction. Bracketing involves placing one’s own thoughts about the topic in suspense or out of question. The author cites Giorgi as suggesting that the researcher should search for all possible meanings of the phenomenon.

Likewise, Ary et al. (2002:447-448) regard the phenomenological study as designed to describe and interpret an experience by determining the meaning of the experience as perceived by the people who have participated in it. The assumption is that there are many ways of interpreting the same experience, and that the meaning of the experience to each person is what constitutes reality. This belief is characteristic of all qualitative research, but the element that distinguishes
phenomenology from other qualitative strategies is that the subjective experience is at the centre of the inquiry. The central research question aims to determine the essence of the experience as “perceived by the participants”. “Phenomenology” makes no judgement with respect to the reality status of experiences. It merely wants to understand how, through experience, all the events and objects of the world appear to the consciousness. The participants in a phenomenological study are chosen because they have had the experience being investigated and can share their thoughts and feelings about the experience. The distinguished data collection method in a phenomenological study is the personal, unstructured interview. The questions used need to focus on meaning and be designed to elicit the “essence” of the experience from the perspectives of the participants. From the data analysis, the researcher derives an overall description of the general meaning of the experience.

Based on the literature study, I concluded that phenomenology would be the most suitable strategy for this study. This was based on the fact that phenomenological studies are designed to describe and interpret the meaning of the experience as perceived by participants. Furthermore, in this study, the subjective experience of each participant would form the core of the inquiry. Another aspect that made this strategy useful was the fact that as the researcher, I would, through my interaction with the participants, gain insight into how each one of them made meaning of their experience of their own CPD and how this had contributed to their professional confidence. I concur with Ary et al. (2002:23), who state that “you must not only look at what people do, but also at how they think and feel, and must experience what happens to them”. The phenomenological study will therefore enable me as researcher to make meaning of participants’ experience by being closely involved with their world.

4.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

4.5.1 Population

According to Welman et al. (2005:52), the population is the study object and consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events, or the conditions to which they are exposed. A research problem therefore relates to a specific
population and the population encompasses the total collection of all units of analysis about which the researcher wishes to make specific conclusions. On the other hand, Sapsford and Jupp (2006:27) claim that the first step in sampling is to define the population of interest clearly and accurately. They define a population as the total collection of elements actually available for sampling. A useful discipline for the researcher is to bear firmly in mind precisely which elements were available in the intended population and which were not, and to use this information to limit the extent of the claims he/she makes about the generalisation of the results.

Springer (2010:100) claims that a population is the entire group of individuals that a study is intended to investigate. This author further states that the population of interest identified in a particular study is called the target population. In some cases, target populations are large, in others, target populations are relatively small. In addition, Ary et al. (2002:163) view a population as all members of any well-defined class of people, events or objects. For example, in a study where adolescents constitute the population of interest, you could define this population as all boys and girls within the age range of 12 – 21.

Similarly, Gay and Airasian (2003:102) argue that the first step in sampling is to define the population. They define the population as the group of interest to the researcher, the group to which the results of the study will ideally generalise. Populations may be virtually any size and may cover almost any geographical area. Also, the entire group the researcher would really like to generalise to is rarely available. The population that the researcher would ideally like to generalise to is referred to as the target population. The population that the researcher can realistically select from is referred to as the accessible or available population. In most studies, the chosen population is generally a realistic choice (e.g. accessible), not an idealistic one (i.e. target).

In the case of this study, the target population comprised 30 primary schools in the Uitenhage District of the DoE in the Eastern Cape Province. This is due to the fact that I was employed by the Uitenhage District of the DoE, and chose to work with the schools which formed part of that District.
4.5.2 Sample

Miller and Salkind (2002:51) maintain that a sample is a set of research participants selected from a population. The goal of sampling is to select a sample where the sampling error (or difference between sample and population characteristics) is minimized. That way, the sample best represents the population of interest, and generalisability is maximised.

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:169), sampling involves selecting units of analysis (e.g. people, groups, artifacts, settings) in a manner that maximises the researcher’s ability to answer research questions set forth in a study. The unit of analysis refers to the individual’s case or group of cases that the researcher wants to express something about when the study is completed and is, therefore, the focus of all data collection efforts. In addition, Sapsford and Jupp (2006:27) are of the opinion that a sample is a set of elements selected in some way or another from a population. The aim of sampling, they claim, is to save time and effort, but also to obtain consistent and unbiased estimates of the population status in terms of what is being researched.

Sampling is the process of selecting a number of participants for a study in such a way that they represent the larger group from which they were selected. A sample comprises the individuals, items, or events selected from a larger group referred to as a population. If a quantitative sample is well selected, the research results based on it will be generalisable to the population. If a qualitative sample is well selected, it will likely focus on a limited group of articulate participants (Gay & Airasian, 2003:101-102).

Springer (2010:109-113) states that in qualitative research, sampling is informed by the ultimate goal of obtaining rich descriptions of people’s beliefs, behaviours and experiences. Sample sizes, for instance, tend to be smaller than they are in quantitative studies. The information gathered from each participant in a qualitative study tends to be more extensive and requires more contact with the participants – in short, more information is collected from fewer participants. Qualitative sampling is often described as “purposeful”, because the goal is to deliberately identify
individuals, organisations and/or materials that are informative. The approach to sampling on which a qualitative researcher ultimately relies, is determined by the research questions that either guide the design of the study or emerge during the gathering of information.

In having to decide on the type of sampling for this study, I opted for purposive sampling, as the literature guided me in regarding this type of sampling as appropriate for this study. In terms of purposive sampling, researchers handpick participants for a study, using their judgement to choose participants for the specific qualities they bring to the study. Purposive sampling can provide data that are more specific and directly relevant to a research concern or interest (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004:148-149). In addition, Gay and Airasian (2003:115) state that in purposive sampling, also referred to as judgement sampling, the researcher selects a sample based on his/her experience and knowledge of the group to be sampled, and identifies criteria for selecting the sample. Clear criteria provide a basis for describing and defending purposive samples. Much of the sampling in qualitative research is purposive.

According to Miller and Salkind (2002:53-54), in purposive or judgemental sampling, the researcher selects a subgroup of the population that, on the basis of available information, can be judged to be representative of the total population. Observations are then restricted to this subgroup and conclusions from the data obtained are generalised to the total population.

Springer (2010:107) describes purposive sampling as a procedure in which the researcher samples whoever he/she believes to be representative of a given population. This view is echoed by Ary et al. (2002:169), who add that the critical question in purposive sampling is the extent to which judgement can be relied on to arrive at a typical sample. The authors further state that because of its low cost and convenience, purposive sampling has been useful in attitude and opinion surveys, as mentioned in the previous section.

All the examples and/or definitions of purposive sampling cited in the body of literature consulted, strengthened my belief that purposive sampling was best suited
to this study. The criteria for selecting a sample for this study were that the participant needed to be a primary school educator in the Uitenhage District and directly involved in CPD management. I firmly believe that the sample, which consisted of the IQMS coordinator at each of 12 primary schools in the Uitenhage District of the Eastern Cape DoE, would be representative of the whole population, namely all educators at primary schools in the Uitenhage District. The reason why I chose IQMS coordinators was, because as members of the SDT, they were directly involved with educators’ CPD, as it formed part of their duties and responsibilities as IQMS coordinators. Using them as a sample would therefore suit my purpose to gain insight into and rich information on how educators were involved in their own CPD. The 12 primary schools chosen were all situated in relative close proximity to one another and to my workplace, thus saving time and money. I was also quite familiar with most of the participants, as my job entailed frequent interaction with them as representatives of their respective schools. In view of all this, I was convinced that purposive or judgemental sampling would be the most suitable choice for my study.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The use of qualitative research implied that this study had to make use of data collection methods that were associated with qualitative research methods. According to Creswell (2009:178), data collection steps include setting the boundaries for the study, collecting information through unstructured or semi-structured observations and interviews, documents and visual materials, as well as establishing the protocol for recording information. In addition, Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2007:35) argue that methods is a term that refers to the specific techniques employed by a researcher, such as surveys, interviews, observation – the more technical aspects of the research. Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2007:35) further claim that in good research, methods are consistent with the logic embedded in the methodology of the particular study. Springer (2010:143) claims that the ultimate goal of data collection in qualitative studies is not quantitative measurement, but rather rich narrative description. Similarly, Welman et al. (2005:207) state that qualitative research is not concerned with the methods and techniques to obtain appropriate data for investigating the research hypothesis, as in the case in quantitative research. Qualitative data are based on meanings expressed through
words and other symbols or metaphors. The researcher attempts to understand the participant’s life world and focuses on the participant’s experience of specific phenomena.

As referred to in section 1.8.3, the data collection process of this study consisted of Phase 1 and Phase 2. During Phase 1, questionnaires and individual as well as focus group interviews were used. Based on the findings of Phase 1, I designed a workshop, with the aim of coming up with a strategy to improve the educators’ involvement in CPD. This workshop was geared at evaluating the experiences gained by the participants, through an evaluation questionnaire. This allowed me to gain insight into how the participants saw their own involvement in their own CPD, and enabled me to come up with guidelines on how the participants could increase their levels of involvement in their own CPD.

In the following sub-sections, the focus will be on the various data collection methods used in both Phase 1 and Phase 2 of this study, as outlined in Figure 4.1.

**FIGURE 4.1: Data collection in this study**

**PHASE 1**

**Aim:** To gather information in order to address the research question: *What are the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their involvement in their own CPD and how to find a strategy to enhance their professional confidence through such involvement?*

**Questionnaires:** (12 participants) (see Appendix 5)
Individual interviews (12 participants) (see Appendix 6(a))
Focus group interviews (2x4 participants) (see Appendix 7(a))

**PHASE 2**

**Aim:** To gain insight into the participants’ perceptions of and viewpoints on their level of involvement in their own CPD and to design guidelines to assist educators in increasing their professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD.

Workshop (8 participants) (see Appendix 8(a))
- Workshop activities (see Appendix 8(b))
- Report back from participants (see Appendix 9(c))
- Evaluation form (see Appendix 9(d))
4.6.1 Phase 1: The questionnaire

From literature, Sapsford and Jupp (2006:102) explain that questionnaires are a highly structured method of data collection. The chief advantages being cost and speed; it is far quicker to conduct an investigation by questionnaire than by interview. However, the level of literacy of the respondents must be carefully considered before questionnaires are chosen as data collection method. Lankshear and Knobel (2004:36) express the view that with questionnaires, the emphasis is on gathering a range of responses to set items from a range of people. They regard questionnaires as useful for identifying trends or preferences across a large number of people.

According to Miller and Salkind (2002:301-302), questionnaires take a great time and energy to develop, but when designed and administered correctly, they provide a significant and accurate assessment. Miller and Salkind (2002:302), as well as Gay and Airasian (2003:283-284), agree that the following points are important in the design and construction of a questionnaire:

• The questionnaire should be brief and easy to respond to.
• Long questions should be avoided.
• Questions must be clear and unambiguous.
• Participants should be given a specific deadline by which the completed questionnaire is to be returned.

Welman et al. (2005:174) maintain that when designing a questionnaire, the researcher should seek out as much as possible previous research on the topic or related topics. Open-ended questions allow participants to formulate their responses themselves. In a self-completed questionnaire, a line or space is left for the participant to write his/her answer; there is no prior list of answers. The advantage of open-ended questions is that the participant’s answers can provide a rich source of varied material. A closed or pre-coded question offers the participant a set range of answers to choose from; he/she must simply tick the appropriate boxes on the questionnaire.
Gay and Airasian (2003:283-284) argue that questionnaires should be attractive, brief and easy to respond to. They claim that participants are turned off by questionnaires that have a sloppy appearance or on which the wording is crowded or misspelt. Lengthy questionnaires are a big turn-off. To meet these guidelines, the researcher should carefully plan both the content and the format of the questionnaire. No item should be included that does not directly relate to the topic of the study. Identifying sub-areas of the research topic can greatly help in developing the questionnaire. Questions should be clear and unambiguous. Participants must be given a specific deadline by which the completed questionnaire must be returned. This date should give the participants enough time to respond, but should discourage procrastination. Each letter sent to participants should be signed individually.

4.6.1.1 Administration of questionnaires in study

Guided by the literature, I carefully considered the type of questions to be included in the questionnaire. As far as possible, the questions used in the questionnaire for this study, were directly related to the topic and aim of the study to get answers to the research sub-questions. I decided to use open-ended questions, as these would give me insight into how educators experienced their own CPD and to which extent they were involved in their own CPD. A copy of the questionnaire is included as Appendix 5.

With regard to the administration of the questionnaires, I first set up individual appointments with the principal and IQMS coordinator (participant) of each of the participating schools. Having received a warm welcome at each of the 12 schools, I explained in detail what my research was all about and what would be expected from the participants. I also highlighted certain aspects, for example, ethical issues such as confidentiality and the participants’ right to withdraw at any time should they wish to do so. I also emphasised the fact that my research would in no way disturb the smooth running of the school day, and that I would be subject to the participants’ availability at times suitable to them. I then allowed for questions from the principal and/or the participant regarding the research. Subsequently, I personally hand-delivered the questionnaire to each participant at his/her school, indicating that I would come and collect the completed questionnaire at a fixed date, approximately in
one week’s time. In most cases, the questionnaire was ready when I went to collect it. One or two participants did not manage to complete the questionnaire and asked for extension of a day or two to complete it. I acceded to their requests, and we made arrangements on how they would get the questionnaire to me. I successfully managed to get back all twelve questionnaires, fully completed. Included with the questionnaire was the Informed Consent Form (Appendix 4) on which the participants were required to give their written consent to form part of the study. This served as a good start to my data collection process and enabled me to start immediately on the data analysis of the questionnaire as data collection method.

The next sub-section will elaborate on the interview as the second data collection method used in this study.

4.6.2 Phase 1: Interviews

4.6.2.1 Qualitative interviews

My reason for interviewing the same participants who had completed the questionnaire was to fill in the gaps left by the responses to the questions in the questionnaire, as well as to obtain clarity on those issues that were not properly addressed in the questionnaire.

From the literature, Gay and Airasian (2003:209-210) concur with Gubrium and Holstein (2002:83) that qualitative interviewing is based in conversation, with the emphasis on the researcher asking questions and listening, and the participants answering. These authors all maintain that interviews can explore and probe participants’ responses to gather more in-depth data about their experiences and feelings. They further state that the purpose of most qualitative interviewing is to derive interpretations, not facts or laws, from the participants’ responses.

Likewise, Creswell (2009:181) and Bogdan and Knopp-Biklen (2007:103) contend that in qualitative interviewing, the researcher conducts face-to-face interviews or engages in focus group interviews, with six to eight interviewees in each group. These authors further claim that the interview is used to gather descriptive data in the
participant’s own words so that the researcher can develop insight into how participants interpret a certain phenomena.

4.6.2.2 Different types of individual interviews

Gibson and Brown (2009:86-90), Robson (2002:270-271) and Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:224-225) agree on the three different types of interviews, namely structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews; which have characteristics as listed under the different headings below.

4.6.2.2.1 Structured interviews

The structured interview has predetermined questions with fixed wording, usually in a pre-set order. The structured interview is written with probes, transitions and follow-up questions. Researchers use their research interests and knowledge of the topic to decide the exact areas into which they are going to enquire. Once the interviews have been conducted, an analysis is undertaken around the themes represented in the question topics.

4.6.2.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews involve specifying the key themes of the interviews, which are in turn formulated as key questions. The wording of questions can be changed, particular questions that seem inappropriate can be omitted, or additional ones included. Interviewers are also free to probe the research participants for more information on particular points.

4.6.2.2.3 Unstructured interviews

Unstructured interviews involve asking questions without any or with very little pre-definition of the topical concerns of the interview. It allows the researcher to go with the flow and pose impromptu questions as the interview progresses. Informal interviews, because of their lack of structure, typically take more time to conduct and
more time to analyse (Gibson & Brown, 2009:86-90; Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009:224-225; Robson, 2002:270-271 &).

Based on the examples cited in the literature studied, the interview type I settled for was the semi-structured interview, as this type of interview allowed me to explore issues that were not necessarily included in the interview schedule, in order to pursue findings and directions that would enhance the data collected. The interview guide is included as Appendix 6(a).

4.6.2.2.4 Procedures of conducting individual interviews in study

Prior to holding the actual interviews, I arranged a time and venue suitable to him/her with each of the twelve participants. I also double-checked with them a day or two before the scheduled date to confirm their availability. The schedule for the individual interviews is included as Appendix 6(b).

On the day of the interview, I saw to it that I reached the venue early, and ensured that my voice recorder was in good working order. Before each interview, I again asked each participant whether he/she was comfortable with the interview being recorded. Nobody objected to their interview being recorded.

All twelve participants were interviewed. Only three interviews had to be rescheduled, due to the three participants having other school or personal commitments that clashed with the date and time of their respective interviews. Three of the interviews took place in an office at my workplace, whilst the other nine were all held at the participants’ respective schools. Most of the interviews were held after school, as I made it clear that ethical considerations dictated that I would not impose on participants’ time during their normal teaching hours.

In most cases, the venues in which the interviews were held, were conducive to conducting interviews, with the exception of the venues at one or two schools. In these cases, due to the limitations of the infrastructure of the specific school, we were often interrupted by someone wanting to use the office we occupied, doors slamming or telephones ringing and/or the intercom system being used to make
announcements. This, however, was not insurmountable and we were able to conduct the interview in privacy after some time.

A very positive aspect was the attitude of all twelve participants. Everyone was very eager to participate in these interviews and responded candidly, often offering much more information than what was requested from them. This augured well for the ensuing focus group interviews I had to schedule with the participants. After each interview, I sincerely thanked each participant, ensuring him/her of my sincere appreciation of the time and energy they put into these interviews. After having completed each of the twelve interviews, I made a summary of each individual interview and, finally, a summary of all the interviews, in an effort to find distinct commonalities and glaring discrepancies, if any. This also allowed me to determine the gaps as to what information was still needed to answer the research questions.

In the next sub-section, focus group interviews as data collection methods used as part of the investigation will be discussed in detail.

4.6.2.3 Focus group interviews

In an effort to fill the gaps identified after having summarised the individual interviews, I elected to do focus group interviews with the same participants. This was necessary in order to obtain the information needed to answer the research questions.

King and Horrocks (2010:65-71), who cite Morgan (1997), and Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:235-238), citing Krueger (1994), as well as Drew and Raymond and Weinberg (2006:50-52), Basit (2010:104-105), Denscombe (2007:179) and Gomm (2008:226-229) all share the same view on focus group interviews, which have been summarised as follows:

- It can be regarded as a “research technique which collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher”.
- The aim is to facilitate interactive discussion and the sharing and understanding of views.
• The group consists of anything between four and twelve participants.
• The interaction between the participants provides the researchers with the required data.
• This interaction helps the researcher to understand the reasoning behind the views and opinions expressed by the participants.
• The focus group interview is usually recorded and the data are transcribed and then analysed using techniques suitable for qualitative data.
• It is a cost-effective way of gathering data from a number of people.
• The benefit of the interaction between participants is that it exposes the reasoning and underlying logic used by participants.
• Focus group interviews are best regarded as falling within the scope of qualitative interviewing.

4.6.2.4 Procedures of conducting focus group interviews in study

The focus group interviews were scheduled with the twelve participants divided into two groups of six each and the interviews were held at a venue where there was no possibility of any interference or disturbance. The time was set for the end of the school day, in order not to interfere with the participants' teaching time.

A day or two before the interview, I contacted each participant individually in order to ensure maximum participation. However, on Day One, two participants cancelled due to unforeseen school commitments. I elected to continue with the other four participants, as time was of the essence and I had no guarantee that they would all be available on an alternative date.

On Day Two, again only four of the six participants were available, due to another important meeting for schools being held at the same time. I again decided to continue with the four participants, as everyone's busy schedules made it very difficult to find an alternative date and time suitable to all.

Both interviews proved to be very fruitful, as all participants participated actively and were all very vocal in their responses to the questions put to them. I allowed for each and every participant to respond to every single question, as I wanted the responses
to be all-inclusive, in order to form a better conception of how the different schools and persons engaged with the CPD of educators. The interview schedule is included as Appendix 7(b).

The questions posed during the focus group interviews centred around those issues in the individual interviews identified as needing more probing and more clarification from the various participants. It also allowed me to get a more general idea of how the participants felt about certain key aspects of educators’ CPD and what could be done to motivate them to become more involved in their own CPD.

Both focus group interviews were recorded, with the permission from participants. After each interview, I played the interview individually and then made a combined summary. After having summarised both interviews, I made a general summary of the two interviews, with the view of looking for similarities, as well as differences in the two groups’ responses to specific questions. This served to give me an overall picture of how the participants viewed the implementation of educators’ CPD, and specifically the role of the individual educator through involvement in his/her own CPD, with the aim of increasing his/her professional confidence.

4.6.3 Phase 2: Conducting a workshop

As this study indicated in Chapter One, data for Phase 2 were collected by means of a workshop on CPD, centering around all the key issues highlighted in the data analysis of data collected in Phase 1. The purpose of this workshop was to devise a strategy to increase educators’ professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD. This workshop was based on the findings of Phase 1, with the focus on evaluating the experiences gained by the participants in the study by means of an evaluation questionnaire, including personal reflections voiced by the participants. After having completed the data collection and data analysis procession of Phase 1, I set about planning the workshop that constituted Phase 2 of the data collection process. The aim of this workshop was to allow me, as the researcher, (1) to gain insight into the participants’ perceptions of and viewpoints on their level of involvement in their own CPD; as well as (2) to guide the participants in the direction of a change in attitude towards improved levels of involvement in their own CPD.
Firstly, I contacted each participant personally, enquiring of him/her whether the date and time I had in mind for the workshop would suit him/her. I reminded the participants of the fact that I had, from the onset, informed them that the workshop would conclude the data collection process. After the group interviews, I again explained to everybody that the workshop would be the final data collection method I would use. They all responded favourably to my request to hold the workshop on the suggested date and time.

According to Dheram and Rani (2008:1), researchers can use workshops as an alternative tool for data collection on unobservable phenomenon such as attitudes, perceptions and opinions. Workshops, Dheram and Rani (2008:1) claim, allow for interaction amongst peers, encourage them to think on the issues through reflective activities and facilitate learning from the experience. In addition, Steyn (2010:542) describes a workshop as a qualitative report during which data are gathered by means of written reports on open-ended questions and a report-back session.

These examples from the literature substantiated my idea of using a workshop to gain an understanding of how the participants experience their commitment to their own CPD, and what their views were on possible changes to bring about a strategy to raise these levels of involvement, in order to increase their professional confidence. Fischer (2004:385) claims that workshops can be useful for identifying typical barriers that hamper effective negotiation and for proposing ways of overcoming these resistances. To me, this relates to educators who are often reluctant to become involved in their own CPD, and who resist change, as they know that change would require them to leave their comfort zones and become involved in CPD activities. Thus, I was convinced that a workshop would be an ideal data collection method to assist me in ascertaining what the participants’ views were on the level of their involvement in their own CPD.

After having secured the venue for the workshop, and receiving permission from the participants to schedule the workshop for that specific date and time, I set about planning the actual workshop programme. The activities to be covered in the workshop emanated from the crucial issues highlighted in the questionnaires, as well as the individual and focus group interviews. These issues emerged as themes
during the data analysis of Phase 1, each with a number of categories or sub-themes.

I designed the workshop in such a way that these issues would be addressed by means of the activities the participants would be engaged in during the workshop. The aim was to guide the participants to discuss possible solutions to the issues that impacted on the CPD of educators. Dheram and Rani (2008:7) maintain that a workshop creates a forum where, through interaction, participants can explore, modify and create ideas, negotiating with the tacit and explicit knowledge bases at their disposal. They could develop a perspective on the issues/questions so as to contribute more meaningfully to the study.

At the onset of the workshop, the participants were given an opportunity to reflect on how they perceived their involvement in their own CPD. This was done by giving each participant a few minutes to inform the other workshop attendees about their views regarding their involvement in their own CPD. After that, the workshop programme started. This was done by dividing the participants into two groups. As only eight of the twelve participants attended, the two groups consisted of four members each. After the welcome and introductory activity of reflection, the groups were allocated various workshop activities, as set out in the programme. Each activity related to the CPD of educators, and their involvement therein. The groups were given a timeframe in which to complete each activity. Before the activity, each group had to select a scribe and a reporter.

The reporter then gave feedback on the activity after the group discussion. After the report-back of each group, all the participants were allowed to engage in robust discussion of the activity and to elaborate on the feedback given by the group. As the researcher, I would listen, comment and also summarise the discussion. These discussions enabled me to reach a broader view of what the participants’ views were and how they envisaged possible changes to their involvement in their own CPD.

The activities covered in the workshop, centred around the following issues, which emanated from the data analysis of the data collected during Phase 1 by means of the questionnaire and the individual and focus group interviews:
• Developing a staff development programme.
• Factors hampering effective implementation of educators’ CPD.
• The role of SMTs in IQMS.
• Motivating educators to become involved in their own CPD.

At the end of the workshop, the educators were afforded the opportunity to complete an evaluation form, providing information on how they experienced the workshop and to which extent their views on their involvement in their own CPD might have changed. The workshop programme is included as Appendix 8(a), the activities as Appendix 8(b), feedback on activities as Appendix 9(c), and the evaluation form as Appendix 9(d).

The participants all engaged enthusiastically in every activity that formed part of the workshop. Everyone was actively involved in all the group discussions and added value to the workshop through their vigorous debate and contributions. This proved to be a viable forum for discussions around educators and their involvement in their own CPD.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Creswell (2009:148), data analysis in qualitative research consists of preparing and organising the data for analysis, then reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the codes, and finally representing the data in figures, tables and/or a discussion. From the literature review I conducted, this is the general process that researchers use.

Creswell (2009:148) further cites Huberman and Miles (1994) as commenting on the central steps of coding the data (reducing the data into meaningful segments and assigning names for the segments), combining the codes into broader categories or themes, and displaying and making comparisons in the data graphs, tables and charts. These, they state, are the core elements of data analysis. Beyond these elements, these authors present different phases in the data analysis process. Huberman and Miles (1994) provide more detailed steps such as writing marginal notes, drafting summaries of field notes, and noting the relationships between the
categories. Creswell (2009:148) stresses the need to create a point of view; a stance that signals the theoretical perspective taken in the study, whilst Wolcott (1994) discusses the importance of forming a description from the data, as well as relating the description to the literature.

Gibson and Brown (2009:3,4,5) give the following definitions of data analysis. Gibson and Brown (2009:3) cite the New Oxford English Dictionary (2007) as defining analysis as follows:

- “Detailed examination of the elements or structure of something; typically as the basis for discussions or interpretation”. They also refer to Marshall and Rossman’s (1995) definition, namely:
- “Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships and underlying themes” and, lastly, they cite Wolcott’s (1994) definition of data analysis:
- “Analysis refers quite specifically and narrowly to systematic procedures followed in order to identify essential features and relationships”.

Henning et al. (2004:101) claim that the true test of a competent qualitative researcher lies in the analysis of the data, a process that requires analytical craftsmanship and the ability to capture understanding of the data in writing. In showing the workings of the data, a researcher will also show his/her understanding of design logic. He/she will be able to fit the analysis procedures with the methodological position of the study and consistently and coherently manage the analysis (and interpretation) process according to the principles of the study design.

According to Henning et al. (2004:127), data analysis in qualitative research is an ongoing, emerging and iterative or non-linear process. Before you begin with an analysis, data are transcribed, which simply means that texts from interviews, observational notes or memo’s are typed into word-processing documents. These transcriptions are then analysed, either manually or with computer programmes. To analyse literally means to take apart words, sentences and paragraphs, which is an important act in the research project in order to make sense of, interpret and theorise that data. This is done by organising, reducing and describing the data.
In view of all these statements in the literature about data analysis, I had to be cautious in deciding how to go about analysing the data I collected through questionnaires, individual as well as focus group interviews, as well as the workshop presented to the participants as the data collection method known as Phase 2 of the study. I was guided by the different sources of literature to then set out to analyse the data collected as part of my investigation into how to develop a strategy to improve educators’ professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD.

The data collection methods used in Phase 1 comprised questionnaires, and individual as well as focus group interviews. The data collected by means of these methods were then analysed, in order to determine the content of the workshop as data collection method for Phase 2. The following sub-section will give a detailed account of the data analysis process that was followed in analysing the data collected during both phases after a thorough literature theorisation.

Silverman (2011:274) refers to the interpretative phenomenological analysis as an approach to qualitative data analysis. In summary, this approach entails the following:

- Read a single transcript (note initial comments and ideas).
- Generate initial themes (transform comment into themes).
- Create initial list of themes.
- Cluster themes (order list of themes into connected areas).
- Create list with superordinate themes and sub-themes.
- Go to new transcripts (repeat above processes and refine list of themes).
- Create a final list with superordinate themes and sub-themes.

In addition to this, Gibson and Brown (2009:135) recommend that the researcher keeps the following questions in mind when doing qualitative data analysis:

- What are my main areas of interest or themes?
- What kind of picture am I developing through my categories and codes?
- How do I know if a code is relevant or not?
According to Ary et al. (2002:464), the first step in analysing qualitative data involves organizing the data. The first thing to do in organising is to reduce the data, which is done through a process called coding. Field notes, transcripts and other qualitative data are categorised. The most common approach is to read and reread all the data and sort them by looking for units of meaning – words, phrases, sentences, subjects’ way of thinking, and events that seem to appear regularly and that seem important. The classification of similar ideas, concepts, activities, themes, settings and so on, represents a category. The researcher’s interests and style and the research question to a great extent influence the categories chosen. Likewise, Babbie (2005:394) claims that the key process in the analysis of qualitative social research data is coding – classifying or categorising individual pieces of data, coupled with some kind of retrieval system. Together, these procedures allow one to retrieve materials one may later be interested in.

The views stated above are substantiated by Henning et al. (2004:127) who cites, amongst others, Dey, Miles and Huberman, and Silverman as having identified some principles appropriate for most types of qualitative research analysis, namely:

- Qualitative analysis takes place through the data collection process. The search for similarities, differences, categories, themes, concepts and ideas forms part of the continuous process.
- Analysis commences with reading all the data and then dividing the data into smaller, meaningful units.
- Data segments or units are organised into a system that is predominantly derived from the data, which implies that the analysis is deductive.
- The researcher uses comparisons to build and refine categories, define conceptual similarities, and discover patterns.
- Categories are flexible and may be modified during the analysis.
- Importantly, the analysis should reflect the respondents’ perceptions.
- The result of an analysis is a kind of high-order synthesis in the form of a descriptive picture, patterns or themes, or emerging or substantive theory.

Similarly, Ritchie and Lewis (2003:221) argue that in most analytical approaches, data management initially involves deciding upon the themes and concepts under
which the data will be labeled, sorted and compared. In order to construct this thematic framework, however, the analyst must first gain an overview of the data coverage and become thoroughly familiar with the dataset. In reviewing the chosen material, the task is to identify recurring themes or ideas. Once these recurring themes have been noted, themes are sorted and grouped under a smaller number of broader, higher order categories or “main themes”, and placed within an overall framework.

From the literature studied, it was obvious that the analysis process starts with coding. Yates (2004:205-207) has the following to say about coding: The initial type of coding alone during a research project is termed open coding. This is unrestricted coding of the data. This is done by scrutinising the field note, interview or any other document very closely, line by line or even word by word. The aim is to produce concepts that seem to fit the data. Axial coding consists of intense analysis done of one category at a time, in terms of the paradigm items (conditions, consequences and so forth). This results in cumulative knowledge about relationships between that category and other categories and subcategories. A convenient term is axial coding, because the analysing revolves around the “axis” of one category at a time. Selective coding pertains to coding systematically and concertedly for the core category. The other codes become subservient to the key code under focus. To code selectively then means that the analyst delimits coding to only those codes that relate to the core codes in sufficiently significant ways. Selective coding, then, is different from open coding, but occurs within the context developed while doing open coding.

Henning et al. (2004:104) describe open coding as having the analyst reading through the entire text in order to get a global impression of the content. Because open coding is an inductive process, in terms of which the codes are selected according to what the data mean to the researcher, one needs to have an overview of as much contextual data as possible. Therefore, it makes good sense to read all the relevant transcriptions before any formal meaning is attributed to a single unit. This process is illustrated in Figure 4.2 below.
Henning et al. (2004:106) further claims that once all the sets of data have been coded and categorised, the researcher is left with the important task of seeing the whole. The questions asked at this point are:

- What are the relationships in meaning between all these categories?
- What do they say together?
- What do they say about each other?
- What is missing?
- How do they address the research question(s)?
- How do these categories link with what I already know about the topic?
- What has been foregrounded in the analysis?
- What has moved to the background?
- What additional data gathering and/or analysis have to be completed?

When the researcher is satisfied that the themes represent a reasonably “researched” chunk of reality, each theme can be used as the basis for an argument in discussions around them. Processed data do not have the status of “findings” until
the themes have been discussed and argued to make a point, and the point that is to
be made, comes from the research question(s) (Henning et al., 2004:107).

Babbie (2005:394) cites Strauss and Corbin as defining open coding as follows:
“Open coding is the part of analysis that pertains specifically to the naming and
categorizing of phenomena through close examination of data. Without this first
basic analytical step, the rest of the analysis and communication that follows could
not take place. During open coding the data are broken down into discrete parts,
closely examined, compared for similarities and differences, and questions are asked
about the phenomena as reflected in the data. Through this process, one’s own and
others’ assumptions about phenomena are questioned or explored, leading to new
discoveries”. Similarly, Denscombe (2003:27) states that the initial stage of coding
has been termed “open coding”. The aim of open coding, this author claims, is to
discover, name and categorise phenomena; also to develop categories in terms of
their properties and dimensions.

Having been guided by the literature on the steps involved in coding, I went about
managing and analysing the data collected in Phase 1 by means of the
questionnaires, the individual and focus group interviews in the following manner, as
illustrated in Figure 4.3 and described in detail in the sections below.
Phase 1:
Analysing questionnaires:
• Read through responses of questionnaires.
• Re-read responses of questionnaires.
• Organized data of questionnaires on chart.
• Formed global perspective of data from questionnaires.
• Summarised commonalities and differences.

Analysing interviews:
• Played audiotape
• Re-played
• Organized
• Summarized (see Appendix 9(a))
• Combined

Combining two sets of data:
• Read
• Made notes
• Coded
• Identified themes

Phase 2: WORKSHOP
• Read through all data
• Re-read
• Coding
• Themes confirmed those found in Phase 1

FINAL ANALYSIS
• Look at similarities and differences between Phase 1 and Phase 2 results
• Identify possible solution / guidelines / strategy

Phase 1:
Analysing questionnaires:
• Read through responses of questionnaires.
• Re-read responses of questionnaires.
• Organized data of questionnaires on chart.
• Formed global perspective of data from questionnaires.
• Summarised commonalities and differences.
Analysing interviews:
• Played audiotaped version of interview (both individual and group interviews).
• Re-played interview.
• Organised responses.
• Summarised individual and focus group interviews respectively on chart.
• Prepare combined summary of individual and group interviews on chart, outlining commonalities and differences.

The two sets of data (from questionnaires and interviews) were combined to form one cumulative set of data:

• Read through combined data base several times.
• Allocated codes to data in margin.
• Identified themes.
• Identified categories/sub-themes.

The following five main themes emerged from the analysis of the data collected during Phase 1 of the study:

• The contribution made by the school, the SMT and the DoE in the individual educator’s CPD.
• The role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD.
• Factors influencing the effective implementation of educators’ CPD.
• The areas of skills and competencies that educators need to acquire through CPD.
• The role of the IQMS process in educators’ CPD.

These themes, together with the sub-themes, will be discussed in detail in Chapter Five, which will focus on the findings and results of the study.

Phase 2:
• Read through data from workshop.
• Re-read through data, namely written feedback by participants, summaries of discussions, as well as evaluation feedback.
• Coded data.
• Confirmed themes identified in Phase 1.

In the final analysis, the themes mentioned in the previous section were strengthened by the findings of Phase 2.

The findings and results of the data analysis conducted in Phase 2 of the study will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Five of the study. The proposed strategy will be presented as guidelines to assist educators in improving their involvement in their own CPD.

4.8 MEASURES OF TRUSTWORTHINESS

From the literature studied, it was established that various authors have highlighted the importance of researchers ensuring, throughout the process of data collection and analysis, that their findings and interpretations are accurate. Subsequently, this study will elaborate on the measures used in this investigation to check on the quality of the data and the findings.

Creswell and Plano Clarke (2011:133) state that while validity differs in quantitative and qualitative research, it in both approaches, serves the purpose of checking on the quality of the data and the results. In qualitative research, the focus is more on validity to determine whether the account provided by the researcher and the participants is accurate, can be trusted, and is credible. Validity is achieved through the analysis of the researcher and from information gleaned while visiting with the participants. Similarly, De Vos (2002a:351) cite Marshall and Rossman (1995) as observing that all research must respond to measures that stand as criteria against which the trustworthiness of the research can be evaluated. These measures can be phrased as questions to which all research must respond. The questions posed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) have been paraphrased by Marshall and Rossman (1995) in De Vos (2002a:351) as follows:
• How credible are the particular findings of the study? By what criteria can we judge them?
• How transferable and applicable will these findings be to another setting or group of people?
• How can we be reasonably sure the findings would be replicated if the study were conducted with the same participants in the same context?
• How can we be sure that the findings are reflective of the participants and the inquiry itself, rather than a creation of the researcher’s biases or prejudices?

De Vos (2002a:351) further states that Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to these questions as “establishing the truth value” of the study, i.e. its applicability, consistency and neutrality. Every systematic inquiry into the human condition must address these issues, the authors claim. Lincoln and Guba (1985) further propose four constructs that more accurately reflect the assumptions of the qualitative approach, namely:

• Credibility
• Transferability
• Dependability
• Confirmability

Based on the views mentioned above, the procedures engaged to ensure the trustworthiness of the study will be discussed in the sections below, under the following headings.

4.8.1 Credibility

Ary et al. (2002:351) argue that the integrity of qualitative research depends on attending to the issue of validity. Validity in qualitative research concerns the accuracy or truthfulness of the findings. The term most frequently used by qualitative researchers to refer to this characteristic, is credibility. How confident can you be in the researcher’s observations, interpretations and conclusions? Are they believable (credible)? In addition, De Vos (2002a:351) views credibility as the alternative to
internal validity, in which the goal is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in such a manner as to ensure that the subject was accurately defined and described. Ritchie and Lewis (2003:273) cite Hammersley (1992) as posing the question that qualitative researchers have to address as far as internal validity (credibility) is concerned, as follows: “Are we accurately reflecting the phenomena under study as perceived by the study population?” Triangulation is regarded as an approved way of ensuring credibility in qualitative research. Creswell (2005:252) refers to triangulation as a primary method used by qualitative researchers to validate their findings. De Vos (2002a:341) cites Erlandson (1993) as describing triangulation as a method through which the researcher seeks out several different types of sources that can provide insight about the same events or relationships.

In this study, triangulation was achieved through the different data collecting methods, namely the questionnaire and the individual and focus group interviews (Phase 1 of the data collection process), and the workshop (Phase 2 of the data collection process). This allowed me, as the researcher, ample opportunity to ensure that the data collected would be regarded as credible.

4.8.2 Transferability

According to Ary et al. (2002:454), transferability is the degree to which the findings of a qualitative study can be applied or generalised to other contexts or other groups. Qualitative inquirers argue that it is possible to apply qualitative findings to other people, settings and times to the extent that they are similar to the people, settings and times in the original study. The transferability of a set of findings to another context depends on the similarity or “goodness of fit” between the context of the study and other contexts. The transfer is made by the potential user of the findings, who must compare and decide on the similarity of the two contexts. Similarly, De Vos (2002a:352) describes transferability as the alternative to external validity on generalisability, in which the burden of demonstrating the applicability of one set of findings to another context rests more on the investigator who makes the transfer, than on the original investigator. A qualitative study’s transferability or generalisability to other settings may be problematic. To counter challenges, the researcher can
refer back to the original theoretical framework to show how the data collection and analysis are guided by concepts and models.

In this study, transferability was achieved by a rich description of the research methods and the findings, in order to assist other researchers in determining whether the data could be transferred to other settings. A detailed and comprehensive description of the research design and methodology was given. Both individual and focus group interviews were recorded and the summaries of these recordings, served as a database for this study. By availing this database to other researchers, I created an opportunity for them to ascertain the measure of transferability of the data collected during this investigation.

4.8.3 Dependability

Marshall and Rossman (2006:203) maintain that in dependability, the researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study and changes in the design created by an increasingly refined understanding of the setting. In addition, Schwandt (2007:299) states that dependability focuses on the process of the inquiry and the researcher’s responsibility for ensuring that the process was logical, traceable and documented. De Vos (2002a:352) describes dependability as the alternative to reliability, arguing that as such, dependability represents a set of assumptions very different from those that shape the concept of reliability. Likewise, Ary et al. (2002:455) claim that qualitative researchers prefer the term dependability rather than reliability. In contrast to quantitative research, where tight controls enhance replicability, qualitative studies expect variability, because the context of studies changes. Therefore, consistency is viewed as the extent to which variation can be explained. This is referred to as dependability. Possible strategies to investigate dependability are using an audit trail, stepwise replication code-recording and triangulation.

This study ensured that the dependability was explained by using rich, detailed descriptions of the research methodology, as well as making available audio-recordings and transcriptions, and triangulation of the different methods of data
gathering such as questionnaires, individual as well as focus group interviews and the workshop in Phase 2.

4.8.4 Confirmability

De Vos (2002a:352) cites Lincoln and Guba (1985) as emphasising the need to ask whether the findings of the study could be confirmed by another. Ary et al. (2002:456) claim that confirmability in qualitative research is very similar to the quantitative researcher’s concept of objectivity. Qualitative researchers are concerned with whether the data they collect and the conclusions they draw would be confirmed by others investigating the same setting. Therefore, in qualitative studies, the focus shifts from the neutrality of the researcher to the confirmability of the data and the interpretations. De Vos (2002a:352) summarise the qualitative criterion for confirmability as follows: “Do the data help confirm the general findings and lead to implications?” In addition, Marshall and Rossman (2006:203) cite Lincoln and Guba (1985) as using confirmability to assert that the logical and interpretive nature of qualitative research can be made somewhat transparent to others, thereby increasing the strengths of assertions. Researchers should assert the strengths of qualitative methods by showing how they will develop an in-depth understanding of, and even empathy for, the research participants, to better understand their worlds.

This study made provision for confirmability by keeping records of the raw data collected through questionnaires, individual interviews, focus group interviews and the workshop, as well as records of data analysis. I made concerted efforts to hold planning and debriefing sessions with my supervisor who, with her expertise in conducting research, could assist me in validating my findings, thus ensuring the confirmability of the study.

In summary, Marshall and Rossman (2006:204) maintain that qualitative researchers can respond to the traditional social sciences concern for replicability, by taking the following steps:

- Firstly, they can assert that qualitative studies by their nature cannot be replicated, because the real world changes.
Secondly, by planning to keep thorough notes and a journal or log that records each design decision and the rationale behind it, researchers allow others to inspect their procedures, protocols and decisions. Finally, by planning to keep all collected data in well-organised, retrievable form, thus making them available easily if findings are challenged or if another researcher wants to re-analyse the data.

4.9 ETHICAL MEASURES

Whilst I was engaging the participants in this study, I was mindful of the ethical guidelines that direct researchers as to their conduct before, during and after the investigation. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:420), ethics entail promoting what is good, respectful and being fair. Ethical guidelines, these authors state, include but are not limited to informed consent, deception, confidentiality, anonymity, harm to participants and privacy. In addition, Seale, Gobo, Gubrium and Silverman (2004:231) maintain that research participants have the right to know that they are being researched, the right to be informed about the nature of the research and the right to withdraw at any time, whilst Gomm (2008:365) defines research ethics as the rules of morally good conduct for researchers.

For this study, the initial steps in the process of ethical measures involved applying for approval and/or permission from the following persons/institutions:

Firstly, I applied to the Research Ethics Committee of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, for approval to do the research (see Appendix 1 for (a) application form and (b) letter of permission).

Secondly, I applied to the District Director of the Uitenhage DoE for permission to conduct research at specific schools in the District (see Appendix 2(a) for the letter of application and 2(b) for the approval granted).

Thirdly, whilst awaiting responses from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University and the District Director, I made appointments with the principals of 12 different schools in the Uitenhage District. During these meetings, I produced a letter from myself seeking permission to use the
IQMS coordinator of each identified school as a participant in my investigation. I also gave each principal as well as the IQMS coordinator a brief overview of what my study would entail (see Appendix 3 for letter to school principals).

• Fourthly, on receiving letters of approval from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University as well as the District Director of the DoE, I contacted the principals concerned for their responses to my request for permission to use their schools in my study.

Within the space of two weeks, I managed to meet with the IQMS coordinators of the twelve different schools on the mutually agreed dates. Before each meeting, I phoned the participant to confirm the data and time. At each school, I received a warm welcome, with the principal receiving me and leading me to his/her office, where I would meet with both the principal and the IQMS coordinator.

I started off by thanking the principal and IQMS coordinator for the privilege of addressing them. Next, I provided a brief background sketch of myself and my career, and a short motivation for selecting this particular topic. I then proceeded to read the consent form (Appendix 4) to them, emphasising and/or clarifying certain aspects. This was followed by a detailed explanation of the code of ethics. Thereafter, I took them through the questionnaire (Appendix 5), providing clarity where needed. I also made provision for either the principal or participant to pose questions, if they so wished.

Next, I requested the participant to read through the documents in order to familiarise himself/herself with the contents thereof and to give the necessary consent, as well as complete the questionnaire. We then decided on a mutually suitable date for me to collect the questionnaires from the school.

During this briefing session, I emphasised the ethical principles, as set out by the Ethics Committee of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. These principles include the following:

• The right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity.
• The right to freedom of expression and access to information.
• The need to obtain informed consent from participants in writing.
• The participants' right to withdraw or terminate participation in the study, at any time they wished to do so.
• The need to obtain permission from the participants to audio-record any interviews.

The participants were assured that, should they so desire, summaries of interviews and/or audiotape recordings of data collected at their school would be made available to them.

4.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the research design and the methodology used for this study were discussed in full detail. This included the rationale for making use of qualitative research. The chapter also alluded to the ethical measures that were adhered to during the investigation.

The methods used to collect the data included the following: In Phase 1 of the study, data were collected by means of questionnaires, individual interviews, as well as focus group interviews. Phase 2 consisted of a workshop on CPD as a data collection method. Five main themes emerged, namely:

• **Theme 1**: The contribution by the school, SMT and DoE in educators’ CPD.
• **Theme 2**: The role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD.
• **Theme 3**: Factors influencing the effective implementation of CPD.
• **Theme 4**: The skills and competencies that educators need to acquire through CPD.
• **Theme 5**: The role of the IQMS process in educators’ CPD.

Finally, the chapter outlined the appropriate steps taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the study. The next chapter will provide a detailed discussion of the findings of this study.
5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will focus on the findings of the study and a detailed discussion thereof. The discussion will centre around the findings of the qualitative data collected by means of questionnaires, individual and focus group interviews, as well as the design and implementation of the workshop presented by the researcher.

As captured in the title of this study, the aim of this investigation was to develop a strategy to increase the professional confidence of educators by improving their involvement in their own CPD. This study intended giving educators guidance and direction with regard to what they should do to increase the levels of their professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD. This strategy emanated from the analysis of data collected in both Phase 1 and Phase 2 of this investigation. The findings and results will therefore give direction on what the strategy expects of educators who are serious about enhancing their own professional confidence through CPD activities.

Punch (2009:170-171) states that qualitative research concentrates on the study of human behaviour and social life in natural settings. Its richness and complexity mean that there are different ways of analysing social life, and therefore multiple perspectives and practices in the analysis of qualitative data. However, the author further states “what links all the approaches is a central concern with transforming and interpreting qualitative data – in a rigorous and scholarly way – in order to capture the complexities of the social worlds we seek to explain”.

According to De Vos (2002a:339-340), the purpose of conducting a qualitative study is to produce findings. De Vos (2002a:339-340) cite Janesick (1994) as arguing that qualitative research depends on the presentation of solid descriptive data, so that the researcher leads the reader to an understanding of the meaning of the phenomenon being studied. These authors further state that as categories and patterns between
them emerge in the data, the researcher must engage in the critical act of challenging the pattern that seems so apparent. The researcher must, they state, search for other, plausible explanations for these data and the linkages between them. Alternative explanations always exist; the researcher must search for, identify, and describe them, and then demonstrate how and why the explanation offered is regarded as the most viable.

Likewise, Ritchie and Lewis (2003:237) are of the opinion that an initial stage in descriptive analysis refers to unpacking the content and nature of a particular phenomenon. The main task is to display data in a way that is conceptually pure, makes meaningful distinctions and provides content that is illuminating.

As explained in Chapter Four, data were collected by means of questionnaires, individual and group interviews, as well as the workshop on CPD. From the questionnaires, interviews and workshop, five themes emerged, namely: The contribution by the school, SMT and DoE in the educators’ CPD; the role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD; factors influencing the effective implementation of CPD; the skills and competencies that educators need to acquire through CPD; and the role of the IQMS process in the CPD of educators.

These five themes and their categories are illustrated in Table 5.1 below.

**TABLE 5.1: Themes and categories emerging from data analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMES</th>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **THEME 1:** The contribution by the school, SMT and DoE in the educators' CPD. | • Create opportunities for CPD.  
• Motivate and encourage.  
• Workshops, courses and support. |
| **THEME 2:** The role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD.  | • The educators’ attitude.  
• Collaboration with others.  
• Self-reflection. |
| **THEME 3:** The factors influencing the effective implementation of educators’ CPD.  | • Lack of planning for CPD.  
• Career stages of educators. |
| **THEME 4:** The skills and competencies that educators need to acquire through CPD. | • Educators’ confidence and knowledge.  
• Teaching strategies and subject content knowledge. |
| **THEME 5:** The role of the IQMS process in the CPD of educators.  | • Staff development programme.  
• Implementation of IQMS process. |
The themes and categories will now be discussed in line with Table 5.1. Each theme, with its categories, will be explained as relating to the specific questions posed to the participants. A literature control will also be integrated with this discussion, in order to confirm or rebuke the findings, i.e. to contextualise the findings.

5.2 EMERGING THEMES

Themes illustrated in Table 5.1 address the research question, as formulated in Chapter One, namely: *What are the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their involvement in their own CPD and how to find a strategy to enhance their professional confidence through such involvement?*

Subsequently, the following sub-sections will elaborate on each emerging theme with its categories separately, relating each theme to the specific questions from the questionnaire and interviews that led to the theme emerging.

The following format will be used with regard to the categories of the five themes that emerged from the data analysis process:

- An explanation of the questions used during the data collection that gave rise to the theme, and subsequently the category.
- Examples of the verbatim responses by the participants to the questions put to them.
- A discussion of the particular category substantiated with references from the literature consulted.
- Concluding remarks.

This format will be followed in respect of all five themes and their respective categories, as the findings of the data analysis process are highlighted and discussed.
Before embarking on a discussion of the themes as illustrated in Table 5.1, I would like to provide details of the demographics of the participants used in this study. Table 5.2 illustrates the demographics of the participants of this study.

**TABLE 5.2: Demographics of the participants of this study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant No.</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Head of Department</th>
<th>Deputy Principal</th>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td><strong>Average: 26 yrs</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1 THEME 1:

The contribution by the school, school management team, Department of Education in the educators’ continuous professional development

This theme emerged from the analysis of the following questions directed at the participants during the research.

- Explain what the role of the SMT should be in CPD.
- What, do you think, can the school do to improve the implementation of CPD?
- How important, do you think, is the school climate in the CPD of educators?
- How, do you think, can the District Office of the DoE contribute to the CPD of educators?

From this theme, three categories emerged, which will be addressed in detail below.
As this theme concentrates on the contribution by the school, the SMT and the DoE in the CPD of educators, the categories derived from the theme will address the different aspects of the ways in which the school, SMT and DoE can support the individual educator to increase his/her professional confidence through involvement in his/her own CPD. At the end of the discussion of the theme, these findings will be substantiated by a literature control in order to validate the theme and its categories.

5.2.1.1 Create opportunities for continuous professional development

During my interaction with the participants during the individual as well as group interviews, the workshop, as well as the responses to the questionnaires, it became evident that the participants all strongly felt that the school, the SMT and the DoE all had a responsibility to create opportunities for educators to engage in CPD activities.

Some of the responses of the participants on the need of the school and SMT creating opportunities for educators to engage in CPD included, and I quote:

• “The principal is not involved enough in CPD”.
• “The SMT does not work well together”.
• “Staff development is not high on the priority list of the school”.
• “There is not always a culture of working together amongst educators”.

The concern, therefore, is that school leadership must ensure that effective and relevant training is made available to all educators, in order to enhance the functionality of the school itself. The training and development of educators will contribute to the collective learning of all staff members.

According to Harris, Day, Hopkins, Hadfield, Hargreaves and Chapman (2003:150), the school leadership should pay considerable attention to the professional development of educators and regularly provide a range of opportunities matched to the individual needs of educators. The culture at the school must support the development of all individuals, irrespective of position or experience. In addition, Bennett and Anderson (2003:19) argue that transformational leaders are not content with being the only leaders at their schools, but instead facilitate the development of
leadership abilities within all educators. This is done by identifying and articulating a vision for the school, conveying expectations for high levels of performance, and providing both intellectual stimulation and individualised support. Likewise, Bush and Bell (2002:107) state that principals are expected to coordinate the professional development of their staff and to manage the learning community of educators as a whole, using development as part of school change. Fullan (2001:145) concurs with the aforementioned views by maintaining that school leaders can foster conditions for school growth by developing collaborative cultures across subgroups of educators, supporting and driving educator development, creating facilitative structures and monitoring educator commitment as an indicator of organisational capacity.

Bush and Middlewood (2005:152) maintain that “a school’s commitment to the provision of effective professional development on site which meets the individual and career needs of educators can have a powerful influence on their willingness to commit themselves to that school”. In addition, Alexander and Potter (2005:164) contend that educator education faces a major challenge, namely to move beyond the domain of the technical interest of management and the delivery of the knowledge, understanding and skills of a prescribed curriculum, to give sustained attention to the transformation of the educators themselves into professional lifelong learners. This will require creating schooling structures where there is time for appropriate educator personal and professional development, and scope for individual and collaborative vision and creativity.

All the examples from the body of literature cited above emphasise the need for schools and SMTs to make CPD accessible and readily available to educators, in order to equip educators to provide quality teaching and, in so doing, ensure quality learner outcomes, thereby serving to confirm the findings of this study.

5.2.1.2 Motivate and encourage educators

Any school leadership who wants to get maximum participation from the school staff should invest in their staff by as far as possible motivating and encouraging educators to become involved in CPD activities that will enhance their professional growth.
Listed below are participants’ responses in the form of direct quotations, which have a direct bearing on the issue of motivation/encouragement by the school leadership:

- “The principal acts as mentor and gives guidance, most of the time”.
- “The principal motivates and sets the example when it comes to CPD”.
- “The principal, whilst not against CPD, does not do enough to ensure implementation of CPD programmes”.
- “The principal is not involved enough in educators’ CPD”.
- “The SMT does not do enough to organize CPD programmes”.
- “It is left to the IQMS coordinator to see to CPD activities”.

From the responses stated, it is evident that the level of motivation and encouragement given by the school leadership, differed from school to school. Whilst there was no evidence of any principal and/or school leadership being averse to CPD activities, the responses by the participants reflected an insufficient level of involvement by the school leadership at some schools. It would seem that there was a genuine desire for a greater level of involvement of the school leadership through the encouragement and motivation of educators.

Schulze and Steyn (2003:156) claim that for educators, the need for support, assistance and encouragement from school leaders remains significant. This implies that opportunities should be created for all educators to improve their knowledge and skills. In addition, Van Louw and Waghid (2008:212) contend that mentorship by the school leadership has a positive influence on the professional development of educators. Van Louw and Waghid (2008:212) argue that individuals who are mentored, motivated and encouraged, progress more rapidly in their careers and experience a higher level of job satisfaction. Likewise, Blankstein et al. (2008:95-96) maintain that in order to motivate staff and boost staff morale, staff development should be vigorously promoted. By placing emphasis on the CPD of their staff, principals endorse the fact that educators are their schools’ most important asset and that showing them that they were valued, would be a major boost to the educators’ sense of self-worth. Bush and Middlewood (2006:213) argue that the prime motivators are educators’ need for achievement, recognition, responsibility, job interest, personal growth and advancement potential. School leadership would do
well to keep this in mind when using techniques to encourage improved job performance.

All the above-mentioned examples from literature highlight the findings of this investigation and the fact that it is imperative for school leadership to give educators as much encouragement and motivation as possible in order to facilitate the CPD of educators. It is quite clear that in order for educators to grow and develop professionally, they need to be motivated by the school leadership and encouraged to vigorously set out on the CPD path.

5.2.1.3 Workshops, courses and support

Based on the fact that the primary aim of CPD is to improve educators’ classroom practice, it is imperative that the school leadership, as well as the DoE, do everything in their power to expose educators to as many CPD activities as possible, in order to equip educators to meet the challenges and demands presented by the constantly changing curriculum and other educational changes. Therefore, the CPD of educators should include formal, systematic and properly structured activities, organised either by the schools or the DoE.

During the investigation, my interaction with the participants through the questionnaires and individual and group interviews elicited the following responses with regard to workshops, courses and other forms of support:

- “Workshops, courses, etc. should be practically oriented, in order to be fruitful”.
- “These workshops, courses, should suit the educators’ needs”.
- “Workshops, courses which are not related to education, are of no use”.
- “Certain workshops, courses, programmes have helped to change educators’ mindsets about CPD”.
- “One should be able to learn from whatever you are exposed to”.
- “Workshops, courses, etc. should be directed at curriculum”.
What was evident from participants’ viewpoints on workshops, courses, etc. was that they realised the importance of CPD programmes in enhancing their own professional growth. Participants were also unanimous in their viewpoint that workshops, courses and/or programmes should relate to their educational needs, in order to improve and support their classroom practice.

According to Maistry (2008:25), staff development does not simply happen: it has to be managed and led, and effectively, to ensure that it has a positive influence and represents good value for money. In addition, Bubb and Earley (2009:31) emphasise the use of CPD programmes such as courses leading to a qualification, blended learning activity programmes that involve some external expertise and school-based activity, conferences, and working with or seeking advice from consultants, universities, government agencies or subject associations.

Fishman, Best and Marx (2001:20) contend that workshops have a positive influence on educators’ knowledge and beliefs about their teaching, and also on their classroom enactment. Educator knowledge and beliefs thus changed, translating into improved learner performance and curriculum implementation. In the same vein, Mncube and Harber (2010:618) state that before the NCS was implemented in South African schools, the government had not taken into account that educators were not sufficiently trained to implement OBE. However, the DoE introduced in-service workshops, which are aimed at improving educational standards. At these workshops, educators are empowered with adequate skills to adapt to curriculum changes, to implement what is required of them and to access or use different teaching strategies.

In addition, Steyn (2010:548) emphasises that professional development workshops should help staff plan for the application of the learning content once they return to their own work environment. There should therefore be a strong correlation between what is learned at the workshop and the educators’ own work contexts. This will assist the educators in applying the knowledge and skills acquired during the workshop more effectively. Moreover, they will be able to cascade the learning content within their individual schools by means of different CPD programmes.
These responses, backed by the examples from the literature, emphasise this study’s findings that it is vitally important that the school leadership, as well as the DoE, create enough opportunities for educators to attend workshops, courses, programmes or any other CPD activities that will enhance their professional development. Coupled with this, is the need for monitoring educators’ progress, regular feedback and the necessary support to sustain the educators’ individual efforts to improve his/her teaching practice.

5.2.2 THEME 2:
The role of the individual educator in his/her own continuous professional development

Based on the fact that the individual educator is largely responsible for his/her own professional and personal growth, there are certain factors that he/she has to take into account when embarking on the journey of CPD. This sub-section will provide a detailed description of this emerging theme, with the categories that emanated from it. This theme emerged from the analysis of the following questions, which were posed to the participants during the data collection process:

- What can an individual educator do to help his/her own professional development?
- Would you agree that professional development enhances an educator’s ability to fulfil his/her responsibilities more effectively?
- What is the attitude of your colleagues towards CPD?
- How important, do you think, is the self-reflection for educators’ CPD?

From this theme, three categories emerged, each of which will subsequently be addressed.

5.2.2.1 The educator’s attitude

From the responses, it was evident that educators’ attitude towards CPD varied from school to school. However, it was enlightening to notice that at some schools, a
change of attitude had been brought about by one or more of the workshops, courses or programmes which the educators had been exposed to.

The following are some of the participants’ responses to the issue of educators’ attitudes towards CPD:

• “Initially, some of them were reluctant to engage in CPD activities. However, there has been a gradual change in attitude”.
• “Some of them are still negative towards CPD. However, the majority are in favour of CPD”.
• “Quite a few are involved in part-time studying, attending workshops and courses”.
• “Most of my colleagues are not very positive towards CPD, because of atmosphere at school”.
• “In the beginning, some were negative. With time, as they learned and got more support, they became more positive”.
• “All of them are very positive, everyone involved in CPD, one way or another”.

What emerges from the findings of this study is that educators should have a positive attitude towards their own CPD and a willingness to improve their knowledge and skills through CPD activities. Without the educator being interested in and committed to his/her own professional growth, any effort to arrange CPD programmes will be an exercise in futility.

Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:136) cite Lam and Pang (2003) as claiming that when educators are more confident in themselves, they are more prepared to be involved in learning. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2005:136) cite Lam and Pang (2003) as adding that CPD would be futile without educators’ wholehearted commitment, even if such programmes were well-designed.

According to Steyn (2005:47), educators’ attitude and commitment are at the centre of change. There is a strong relationship between how educators view themselves and how they view others. That is, educators with a low self-esteem hold a
corresponding low opinion of learners. Mokhele and Jita (2010:1765) claim that change occurs most rapidly when educators want to change and when they see some benefit in doing so. Wood and Olivier (2008:248) concur that educators with self-efficacy will become agents for positive change in their schools and contribute towards creating an environment conducive to equipping learners for life after school. Such educators will regard themselves as effective, competent and able. This literature recontextualised the findings of this study regarding educators’ attitude towards CPD.

5.2.2.2 Collaboration with others

What was evident from the participants’ responses to the issue of collaboration among educators was the fact that not all educators realised the value of collaborative learning. This, it seems, was largely determined by the atmosphere at the relevant school and whether or not educators enjoyed sound interpersonal relationships with their colleagues.

The following responses by the participants highlight their viewpoints on the issue of educators working together, either in pairs or groups, in a structured manner in order to enhance their own CPD:

• “Staff members work together all the time, motivating one another”.
• “Some educators are keen to work together; others do not want to share their knowledge”.
• “It is especially the Foundation Phase educators who regularly get together to do their planning”.
• “Educators in the same subject/phase group do work together”.
• “There is some measure of cooperation, but not all educators are willing to work together in groups”.

However, the body of literature studied, emphasises the benefits for educators who are willing to improve their teaching practice through a system of co-learning with their colleagues, as well as educators from other schools.
Fullan, Hill and Crévol (2006:94) argue that a crucial element in any design aimed at improved teaching and learning in schools is the provision of effective, ongoing and professional learning opportunities for educators; opportunities that promote the learning, not just of individuals, but of the school as a whole. Professional learning groups function through a combination of demonstration teaching, mentoring, coaching and opportunities for the teams to debrief and reflect on educators' practice and progress.

This strengthened my view that educators, in their quest for professional growth and development, need to interact with their colleagues in order to supplement one another's efforts at improving their teaching practice. Avalos (2011:17-18) states that the power of educator co-learning is emphasised in literature. This process starts with informal exchanges in the school, continues in networking and interchanges between schools, and is strengthened in formalised experiences such as courses and workshops that introduce peer coaching or support collaboration and joint projects.

Bubb and Earley (2009:31) view the collaborative learning of educators as talking to other staff, coaching, mentoring, being observed, discussing a lesson, observing someone else, teaching, collaborative planning, action research groups, and training others. In addition, Maistry (2008:131) maintains that professional development through networking via educator learning communities suggests that educators understand that learning from experience only will limit development. Educator learning communities allow educators to come together and learn from one another and to engage with curricular issues. They are a response to an important issue: that responsibility for CPD simply cannot be left to "others" (namely bureaucrats in the DoE).

The literature control confirmed the importance of this study's finding that educators need to collaborate with each other in order to enhance their CPD.
5.2.2.3 Self-reflection

One of the things to which all the participants referred, was the importance of educators reflecting on their teaching practice from time to time. This category therefore emerged from Theme 2, and the following are some of the responses by the participants with regard to the importance of self-reflection by educators as part of their CPD:

- “Educators need to do self-reflection, otherwise they will not know what their strengths and weaknesses are”.
- “If educators do not do introspection, they will not embark on any change”.
- “Self-reflection is necessary if you want to improve or develop”.
- “Change starts with you, so you have to reflect on your own attitude to CPD”.

The following extracts from the body of literature consulted, elaborate on the issue of the “reflective educator”. Adler and Reed (2002:121) cite Zeichner and Liston (1991) as describing a reflective educator as one who “is attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which he/she teaches, takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts, and takes responsibility for his/her own professional development”. Adler and Reed (2002:121) also believe that reflective educators evaluate their teaching by asking broader questions such as: “Are the results good, for whom, and in what ways?” Similarly, Jones and Vreeman (2008:159) state that educators must take individual responsibility for their own professional needs, especially in situations in which support through coaching or professional learning communities is unavailable. They claim that there are countless ways in which educators can pursue professional development on their own.

In addition, Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002:4) cite Cobb, Wood and Yackel (1990) as stating that challenging educators’ approaches prior to them attempting to change their classroom practice could be an effective motivator for change. Clarke and Hollingsworth further add that change occurs through the mediating processes of “reflection” and “enactment”. This simply suggests that educators should properly
and intensely reflect on their own teaching practice before they are ready to embark on any major changes in their teaching. It also implies that regular reflection on their own knowledge, skills and competencies should form an integral part of educators' CPD journey.

The examples from the literature, together with the participants' responses, all indicate the importance of educators undertaking some self-reflection with regard to their involvement in their own CPD. For any significant educational change to take place, educators should embrace change in their beliefs, teaching styles and teaching aids. This could only happen if educators reflect on their own teaching practice and proclaim themselves ready to undergo the change that is needed to improve the standard of teaching and learning at school, and therefore education in general.

5.2.3 THEME 3: The factors influencing the effective implementation of continuous professional development

In my interaction with the participants through the data collection process of questionnaires as well as individual and group interviews, it became clear that participants viewed certain factors as influencing the effective implementation of CPD at their respective schools.

This theme emerged from the analysis of the following questions, which were directed at the participants during the data collection process:

- When, would you say, is the most appropriate time to run professional development programmes, and why?
- Which aspects of an educators' teaching life, do you think, indicate the areas that need professional development? How would you say, can that challenges be addressed at your school?
- What, according to you, are the challenges hampering the effective implementation of CPD of educators?
This theme gave rise to two categories, each of which will be discussed individually in the following sub-sections.

5.2.3.1 Lack of planning for continuous professional development

From the participants’ responses, it was evident that not enough time and attention was devoted to the CPD of educators at schools. It would seem that school leadership at some participating schools did not realise the importance of attending to the well-being of their staff, including making provision for their CPD. Based on the fact that not all the schools had a structured, thoroughly planned CPD staff programme in place, this meant that educators were left to fend for themselves with regard to their own CPD.

Some of the responses by the participants in respect of what they regarded as factors that hampered the effective implementation of CPD included:

- “Principals and SMTs do not plan adequately for professional development”.
- “Educators’ lack of interest makes it difficult to get programmes off the ground”.
- “Our school does not have the necessary resources to plan CPD programmes”.
- “Our school does not have a staff development programme”.
- “There is no fixed time in which we do professional development”.

The participants also mentioned the fact that school leadership had to allocate time for the presentation of CPD programmes, as educators were generally reluctant to stay after school and were also not in favour of CPD activities during school holidays.

Alexander and Potter (2005:164) state that, “educator learning faces a challenge. The challenge is to move beyond the domain of the technical interests of management and delivery of the knowledge, understanding and skills of a prescribed curriculum and to give sustained attention to the formation of educators as professional lifelong learners. This would mean creating schooling structures where
there is time for appropriate educator personal and professional development and scope for individual and collaborative vision and creativity”.

According to Bennett, Crawford and Cartwright (2003:197), school leaders should be realistic about the time needed for the CPD of educators, and as such should attempt to allocate sufficient time for educators to engage in CPD activities. These school leaders should also assist educators in learning how to manage their time outside the classroom, emphasising the importance of having time to reflect on and learn from every CPD activity in which they engage. Likewise, Blankstein et al. (2008:72) argue that principals and school leaders should take the lead in planning and supporting the professional learning of educators. In addition, Marishane and Botha (2011:5) maintain that effective school principals will ensure that CPD programmes for educators are adaptable and responsive to the challenging school environment and will keep pace with continuing school improvement efforts. Coleman, Graham-Jolly and Middlewood (2003:145) contend that the onus is on school management to promote effective teaching and learning and encourage a culture of educator learning. Principals and school management should create a supportive culture in which educators can engage in CPD programmes.

All of the above-mentioned literature confirmed the main finding of this research, namely that sufficient planning for CPD is essential.

5.2.3.2 The career stages of educators

The various examples of literature consulted all emphasise the fact that educators of diverse age groups and experience need different things to motivate them, depending on the stage of their teaching career. For instance, beginner educators would need support with their teaching practice, whilst mid-career educators would need empowerment, while those near retirement age may not show any interest in being motivated to improve their teaching practice.

Almost all the participants referred to their more experienced, older colleagues as not being interested in CPD activities, citing the fact that as they were nearing retirement age, there was no benefit for them in learning anything new.
The following are some of the responses of the participants to the question whether they found some of their colleagues reluctant to engage in CPD activities, which led to the formation of this category:

- “The older, more experienced educators are the only ones who are reluctant”.
- “Those who are nearing retirement do not see the need for themselves to participate in CPD programmes”.
- “Some, especially those who are near retirement, feel they already know everything”.
- “Those near retirement age feel they do not need CPD”.

Through my interaction with the participants through the questionnaires, individual and focus group interviews, as well as the workshop on professional development, it became clear to me that the age factor played an important role in CPD activities. Practically all the participants mentioned the fact that educators who were close to retirement did not see the necessity to develop themselves further. This, the participants felt, was one of the main challenges facing CPD at their schools, especially where the majority of the staff was nearing retirement age.

Richter et al. (2010:3) have the following to say about educators in the different career stages and their commitment to or interest in professional development activities: “Research has shown that beginning educators (1 to 3 years of experience) participated more frequently than any other group of educators in mentoring or peer observation. This group also showed a high rate of attendance of formal activities such as conferences and workshops, attending university courses in their main teaching subject. Beginning educators tend to attend more activities targeting classroom management and learner discipline”. This view is echoed by Schulze and Steyn (2003:155), who claim that novice educators are generally more motivated than experienced educators.

Richter et al. (2010:3) further state that educators with 4 to 18 years of experience remain interested in adding to their knowledge and skills, while those educators with 10 to 19 years of experiences were more involved in regularly scheduled
collaboration, individual research and observational visits to other schools, than are beginning or more experienced educators. This group also frequently attends formal workshops and conferences and participates most intensively in activities relating to their teaching subject, content and teaching methods.

Lastly, these authors refer to those educators with 30 years or more teaching experience, whose careers are characterised by withdrawal from the profession. According to Richter et al., “educators at this stage tend to reduce their commitment and career ambition, tending to focus more on personal goals instead. As retirement nears, these educators can be expected to reduce their involvement in CPD activities” (Richter et al., 2010:3). Maistry (2008:131) maintains that individual educators differ in terms of experience, qualifications, present practice and expectations of the future, and that these differences influence the extent of their learning.

The views expressed by the participants are strengthened by the literature consulted and the viewpoint that educators at the different stages of their career react differently to the idea of CPD and have different aspirations with regard to career development, therefore hold ground.

5.2.4 THEME 4:
The skills and competencies which educators need to acquire through continuous professional development

This theme emerged from the following questions, which the participants were asked to respond to, in order to ascertain how educators viewed their involvement in their own CPD:

- What, in your opinion, has been the outcome of educators’ participation in CPD programmes?
- What, in your opinion, are some of the key skills/competencies that educators could develop through professional development programmes?
- Which areas of teaching would you like to see your own colleagues develop in?
The responses by the participants and the subsequent analysis of the data collected by means of questionnaires, individual and group interviews and the workshop on professional development, led to the emergence of two categories. These categories will now be discussed.

5.2.4.1 Educators' confidence and knowledge

What was obvious from the interaction with the participants and substantiated by the data analysis, was the fact that educators did not always feel confident enough in their teaching practice. This gave rise to this specific category, as part of emerging Theme 4.

The participants' responses to the questions posed to them on the issue of the skills and competencies that educators could acquire through CPD, included those listed below:

- “Keeping abreast with new technology, innovative teaching strategies”.
- “New, creative ways of teaching”.
- “Better presentation skills”.
- “Skills to boost educators’ confidence”.
- “Effective communication skills”.

Various sources of literature emphasise the fact that in order for educators to improve their teaching practice, they need to acquire the necessary skills and competencies that will help them bring about improved learner performance. This study therefore highlighted examples of the literature studied to emphasise the importance of educators acquiring these skills and competencies through CPD.

Bush and Middlewood (2006:190) cite Kinder et al. (1991) as stating that a hierarchy of outcomes resulted from the influence of the CPD of educators on actual classroom practice. These outcomes ranged from simply a recognition of the issue involved, to a significant influence upon practice. These outcomes were reflected in increased motivation and greater enthusiasm on the part of educators.
Likewise, Bennett and Anderson (2003:160) point out that schools can only cope with changing and competing external demands if the people inside the school are able to change; this requires that educators must be willing to learn new skills and ideas. Learning is therefore a key element in coping with the uncertainties of teaching. In addition, Alexander and Potter (2005:178) maintain that, “learning is a centred and centring activity, building understanding, knowledge, skills and self-belief for the individual educator, putting him/her in control of the self and then being influential on others”. This quotation emphasises the importance of educators having to set out to gain new knowledge and honing their skills through CPD.

All in all, it is clear from the analysis of the data provided by means of the questionnaires and the individual and group interviews, as well as the workshop, that educators need to equip themselves with confidence and knowledge in order to cope with the ever-increasing demands of the teaching profession on the one hand, and the global environment on the other hand. This ties in with the title of this study aimed at designing a strategy to improve educators’ professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD. A lack of knowledge and professional confidence is shown as an impediment to educators’ professional growth.

5.2.4.2 Teaching strategies and subject content knowledge

The analysis of the data captured during the questionnaires, interviews and workshop, highlighted the fact that the participants regarded the educators’ perceived lack of subject knowledge and failure to implement innovative teaching strategies as contributing to the factors impacting on the effective implementation of CPD.

The participants’ responses to the questions relating to the issues of teaching strategies and subject content knowledge of educators included the following:

• “Educators need to do more research”.
• “Educators need to become more actively involved in CPD activities”.
• “Attending workshops/courses lead to educators becoming more positive towards CPD”.
• “Educators need to improve their teaching skills e.g. use technology”.
• “Some educators need to improve their knowledge of subject content”.

Having consulted different examples of literature, I have come to the conclusion that educators need to improve their teaching practice and subject knowledge as prerequisites for improved professional confidence. The literature cited below, serves to substantiate this viewpoint.

Fullan (2001:127) argues that in successful schools, educators work in groups, examining together how well learners are doing, relating this to their teaching and then bringing about improvements, whilst Adler and Reed (2002:142) contend that “as educators deepened and broadened their subject knowledge, they would display greater confidence in their subject teaching, teach with greater flexibility across the different topics of the curriculum, be able to approach their subject in diverse ways, be able to sequence, select and grade traditional and new tasks, and elicit and probe their learners’ conceptions”. In addition, Feeney-Jonson (2008:57) maintains that developing strategies for effective teaching is a continuous process, with an ongoing learning curve for all educators. Throughout this process, the educator must link the curriculum, specific instruction and assessment to standards-based learning.

According to Gouda and Banks (2006:106), a “successful” training course should focus on the subject knowledge of educators, rather than on their educational knowledge, because the educators learn how to teach from experience. Gouda and Banks (2006:106) cite Marx et al. (1998) as noting that knowledge about teaching and classroom practice cannot be learnt independently of the situation in which it will be used. Similarly, Kriek and Grayson (2009:200) state that poor content knowledge leads to a lack of confidence and enjoyment of teaching, resulting in an unwillingness to spend time on tasks and use innovative teaching approaches.

From the results of the data analysis, together with the examples from the body of literature consulted, it is evident that in order to enhance the culture of teaching and learning, educators need to constantly update and improve their knowledge of the subject content, which in turn may lead to increased confidence and a greater commitment to the practice of teaching. This stands in direct relation to the aim of
this study, namely to bring about a strategy that will help educators to increase their professional confidence through involvement in their own CPD.

5.2.5 THEME 5:

The role of the Integrated Quality Management Systems process in the continuous professional development of educators

This theme emerged from the responses to the following questions directed at the participants during the data collection process by means of questionnaires, individual and group interviews, and the workshop on professional development. The questions listed below led to the emergence of this theme:

• Did your school have a staff development programme in the past year?
• Can you list a few of the staff development programmes in which your staff members were involved in during the past two to three years?
• Would you say staff development is high on the list of priorities of your school management plan?
• What is your role as IQMS coordinator in the professional development of the staff at your school?

Two categories emerged from this theme, each of which will be briefly discussed next under the respective sub-sections below.

5.2.5.1 Staff development programme

In order for any school to give the CPD of educators the prominence it deserves, schools should structure and plan CPD activities thoroughly, which implies that there should be a properly compiled staff development programme for the year.

The following are some of the responses by the participants pertaining to the issue of IQMS and the viability of having a staff development programme drawn up yearly:

• “Every school needs to have a staff development programme drawn up every year.
“The school leadership should create a climate which is favourable to CPD”.

“The needs of the educators will dictate which time is best suitable for CPD”.

“The SDT should be instrumental in ensuring implementation of the staff development programme”.

“The staff development programme must address the needs of all educators in the school”.

What is evident from the literature studied, is that it is vitally important for any school to have a staff development programme that coordinates and regulates the CPD of educators. The examples from the literature that follow, all serve to emphasise the importance of staff development programmes as part of the educators’ CPD.

According to Bush and Middlewood (2006:191), a staff development plan might consist of four sections:

- **Rationale:**
  Why is it needed?
  What is meant by staff development?

- **Guidelines (preparation):**
  Needs identification
  Matching of needs to provision

- **Management:**
  Implementing and monitoring the provision

- **Evaluation:**

Devising a staff development plan is crucial to the task of managing staff development, according to Bush and Middlewood (2006:191), and priorities should be closely linked to school development plans. The planning of these programmes needs to take into account the career stages of each member of staff, as well as their career aspirations and perceptions of career. Likewise, Dean (2002:53-54) argues that the professional development programmes of schools need to be coordinated.
This could be done either by the principal in a small primary school, or by a professional development coordinator, acting alone or with the support of a professional development committee. This committee’s responsibility could include helping to develop a climate in a school that is conducive to CPD activities; identifying priorities; planning a professional development programme; and helping to identify the training needs of colleagues.

Nir and Bogler (2008:379-380) are of the opinion that creating a school climate in which educators have actual influence over the planning and implementation of professional development processes, may motivate these educators to become active in CPD programmes. These authors further add that the greater the control educators have over the professional development programme and the greater these processes relate to their classroom practice, the greater educators’ satisfaction with the staff development programme will be.

The findings of the study in this specific regard point to the fact that staff development programmes should form a vital part of any school’s planning for the year. It is also evident from the participants’ responses and the examples from the literature, that careful planning of such programmes should be the order of the day. Factors such as time, costs, available resources, and above all, the diverse needs of the individual educators should be considered when drawing up a staff development plan. Thus, consultation on all levels of the school seems imperative. The SDT should play an important role in ensuring that a staff development programme is structured accordingly and implemented effectively in order to lead to opportunities for educators to develop professionally.

5.2.5.2 Implementation of the Integrated Quality Management Systems process

My interaction with the participants during the empirical part of this investigation led me to conclude that the IQMS process did not come to its full right at all the participating schools. It appears that not all educators viewed the IQMS process as being beneficial to their professional development.
The participants’ responses to questions relating to the issue of IQMS and the implementation thereof, include those listed below:

- “The role of the SMT is to ensure implementation of the IQMS process”.
- “IQMS has too much paperwork”.
- “IQMS should be divorced from monetary gain”.
- “The process of IQMS must be streamlined to decrease the administrative tasks”.
- “The principal and the SDT must continually monitor the process”.

The following examples from the literature emphasise the necessity of educators viewing the IQMS process as fundamental to their professional development and personal growth.

Bush and Middlewood (2006:193) cite Oldroyd and Hall (1991), and Fidler and Cooper (1992) as emphasising the importance of monitoring staff development activities, primarily to ensure that they are actually occurring. Since the school should be concerned with supporting the development of educators holistically, all the relevant opportunities should be available. School leaders need to assess the balance between these opportunities. For example, there may be too much or too little emphasis in a current year’s programme on those areas that are only of immediate benefit to the school. Any balance must be considered within the context of the level of resources allocated to each area.

Dean (2002:25-26) states that if schools are to improve learner performance, there needs to be a process of supporting educators in their work and at the same time bring some pressure to bear on them to achieve challenging targets. This is what performance management (IQMS) is intended to do. The procedures involved in performance management include:

- Observation of the educators’ work in the classroom by the team leader.
- Collection of information about other aspects of the educators’ work.
- Regular feedback and dialogue between staff members.
Discussion of training needs and opportunities for professional development.

According to De Clercq (2008:16), appraisal will have legitimacy and positive results only when adequate support resources and capacity are mobilised and sensibly targeted at the differentiated educators' needs. In addition, Anderson and Kumari (2009:285) are of the opinion that a continuously improving school will include the following:

- Efforts to improve learner learning would include changes in curriculum and in teaching practices.
- Improvement efforts over time would be increasingly focused on the needs of educators.
- Collective monitoring of school performance by staff members would occur continuously.

From the results of the data analysis, coupled with the reconceptualisation thereof, one may safely conclude that the implementation of the IQMS process is vital to the CPD of educators. It is also evident that this process has to be carefully managed and monitored, in order to ensure that the different developmental needs of educators are being addressed through efforts by the school, as well as the DoE and finally, the individual educator himself/herself. The focus of IQMS should also not be merely seen as a form of appraisal, but specifically as a tool to be used for the professional development of educators. The idea of IQMS as crucial to educators’ CPD, is directly linked to the following research sub-question: “What is the role of the IQMS process in the CPD of educators?”

The participants’ vigorous and active participation in the workshop led to them coming up with possible solutions to those aspects that influence the CPD of educators, in order to lead educators to an increase in their professional confidence. These discussions and written feedback enabled me to design the proposed strategy that would assist educators on their CPD journey in becoming more competent and develop greater professional confidence.
5.3 PROPOSED STRATEGY TO BRING ABOUT GREATER PROFESSIONAL CONFIDENCE FOR EDUCATORS BY IMPROVING THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR OWN CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

5.3.1 Introduction

As indicated by the title of this study, as well as the research question and the research aim, the primary goal of this investigation was to design a strategy that would lead to educators displaying greater professional confidence, which would be acquired through educators’ increased involvement in their own CPD.

The first question to ask, would be: “What exactly is a strategy?” Next, “Why did this study decide on a strategy?”, and, lastly, “What is the proposed strategy?” This study will respond to these questions as follows:

• Elucidation of concept: Strategy

According to the Cambridge Dictionary (2004:642), a strategy is a plan that one uses to achieve something; the act of planning how to achieve something; a method or plan chosen to bring about a desired future, such as achievement of a goal or solution to a problem, as illustrated in section 1.5.2.

• Why a strategy?

The reason why I decided on a strategy, was that I was eager to come up with something innovative in an effort to add to the current body of knowledge in the literature around the aspect of educators’ CPD. Although much has been said about educators’ CPD and the various factors pertaining to it, nowhere did I come across a specific route being mapped out for the individual educator to follow in his/her effort to grow and develop both professionally and personally. This strategy, then, is an effort on the part of this study to guide the individual educator in a specific way on how to go about increasing his/her professional confidence through improved involvement in his/her own CPD.
The next sub-section will expand on the strategy this study proposes for educators to implement, with the aim of boosting their own professional confidence.

5.3.2 Proposed strategy

As mentioned in section 4.6.3, under Phase 2, the workshop as data collection method was aimed at allowing me as the researcher to gain insight into the participants’ perceptions of and viewpoints on the level of their involvement in their own CPD, as well as to guide the participants towards a change in attitude with regard to an improvement in their involvement in their own CPD. In addition, I also wanted to hear the participants’ views on possible changes in educators’ CPD, in order to formulate a strategy that would assist educators in improving their professional confidence through increased levels of involvement in their own CPD.

Through the participants’ active engagement in the reflections, discussions and verbal feedback, coupled with the written feedback on group activities and the completed evaluation questionnaires, I was able to undertake a data analysis and use the findings thereof as a basis for the proposed strategy. These findings provided the study with viable options to encourage educators to become more involved in their own CPD, and by doing so, aim at improving their levels of professional confidence.

The strategy, which is illustrated in Figure 5.1, is based on the findings of the analysis of the data collected in both Phase 1 and Phase 2. These findings helped me, as the researcher, to come up with a possible strategy to help educators increase their professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD.
FIGURE 5.1: Proposed strategy to help educators increase their professional confidence

Step 1: Needs analysis and goal formulation
- Educators formulate vision statement.
- Specify goals for own teaching.
- Identify own development needs.
- Self-reflection on own strengths and weaknesses.
- Self-reflection on collaboration.
- Accept ownership of own CPD.

Aim: continuous professional individual development

Step 2: Evaluate resources and support available
- Secure resources and support.
- Human resources.
- Mentoring, assistance, monitoring.
- Join and collaborate with professional learning communities.

Step 3: Engagement
- Engages in discussions and reflection.
- Discussions must be planned, structured and recorded.
- Attends workshops, programmes, courses, conferences.
- Keeps a personal journal of reflection.

Step 4: Extend knowledge base
- Improves knowledge
  - Subject content knowledge
  - Practical knowledge and skills
  - Pedagogical content knowledge
- Involvement within school and outside, e.g. further studies.
- Changes existing practice.
- Extends communication skills.

Step 5: Transformation
- Agent of change
  - Mindset change
    - more self-confidence
    - more assertive
    - greater self-efficacy
  - Learner-centredness.
  - Loyalty and commitment to school.
  - Become a mentor.
  - Take responsibility for own CPD.

AIM OF STRATEGY
To help the educator with his/her self-development, to assist the educator in becoming more reflective, to guide the educator in designing, implementing and evaluating CPD programmes, to address the needs of the individual educator, as well as the school, to increase the professional confidence of the educator by helping him/her become more professionally competent, to add to the existing body of knowledge on the CPD of educators.
Below, I will elaborate on how I think that this proposed strategy for educators will enhance their professional confidence.

5.3.2.1  **Step 1: Needs analysis and goal formulation**

As indicated in Figure 5.1, Step 1, the educator needs to start out by having a vision statement. This will entail setting specific goals about his/her teaching for himself/herself. This step requires of the educator to undertake a needs analysis of what he/she will be needing in his/her endeavour to improve his/her teaching career by improving his/her professional confidence through increased levels of involvement in his/her own CPD. It also includes undertaking self-reflection on his/her own strengths and weaknesses with regard to his/her teaching career, as well as how well he/she works collaboratively with others to continuously develop, both professionally and personally. What is obvious, is that educators need to set out on the journey of CPD by firstly having the right attitude towards professional development, seeking the support from school leadership, and working collaboratively with others to improve their knowledge and skills. Most importantly, educators need to change their mindsets by exploring new, innovative ways of classroom practice in an effort to improve the culture of teaching and learning.

5.3.2.2  **Step 2: Evaluate resources and support available**

Step 2 of Figure 5.1 states that educators must secure all the necessary resources and support to assist them in their CPD. This entails using human resources in the self, their DSG, their SDT, the school leadership, the DoE, the community and any other person or organisation that can help them on this journey of continuing professional development. This will also include being mentored by others and school structures giving assistance through the process of monitoring the progress made by the individual educator. It also means that the educators must become part of a professional learning community or community of practice, where they can learn collaboratively with and through other educators. Educators need to identify and secure the necessary support and resources, including human resources, in the form of assistance from school leadership and other educators and/or other stakeholders. They also need to find a mentor who will become involved in a professional learning
community through which they can participate in collaborative learning partnerships with other educators.

5.3.2.3  **Step 3: Engagement**

In Step 3 of Figure 5.1, the educator is expected to engage in discussion and reflection. The educator should meet with colleagues, peers and mentors on a regular basis in an effort to discuss his/her professional goals, share ideas and teaching strategies, classroom practices, reflect on the methods he/she is currently employing, share his/her observations, and discuss possible tactics to improve his/her practice. These discussions and reflections must be carefully planned and structured through his/her own professional development programme, and recorded in a journal that the educator should use for reflection on his/her CPD activities and progress made. It is also the duty of the school leadership to create the necessary environment to enable the educator to collaborate with other educators, by planning together, observing each other teaching and being given the opportunity to reflect on his/her teaching practice and, by so doing, encouraging the educator to assess his/her own professional competence.

5.3.2.4  **Step 4: Extend knowledge base**

Step 4 of the diagram in Figure 5.1 indicates that educators need to make sure that their knowledge of practice is improved, coupled with increasing their knowledge of subject content. This needs to be done through attending relevant courses, workshops and/or any other opportunity through which the educators can increase their knowledge and skills. This step involves principals using their authority to influence educators positively and to provide the necessary platform for educators to develop professionally, by giving educators the necessary support and enough time for their CPD programmes. Educators, on the other hand, should take the initiative to improve their own knowledge base by engaging in further studies, doing research, becoming involved in CPD programmes, both inside and outside the school, and by improving, amongst others, their own communication skills.
5.3.2.5 Step 5: Transformation

Step 5 expects of the educator to learn to see himself/herself as an agent of change in the school in which he/she teaches, outside the school, in the community and all other areas of his/her private life. This calls for a change in mindset and attitude towards teaching as a career, towards people and towards life in general. It requires of the educator to display the values that will help him/her to work together with others in a harmonious way, to be learner-centred and to have a sense of loyalty and commitment to the school. It will also lead to increased involvement in school affairs; both as far as curricular and extra-curricular activities are concerned. It will improve the educator’s relations with others and lead to increased levels of collegiality at the school. What is evident from this step, is that in order for the educator to bring about any change in his/her teaching career, the educator must first and foremost regard himself/herself as an agent of change. This implies that the educator must be prepared to change his/her beliefs and attitudes with regard to his/her teaching practice. Only once the educator is willing to embrace a change in thinking in mindset and is open to innovative, new ways of thinking and doing, will he/she set out on the journey of becoming more assertive, more confident and learn to take responsibility for his/her own CPD. This, in turn, will give rise to greater levels of self-efficacy, greater professional confidence and more commitment and loyalty to the school. The spin-off of all this improved involvement in his/her own CPD will then achieve what the study set out to do, namely increase the educators’ professional confidence.

As stated in section 2.4, CPD resides under the framework of educational management, with the focal points being the educator, the roles played by the school leadership, as well as the DoE, in assisting and supporting educators to become professionally competent. As cited by the examples of literature consulted, educational management’s core purpose is to facilitate effective learner outcomes through effective teaching. The steps in the proposed strategy highlighted the fact that the school leadership has to support educators by providing the necessary resources, ensuring that educators are mentored where necessary, and that the school is an enabling environment that ensures that educators are involved in CPD activities. Therefore, this strategy has a direct link to educational management in
that it will enhance learner performance through aiding educators to increase their professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD.

In order to validate my idea of which strategy educators should employ to increase their professional confidence through involvement in their own CPD, I would like to refer to the various sources of literature I consulted that are relevant to this issue.

5.3.3 Literature control

As this strategy entails educational change, I would like to cite Fullan (2001:115) as expressing the view that educational change depends on what educators do and think. The author further states that classrooms and schools become effective when (a) quality staff are recruited to teaching, and (b) the school is organised to energise educators and reward their accomplishments. Professionally rewarding workplace conditions attract and retain good people. Using sustained improvement as yardstick will enable conditions under which educators will thrive. Similarly, Feeney-Jonson (2008:90) maintains that to develop professionally, educators should set specific goals. This author cites Heller as recommending that educators set two types of goals: one type related to school-wide objectives, and the other more personal.

With regard to the role of school leadership, Bush and Bell (2002:62) state that “school leadership should help educators to broaden the concepts of human and physical resources, and enhance their professional competence to use and manage scarce resources in teaching and learning for quality outcomes”. Bush and Bell (2002:63) further cite Cheng (2000) as referring to school leaders as organisational developers. This implies that the school leaders play their role as environmental analyser, learning promoter and organisational developer. They help staff members to be sensitive to school changes and internal barriers, analyse them, reflect on findings, draw implications, establish strategies, plan actions and develop the school. They use strategic management or development planning to promote organisational improvement and the development among educators. Similarly, Marishane and Botha (2011:60) argue that when change sets in, people should have the opportunity to think about it, apply their minds to it and express their feelings about it. When change is introduced into the school, the school leadership should seek ways to
make this change appealing to educators, learners and administrators. This involves shifting their mental and emotional settings from being passive recipients of change to becoming actively engaged in critical interrogation and appreciation of new, innovative ideas brought about by this change. In addition, Fullan et al. (2006:95) are of the opinion that change and sustained improvement are impossible without good educational leadership, especially where whole-school change is the aim. The role of leadership, then, is to help provide the focus and expert support systems for all educators, with the emphasis on what is needed to improve educators’ teaching practice.

According to Adler and Reed (2002:132), some educators need support in learning how to reflect, and this involves learning, “how to consider events of teaching in fine detail and to plan for modest and attainable changes that could gradually produce improvements not only in performance and confidence, but also in an understanding of how different aspects of classroom activities relate and interact”. This substantiates Step 3, which states that educators must engage in discussion and reflection.

In support of Step 4 of the proposed strategy, I would like to refer to Mushayikwa and Lubben (2009:380) as mentioning that the classroom practice platform has the following three aspects:

- **Subject content knowledge** – whereby educators acquire teaching material and notes which will help improve their teaching resource-base.
- **Practical knowledge and skills** – which is knowledge about teaching methodology and presentation.
- **Pedagogical content knowledge** – this implies adaptation of teaching to suit content/integration of expertise. Adaptations involved make use of current events or contextualising materials, modifying materials to suite the local conditions and adapting and organising materials to the depth required by the syllabus. These experiences will help educators to experience an increase in their pedagogical content knowledge (Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2009:380).
In addition, Feeney-Jonson (2008:90) contends that the integration of professional development should be ongoing, incorporated in staff development programmes as well as in more focused work on particular instructional skills. Development must include helping the educator increase content knowledge, master teaching techniques and understand how learners learn.

With regard to Step 5, which outlines the idea of the educator as an agent of change, various examples from the literature validate the ideas expressed in the strategy. For example, Fullan (2001:44-45), states that changes in beliefs and attitudes challenge the core values held by individuals regarding the purpose of education. Fullan (2001:44-45) further states that changes in beliefs and understanding are the foundation of achieving lasting reform. Changes in what people think are essential if the intended outcome is to be achieved. Likewise, Bush and Bell (2002:114) maintain that “the essence of professional development for educators must surely involve the learning of an independent, evidence-informed and constructively critical approach to practise within a public framework of professional values and accountability, which are also open to critical scrutiny”.

All these examples from the literature studied, serve to emphasise that the steps outlined in the proposed strategy will all contribute to the educators’ CPD and will assist the educator in striving to increase his/her professional confidence through improved involvement in his/her own CPD.

5.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the findings of the study were discussed in detail, outlining the five themes that emerged from the data analysis, as well as their respective categories. These discussions were substantiated by the body of literature that I consulted on each of the various aspects discussed. This was followed by a discussion of the proposed strategy, that was designed to improve educators’ professional confidence through increased involvement in their own CPD.

Theme 1 looked at the contribution by the school, SMT and the DoE in the educators’ CPD; Theme 2 investigated the role of the individual educator; Theme 3 highlighted
the factors influencing the effective implementation of CPD; Theme 4 emphasised the skills and competencies an educator could acquire through CPD; and Theme 5 interrogated the role of the IQMS process in the CPD of educators. The themes and their categories were set out in Table 5.1.

The proposed strategy was illustrated in Figure 5.1, outlining which steps the individual educator should follow in order to increase his/her professional confidence through improved levels of involvement in his/her own CPD. This is in response to the aim of this study, which was to design such a strategy. This strategy also succeeds in addressing all the research sub-questions mentioned in section 1.3. The ideas presented in both the themes and the strategy were validated by a literature control, which served to substantiate my views on how the educator should go about to increase his/her professional confidence through improved involvement in his/her own CPD. By designing this strategy, I wanted to, firstly, assist educators in changing their classroom practice through gaining increased levels of professional confidence, but I also wanted to contribute to the current body of knowledge on the CPD of educators.

The next chapter, Chapter Six, will summarise the study and draw conclusions relating to the research questions, based on the findings. It will also make recommendations, in line with the findings of this study.
CHAPTER SIX
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, PROBLEMS, SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was aimed at designing a strategy to bring about greater professional confidence in educators by improving their involvement in their own CPD.

In the previous chapter, the findings were presented according to the themes that emerged from the data. These themes were the following: Theme 1: The contribution by the school, SMT, DoE in educators’ CPD; Theme 2: The role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD; Theme 3: The factors influencing the effective implementation of CPD; Theme 4: The skills and competencies that can be acquired through CPD; Theme 5: The role of the IQMS process in the CPD of educators. Each theme consisted of a number of relevant categories. The responses of the participants to the questions put to them by means of the questionnaire, the individual and group interviews, as well as the workshop on professional development, constituted the focal points of the analysis of the data collected. The research results were then presented in the form of a synopsis, as illustrated in Table 5.1, followed by a detailed discussion, which would set the scene for conclusions and recommendations.

This chapter will concentrate on drawing conclusions, making recommendations, illuminating the challenges and problems experienced during the investigation and making suggestions for further research, as well as outlining the significance of this study.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions drawn from the study of educators' involvement in their own CPD will be placed within the context of the themes and related categories pertaining to the findings of this investigation.
6.2.1 THEME 1:  
The contribution by the school, school management team, Department of Education in the educators’ continuous professional development

6.2.1.1 Create opportunities for continuous professional development

With regard to this category, the following conclusions were drawn: The school leadership did not always provide ample opportunities for educators to engage in CPD activities. In addition, the principal and SMT did not at all times make staff development a priority of the school management plan. Also, the DoE did not give adequate support in the form of training programmes, workshops and courses to assist schools and educators with their CPD.

6.2.1.2 Motivate and encourage educators

In this category, the inferences drawn ranged from that the principal and school leadership did sometimes give guidance to educators regarding the implementation of CPD programmes. Added to this, the school leadership was not always actively involved in CPD activities. Ultimately the principal and SMT did not sufficiently motivate educators to become actively involved in their own CPD.

6.2.1.3 Workshops, courses and support

The conclusions varied from statements that workshops, courses, etc. were not always suited to the educators’ needs, to that certain workshops and courses had been instrumental in leading to a change in educators’ mindset about CPD. Also that workshops and courses should be relevant to the curriculum.

All three these categories in Theme 1 relate directly to the objective, mentioned under section 1.4.2, namely to determine the contributions of the school, as well as the DoE, in facilitating professional development for educators.
6.2.2 THEME 2: The role of the individual educator in his/her own continuous professional development

6.2.2.1 The educators’ attitude

The following inferences were made in respect of this category: Certain individual educators displayed a negative attitude towards CPD. Many educators were engaged in CPD through formal part-time studies, attending workshops and doing short courses. For the most, however, educators were positive towards CPD and engaged in CPD programmes.

6.2.2.2 Collaboration with others

The conclusions that can be derived from this category, centred on the scope of collaboration of the individual educator with others, and are: At some schools, staff members worked together, whilst motivating each other. Educators in the Foundation Phase especially showed a tendency to work together. In some instances, not all educators showed a willingness to work together with other educators.

6.2.2.3 Self-reflection

In this category, the conclusions formed are the following: Self-reflection is necessary, in order for educators to ascertain what their own strengths and weaknesses are. Educators need to reflect on their own attitude to CPD, and failure to do self-reflection, will lead to resistance to change on the part of the educators.

All the conclusions mentioned in this category have a direct link to the objective in section 1.4.2, namely to establish the role of educators in facilitating their own professional development.
6.2.3 THEME 3:
The factors influencing the effective implementation of continuous professional development

6.2.3.1 Lack of planning for continuous professional development

The conclusions that were drawn with regard to this category can be summarised as follows: School leadership do not always plan sufficiently for educators’ CPD, lack of resources, coupled with lack of interest from educators, result in failure to plan for CPD. Schools do not always make allowances for CPD programmes as part of their school activities.

6.2.3.2 The career stages of educators

This category allowed me to make the following deductions: Educators who were nearing retirement age often showed very little interest in CPD activities. The older and more experienced educators often viewed CPD as a waste of time. Educators who were more advanced in age felt that there was no need for them to develop.

The conclusions were drawn from this category, are in line with the objective stated under section 1.4.2, namely to ascertain the present situation regarding CPD in the Uitenhage area.

6.2.4 THEME 4:
The skills and competencies that educators can acquire through continuous professional development

6.2.4.1 Educators’ confidence and knowledge

With regard to this category, the inferences drawn are: CPD can lead to educators acquiring skills related to innovative teaching strategies. Educators can improve their presentation skills through CPD. CPD can result in improved communication skills.
6.2.4.2 Teaching strategies and subject content knowledge

In this category, I came to the conclusion that: There is a need for educators to do more research in respect of their classroom practice. Educators should make more use of technology to improve their teaching skills. Some educators lack adequate knowledge of subject content, which has a negative influence on their teaching skills.

The conclusions drawn in the above-named categories relate directly to the objective in section 1.4.2, namely to investigate those aspects that indicate the areas in which development is needed.

6.2.5 THEME 5: The role of the Integrated Quality Management Systems process in the continuous professional development of educators

6.2.5.1 Staff development programme

The inferences drawn from this category are the following: It is important for every school to have a staff development programme that coordinates staff development. The developmental needs of educators will guide the compilation of a staff development programme. It is the duty of the SDT to draw up a staff development programme.

6.2.5.2 Implementation of Integrated Quality Management Systems process

The following conclusions were drawn from this category: The SDT is responsible to ensure the implementation of the IQMS process. Educators feel that IQMS burdens them with paperwork. There is a strong feeling that the principal and SDT should monitor the IQMS process.

Both the categories under this theme are linked to the objective under section 1.4.2, namely to identify the role of the IQMS process in the CPD of educators.
6.2.6 Proposed strategy to bring about greater professional confidence for educators by improving their involvement in their own continuous professional development

In respect of the proposed strategy, the conclusions formed can be summarised as follows: Educators need to have specific goals with regard to their teaching career. Educators must secure the required resources and support for their own CPD, whilst the importance of educators engaging in discussions about and reflection on their teaching practice was highlighted. Knowledge of practice, together with sufficient knowledge of subject content, is a must for every educator. Educators must have a willingness to change their mindsets and/or attitudes towards CPD.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are presented, with specific reference to the themes identified in Chapter Five.

6.3.1 The contribution by the school, school management team, Department of Education in the educators’ continuous professional development

Recommendations for this theme are made within the context of the following three categories, namely:

6.3.1.1 Create opportunities for continuous professional development

- The principal and SDT should make a concerted effort to plan and provide adequate opportunities for educators to develop through CPD programmes.
- The CPD programmes should be structured and integrated into the school year plan.
- The school must ensure that conditions at school are conducive to educators working collaboratively as part of their CPD.
The DoE should invest more time, money and resources in providing CPD programmes that will empower educators.

Subject advisors need to be more hands on in assisting educators to improve their teaching practice.

6.3.1.2 Motivate and encourage educators

- Principals, SMT and SDT members should act as mentors and give educators the necessary guidance and support.
- School leadership should set the example by being actively involved in CPD activities.
- Schools should ensure that opportunities are created in which educators are encouraged to become involved in their own CPD.
- Schools should have a mentoring system guiding educators to improved teaching practices.

6.3.1.3 Workshops, courses and support

- Workshops and courses for educators should have a direct bearing on classroom practice.
- The developmental needs of educators must be considered when deciding on the type of workshop and/or course.
- Educators should be given opportunities to give feedback to their colleagues about any workshop and/or course attended.
- Enough time should be set aside for individual educators to attend CPD programmes.
- School leadership should make arrangements for substitutes where educators have to attend CPD programmes.

6.3.2 The role of the individual educator in his/her own continuous professional development

Recommendations for this theme are located within the framework of the following three categories, namely:
6.3.2.1 The educator’s attitude

- Educators should be encouraged to display a positive attitude towards CPD, as this will benefit them directly.
- Schools should create an atmosphere that is conducive to educators’ professional development.
- Educators should have the desire to change in order to make them receptive of CPD.
- School leadership should continually highlight the benefits of CPD as a motivation to educators to become involved in CPD activities.

6.3.2.2 Collaboration with others

- Educators need to have a culture of working together at school.
- This should be done through informal exchanges at schools, as well as networking with other schools and formal experiences, such as peer coaching, establishing communities of practice, workshops and/or courses.
- Collaboration could be achieved through educators working together on a joint project.
- Schools should create opportunities for educators to observe one another teaching, planning together, training one another, and doing action research together.

6.3.2.3 Self-reflection

- School leadership need to encourage educators to continuously reflect on their own teaching practice.
- Educators must realise the importance of keeping a journal, detailing their own CPD journey.
- The importance of the PGP, which outlines the educator’s developmental needs, must be emphasised.
- Educators must be motivated to view self-reflection as an important stepping-stone in the change process.
• Educators need to do an action research project to evaluate and improve their own practice.

6.3.3 The factors influencing the effective implementation of continuous professional development

Recommendations for this theme are directly related to the following categories, namely:

6.3.3.1 Lack of planning for continuous professional development

• Principals and SDTs should ensure that sufficient time is allocated for staff development.
• School leadership should also assist educators in learning how to manage their time outside the classroom.
• Principals and SDTs should take the lead in planning and supporting CPD programmes.
• Staff development must form an integral part of schools’ yearly planning.

6.3.3.2 The career stages of educators

• Educators who are more experienced/advanced in their teaching career should be encouraged to act as mentors to less experienced/younger colleagues.
• Educators must be motivated to be involved in some or other form of CPD as long as they are still at school.

6.3.4 The skills and competencies that educators can acquire through continuous professional development

Recommendations for this theme are within the context of the following two categories, namely:
6.3.4.1 Educators’ confidence and knowledge

- The school leadership must provide opportunities for educators to update skills, e.g. computer skills, through courses/workshops.
- Educators need to consciously attempt to improve their communication skills in order to boost their confidence.
- Educators must keep up to date with the latest developments in education by reading and doing research.

6.3.4.2 Teaching strategies and subject content knowledge

- Educators need to do everything in their power to increase their knowledge of the subject content they impart to learners.
- Educators should constantly look at ways of improving their teaching strategies through attending workshops and courses.
- Educators must undertake research in order to keep abreast of new developments regarding the subject(s) they teach.
- Educators must liaise with subject advisors, attend content-gap workshops and be active in cluster activities in an effort to strengthen their classroom practice.
- Educators need to upgrade their skills in respect of the latest technology, the media, etc. e.g. computer skills, PowerPoint presentations, and others.

6.3.5 The role of the Integrated Quality Management Systems process in the continuous professional development of educators

Recommendations for this theme are done within the framework of the following two categories, namely:

6.3.5.1 Staff development programme

- Each school should have an annual staff development programme that coordinates the CPD activities of educators.
• Staff development programmes must be drawn up by discussing it with the whole staff.
• SDTs need to take into account what the educators’ developmental needs are when preparing staff development programmes.
• Staff development programmes should address the needs of all staff members.
• SDTs must be responsible for mentoring the implementation of staff development programmes.

6.3.5.2 Implementation of Integrated Quality Management Systems process

• The IQMS process needs to be fully functional at every school.
• SDTs must coordinate the IQMS process and monitor the implementation thereof.
• Educators must be made aware that the IQMS is compulsory and that every staff member needs to participate.
• SDTs should highlight the benefits of IQMS, especially the fact that it serves as a tool for professional development.
• The DoE should look at means and ways of decreasing the administrative tasks related to IQMS.
• Schools should create a culture in which the IQMS is seen as part of the school management, and not as an added burden.

6.4 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

The problems highlighted in this section pertain to the challenges and/or obstacles I was faced with during the data collection phase and empirical part of the study.

One of the challenges I encountered whilst undertaking the investigation, was scheduling a time that was suitable to everyone for the individual as well as group interviews and the workshop on professional development. All the participants were SMT members, and as such they had multiple duties and responsibilities to fulfil. This made it difficult to synchronise the time for the group interviews and the
workshop. This resulted in not all twelve participants being available for the group interviews and the workshop.

Another problem I was faced with, was the suitability of the venues for the individual interviews. Due to the fact that some participants fitted me in during a free period, a break or immediately after school, I was forced to go to their respective schools for these interviews. Some schools, however, did not have the necessary infrastructure to accommodate an interview setting. We had to make use of rooms where we were often interrupted by people wanting to use the venue, phones ringing incessantly, the school intercom system, doors slamming and learners being noisy outside this venue. This often resulted in wasting precious time waiting for the noise to subside, phones to stop ringing or any other interruption to get out of the way.

However, I persisted and managed to overcome these challenges in my quest to complete the data collection process. In the end, sufficient data were collected and the investigation could be concluded.

The problems I encountered as detailed above, prompted me to come up with the following suggestions:

• Schools and universities should form partnerships that would make allowances for educators to participate in research studies as participants; an information campaign on the importance and benefits of research for the school and the community should be initiated in terms of the partnership between schools and universities.

• The DoE, through the Public Works Department, should invest more in making the infrastructure of schools conducive to the various school activities. For example, schools should have adequate space for teaching, extra-curricular activities and amongst others, office space for interviews, meetings, etc.

• Schools should, where there is enough space, convert certain rooms into areas in which educators could undertake research, hold sessions with their mentors, do planning and have discussions on their classroom
practice. Too often, this is hampered by a lack of space, or a lack of initiative on the part of the school leadership.

- Educators should be conscientised to the importance of CPD and the influence it could have on the effective management of their schools, as well as on their own effective teaching and learning.

### 6.5 TOPICS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

With regard to further research, I would like to make the following suggestions on the issue of educators’ improved professional confidence and their involvement in their own CPD:

- Future studies could investigate the importance of the educators’ positive attitude towards professional development as a prerequisite for CPD.
- Another research topic could be the importance of SDTs in managing the IQMS process as part of educators’ CPD.
- More in-depth studies could be undertaken on the influence of career stages on educators’ willingness to engage in CPD.
- A study on the beliefs of educators concerning CPD would be advisable.

### 6.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The value of this study could be described as follows:

On a personal level, it has helped me to experience growth with regard to aspects such as patience, endurance and being accommodating, as I learned to view setbacks as challenges rather than problems. It has also helped me to gain a much deeper understanding of the challenges IQMS coordinators face at their schools in their responsibility of managing the IQMS process. This study has also led to better working relations between myself as a district official responsible for IQMS and, as such, educator development and the IQMS coordinators who serve as their schools’ representatives in IQMS matters. I have also gained a better understanding of the challenges schools face in trying to create opportunities for educators to engage in CPD activities in order to boost their professional capacity.
As far as the participants of this study are concerned, the summary of the workshop evaluation forms highlighted the fact that this investigation helped the participants to realise their own worth and to identify new methods they could implement to improve their own professional confidence. According to the participants’ feedback, this study helped them realise how important CPD is for any educator and led them to identify different ways of motivating their colleagues to become more involved in their own CPD.

With regard to the significance of this study for schools, the strategy developed will be beneficial to educators, not only those located in the Uitenhage District, but across the entire Eastern Cape Province and wider. Schools can gain knowledge from the recommendations that emanated from this study.

6.7 SUMMARY OF THESIS

This study comprised five chapters, which will be briefly summarised below.

6.7.1 Chapter One

This chapter concentrated on outlining the research problem and its setting. This chapter presented the background of the study, the research question, aim of the research and research objectives, a brief description of the research methodology, concept clarification, as well as a chapter overview. I outlined the fact that as a district official responsible for IQMS and, as such, the professional development of educators, I was concerned about the perceived lack of professional confidence displayed by educators. This prompted me to embark on a study based on the following research question: *What are the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their involvement in their own CPD and how to find a strategy to enhance their professional confidence through such involvement?*

The focus of this investigation was to concentrate on educators’ involvement in their own CPD as a means to increase their professional confidence and to find a strategy to help them improve such professional confidence.
The chapter further outlined the research to be followed. This included giving a detailed description of the interpretive paradigm, the qualitative approach and phenomenology as the research strategy. The research methodology elaborated on the population of the research, the sample selected and the data collection instruments, namely questionnaires, individual and group interviews, as well as the workshop on professional development. This chapter further alluded to the steps to be followed during data analysis and outlined how the study would be going about ensuring the trustworthiness of the research undertaken. This chapter was concluded by a brief outline of the six chapters envisaged.

6.7.2 Chapter Two

In this chapter, I interacted with different sources of literature, in order to strengthen my viewpoints on and perceptions of CPD in education. The main focus was on the educators’ involvement in their own CPD, as this was the primary objective of the research.

The literature review started off by providing a historical background of educators’ CPD under the sub-headings of apartheid education and the NPFTED. It then clarified the concept CPD. Subsequently, the chapter outlined the theoretical framework guiding CPD. It also expounded on the purpose of CPD, factors influencing CPD, key features of CPD, as well as the different development models and modes of delivery of CPD.

6.7.3 Chapter Three

This chapter presented an overview of the stakeholders in and the policies on the CPD of educators.

Different sources of literature were consulted in an effort to substantiate my views on the contributions of the various stakeholders and the policies guiding the CPD of educators. The chapter started off by emphasising the role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD by referring to the educator’s professional confidence/identity, the use of practical knowledge, the educator as reflective practitioner, as well as the
importance of the educator becoming part of a community of practice. The chapter also investigated the role of the school leadership in the CPD of educators by discussing in detail the emotional intelligence of the principal, the issue of transformational leadership, the mentoring of educators, the motivation of educators and the importance of developing educator leaders at school. Subsequent to that, this chapter elaborated on the role of other stakeholders, such as the community and the DoE. The chapter also expanded on the aspect of change management. Next, the chapter looked at the various policies guiding the CPD of educators. It also described in detail the different international trends regarding the CPD of educators, focusing on trends in the USA, Scotland, Germany and the UK.

6.7.4 Chapter Four

This chapter presented an overview of the research design as well as the research methodology, a report of the data collection methods, and a detailed description of the steps followed in the data analysis process.

The research question that formed the basis of this investigation was: What are the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their involvement in their own CPD and could a strategy be found to enhance their professional confidence through such involvement? I endeavoured to investigate this topic through interaction with the IQMS coordinators of selected schools in the Uitenhage District. The aim was to listen to and form impressions of how educators viewed their involvement in their own CPD and how to come up with a strategy that would increase their professional confidence.

This chapter provided a detailed description of the interpretive paradigm in which the study was located. It also expanded on the advisability of using qualitative research, as well as explaining the reasons for making use of phenomenology as a research strategy.

In Chapter Four, the ethical measures adhered to whilst doing the study were discussed in depth. This included the various letters of application, meeting the participants and assuring them of issues of confidentiality, informed consent and
transparency. The data collection instruments, namely questionnaires, individual and group interviews, as well as the workshop, were each dealt with individually and in a detailed manner. The chapter also elaborated on the data analysis procedures. Chapter Four concluded by describing how trustworthiness would be ensured in this research.

6.7.5 Chapter Five

In this chapter, the findings of the study were discussed in depth.

From the steps taken to analyse the data collected, five major themes emerged. These themes were then sub-divided into categories that seemed the most logically related to the specific themes. The specific categories were formulated based on the responses from the participants in answer to the questions posed to them during the investigation. The chapter then broadly elaborated on each theme, with its categories. This included writing a description of the theme and giving the specific questions relating to the theme. This chapter also highlighted the proposed strategy the study aimed to design, in order to guide educators to increase their professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD.

6.7.6 Chapter Six

Chapter Six detailed the conclusions drawn, based on the findings of the investigation, made recommendations, listed the problems encountered during the study, and emphasised the significance of the study.

The aim of the conclusions drawn in this chapter was to profile the perceptions of educators of their involvement in their own CPD, according to the themes that emerged from the investigation.

In keeping with the objectives of this study, as outlined in section 1.4.2, the most important conclusions drawn on the basis of the findings of the study can be summarised as follows:
• Schools do not always provide adequately for the professional development of educators.

• In some schools, the principals and school leadership fail to motivate educators to become actively involved in CPD.

• Not all educators are open to the idea of collaborative learning through working with other educators.

• There is not always enough emphasis on the importance of the self-reflection of educators.

• CPD can lead to an improvement of and/or honing of the skills necessary to improve the educators’ classroom practice.

• Principals and SDTs do not always plan properly for the implementation of CPD programmes.

• Educators are not always on par with the latest developments in education.

• Educators sometimes lack knowledge of subject content matter.

• The IQMS process is not always regarded as an important part of the educators’ CPD.

• Educators showed a change in attitude towards their own CPD after their involvement in the workshop, which constituted Phase 2 of the data collection process. This attitude augurs well for further CPD programmes, as educators had become more motivated to contribute to their own CPD.

The following recommendations to schools, and especially to the SDT and school leadership, were then provided:

• Sufficient time should be set aside for the professional development of educators.

• Principals and SDT members should regard it as their duty to motivate educators to become actively involved in their own CPD.

• Educators should be encouraged to learn collaboratively, by becoming members of a community of practice.

• The importance of the self-reflection of educators should be highlighted as vital to their CPD.
Educators need to be made aware of the multitude of skills necessary for improved teaching and learning to be acquired through CPD.

The school leadership needs to put the CPD of educators high on the priority list of the school management plan.

Schools should create opportunities for educators to increase their professional knowledge, as well as their knowledge of subject content matter.

Principals and SDTs must ensure that the IQMS process is implemented and monitor its influence on the CPD of educators.

Chapter Six also addressed the problems experienced during the investigation, as well as the significance of the study.

6.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The main objective of the study was to design a strategy to bring about greater professional confidence for educators by improving their involvement in their own CPD.

The findings of the study highlighted the fact that in order to increase the professional confidence of educators through involvement in their own CPD, the following factors should be taken into consideration:

- The school, SMT and DoE each need to realise and fulfil their respective roles in the CPD of the educator.
- The individual educator needs to display a positive attitude towards and be willing to engage in CPD activities, in order to improve the culture of teaching and learning.
- Schools should note the factors and challenges which influence the effective implementation of educators’ CPD and do everything in their power to address the challenges.
- Educators need to be conscientised about the benefits of CPD, by highlighting the much-needed skills which can be acquired through CPD activities.
• The SDT should ensure that the IQMS process is implemented at school, whilst monitoring the effect thereof on the CPD of educators.

This research has proved to be beneficial to both myself and the participants. It has created opportunities for us all to gain new insights into the aspects of educators’ CPD and which factors influence it, whether positively or negatively. It also emphasised the fact that the individual educator needs the support of his/her colleagues, the school and the DoE on his/her journey of CPD. This investigation also emphasised the issue of the need for the educator to be receptive to the idea of change first before embarking on any CPD programme. Lastly, it reiterated the notion of the educator being a life-long learner. Furthermore, by emphasising the learning and development of educators, schools are ensuring that learning processes contribute to the achievement of goals and the enhancement of quality teaching and learning in our schools.

This study also succeeded in adding to the current body of knowledge on the topic of the CPD of educators, especially in view of the proposed strategy which provides guidelines for educators on how to increase their professional confidence through improved involvement in their own CPD. Furthermore, this investigation was successful in answering the research questions highlighted in section 1.3 and also managed to achieve the aim and objectives of the study as stipulated in section 1.4. Personally, I feel that the study managed to fulfil what it intended doing, namely to design a strategy to assist educators with their CPD.
REFERENCES


Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) (2003). *Integrated quality management systems (IQMS) for school based educators*. Centurion: ELRC.


INTERNET SOURCES:


# APPENDIX 1(a)

APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL
NMMU RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HUMAN)

## TO BE FILLED IN BY A REPRESENTATIVE FROM THE FACULTY RTI COMMITTEE:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application reference code:</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>...........</th>
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<th>...........</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resolution of FRTI Committee:</td>
<td>□ Ethics approval given (for noting by the REC-H)</td>
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<td>Resolution date:</td>
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<td>Faculty RTI representative signature:</td>
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## 1. GENERAL PARTICULARS

### TITLE OF STUDY

a) Concise descriptive title of study (must contain key words that best describe the study):

**DESIGNING A STRATEGY TO IMPROVE EDUCATORS’ PROFESSIONAL CONFIDENCE BY IMPROVING THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR OWN CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD)**

### PRIMARY RESPONSIBLE PERSON (PRP)

b) Name of PRP (must be member of permanent staff. Usually the supervisor in the case of learners):

**PROFESSOR J.L. GELDENHUYS NMMU SOUTH CAMPUS**

c) Contact number/s of PRP: **041 504 1188**

d) Affiliation of PRP: Faculty Education; Department (or equivalent): **SCHOOL OF EDUCATION RESEARCH AND ENGAGEMENT**

### PRINCIPLE INVESTIGATORS AND CO-WORKERS

e) Name and affiliation of principal investigator (PI) / researcher (may be same as PRP):

**LIZETTE C. OOSTHUIZEN Gender: Female**

f) Name(s) and affiliation(s) of all co workers (e.g. co-investigator/assistant researchers/supervisor/co-supervisor/promoter/co-promoter). If names are not yet known, state the affiliations of the groups they will be drawn from, e.g. Interns/M-learners, etc. and the number of persons involved:

**PROFESSOR J.L. GELDENHUYS - SUPERVISOR**

### STUDY DETAILS

g) Scope of study: **Local**

h) If for degree purposes: **Doctoral**

i) Funding: **No specific funding**

Additional information (e.g. source of funds or how combined funding is split): **PERSONAL**

j) Are there any restrictions or conditions attached to publication and/or presentation of the study results? **NO**

If YES, elaborate: (Any restrictions or conditions contained in contracts must be made available to the Committee)
k) Date of commencement of data collection: 2010 Anticipated date of completion of study: JANUARY 2012

l) Objectives of the study (the major objective(s) / Grand Tour questions are to be stated briefly and clearly):
To focus on the roles and responsibilities of educators in determining the need for professional development and setting about implementing such development.

m) Rationale for this study: briefly (300 words or less) describe the background to this study i.e. why are you doing this particular piece of work. A few (no more than 5) key scientific references may be included:
The professional development of educators is widely regarded as a vital ingredient for creating effective schools and improving learner performance. Education in South Africa is constantly changing and educators need to continuously develop, amongst others, their teaching skills as well as their professional attitudes, in order to keep abreast of the changes in the world of education. South Africa needs quality educators who are appropriately trained and developed in order to meet the evolving challenges and needs of the developing country. Multiple and complex social changes place numerous demands on educators. A well educated, flexible, highly competent teaching force is needed to accomplish the changes in the education system and to bring about practices which serve the educational needs of all learners and educators. Faced with rapid change, demands for high standards and calls for improving quality educators have a need, as never before, to improve their teaching skills through professional development. However, educators need to first believe in the need for change and to determine the direction of the change before embarking on development programmes in such a way that they could learn from these programmes. by emphasizing professional learning and the development of educators, schools are able to ensure that learning processes contribute to the attainment of goals and the enhancement of quality and learner performance in schools.

METHODOLOGY

n) Briefly state the methodology (specifically the procedure in which human subjects will be participating) (the full protocol is to be included as Appendix 1):
Investigation: Qualitative study. Investigation will include interviews with educators, a workshop for educators as well as having educators complete a questionnaire.

o) State the minimum and maximum number of participants involved (Minimum number should reflect the number of participants necessary to make the study viable) Min: 6 Max: 10

2. RISKS AND BENEFITS OF THIS STUDY

a) Is there any risk of harm, embarrassment or offence, however slight or temporary, to the participant, third parties or to the community at large? NO
If YES, state each risk, and for each risk state i) whether the risk is reversible, ii) whether there are alternative procedures available and iii) whether there are remedial measures available.

b) Has the person administering the project previous experience with the particular risk factors involved? NO
If YES, please specify:

c) Are any benefits expected to accrue to the participant (e.g. improved health, mental state, financial etc.)? NO
If YES, please specify the benefits:

d) Will you be using equipment of any sort? YES If YES, please specify: Digital recorder, Video recorder/Camera

e) Will any article of property, personal or cultural be collected in the course of the project? NO
If YES, please specify: -

3. TARGET PARTICIPANT GROUP

a) If particular characteristics of any kind are required in the target group (e.g. age, cultural derivation, background, physical characteristics, disease status etc.) please specify: Educators. Members of School Development Team

b) Are participants drawn from NMMU learners? NO
| c) If participants are drawn from specific groups of NMMU learners, please specify: -- |
| d) Are participants drawn from a school population? **YES** If YES, please specify: **School Development Team Members** |
| e) If participants are drawn from an institutional population (e.g. hospital, prison, mental institution), please specify: **N/A** |
| f) If any records will be consulted for information, please specify the source of records: **Minutes of meetings around staff development** |
| g) Will each individual participant know his/her records are being consulted? **YES** If YES, state how these records will be obtained: **Permission from principal** |
| h) Are all participants over 18 years of age? **YES** If NO, state justification for inclusion of minors in study: |

### 4. CONSENT OF PARTICIPANTS

a) Is consent to be given in writing? **YES** If YES, include the consent form with this application [Appendix 2]. If NO, state reasons why written consent is not appropriate in this study. **See Appendix 2**

b) Are any participant(s) subject to legal restrictions preventing them from giving effective informed consent? **NO** If YES, please justify:

c) Do any participant(s) operate in an institutional environment, which may cast doubt on the voluntary aspect of consent? **NO** If YES, state what special precautions will be taken to obtain a legally effective informed consent:

d) Will participants receive remuneration for their participation? **NO** If YES, justify and state on what basis the remuneration is calculated, and how the veracity of the information can be guaranteed.

e) Which gatekeeper will be approached for initial permission to gain access to the target group? (e.g. principal, nursing manager, chairperson of school governing body) **Principals of schools**

f) Do you require consent of an institutional authority for this study? (e.g. Department of Education, Department of Health) **YES** If YES, specify: **Department of Education, District Office**

### 5. INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS

a) What information will be offered to the participant before he/she consents to participate? (Attach written information given as [Appendix 2] and any oral information given as [Appendix 3])

b) Who will provide this information to the participant? (Give name and role) **Ms. Lizette C. Oosthuizen** PRP If "Other", please specify:

c) Will the information provided be complete and accurate? **YES** If NO, describe the nature and extent of the deception involved and explain the rationale for the necessity of this deception:

### 6. PRIVACY, ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA

a) Will the participant be identified by name in your research? **NO** If YES, justify:

b) Are provisions made to protect participant’s rights to privacy and anonymity and to preserve confidentiality with respect to data? **YES** If NO, justify If YES, specify: **Pseudonyms / codes to be used for school and individuals**

c) If mechanical methods of observation be are to be used (e.g. one-way mirrors, recordings, videos etc.), will participant’s consent to such methods be obtained? **NO** If NO, justify:

d) Will data collected be stored in any way? **YES** If YES, please specify: (i) By whom? (ii) How many copies? (iii) For how long? (iv) For what reasons? (v) How will participant’s anonymity be protected? (i) **Ms. L.C. Oosthuizen** (ii) 1 (iii) 2 years (iv) Transcription (v) Use of pseudonyms / codes
e) Will stored data be made available for re-use?  **NO**  If YES, how will participant’s consent be obtained for such re-use?

f) Will any part of the project be conducted on private property (including shopping centres)?  **NO**  If YES, specify and state how consent of property owner is to be obtained:

g) Are there any contractual secrecy or confidentiality constraints on this data?  **NO**  If YES, specify:

7. FEEDBACK

a) Will feedback be given to participants?  **YES**
   
   If YES, specify whether feedback will be written, oral or by other means and describe how this is to be given (e.g. to each individual immediately after participation, to each participant after the entire project is completed, to all participants in a group setting, etc.):
   
   **Summary to principal and SDT members on request**

b) If you are working in a school or other institutional setting, will you be providing educators, school authorities or equivalent a copy of your results?  **YES**  If YES, specify, if NO, motivate:  
   
   **Copy of study on request**

8. ETHICAL AND LEGAL ASPECTS

The Declaration of Helsinki (2000) or the Belmont Report  will be included in the references:  **NO**  If NO, motivate:

   **A copy of the Belmont Report is available at the following link for reference purposes:**


a) I would like the REC-H to take note of the following additional information:  

9. DECLARATION

If any changes are made to the above arrangements or procedures, I will bring these to the attention of the Research Ethics Committee (Human). I have read, understood and will comply with the Guidelines for Ethical Conduct in Research and Education at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University and have taken cognisance of the availability (on-line) of the Medical Research Council Guidelines on Ethics for Research (http://www.sahealthinfo.org/ethics/).

All participants are aware of any potential health hazards or risks associated with this study.

I  **AM NOT**  aware of potential conflict(s) of interest which should be considered by the Committee.

If affirmative, specify:

   28 March 2012

SIGNATURE: **PROFESSOR J.L. GELDENHUYS** (Primary Responsible Person)  

   **Date**

   28 March 2012

SIGNATURE: **LIZETTE C. OOSTHUIZEN** (Principal Investigator/Researcher)  

   **Date**

10. SCRUTINY BY FACULTY AND INTRA-FACULTY ACADEMIC UNIT

This study has been discussed, and is supported, at Faculty and Departmental (or equivalent) level. This is attested to by the signature below of a Faculty (e.g. RTI) and Departmental (e.g. HoD) representative, neither of whom may be a previous signator.

   NAME and CAPACITY (e.g. HoD)  

   SIGNATURE  

   **Date**
11. APPENDICES

In order to expedite the processing of this application, please ensure that all the required information, as specified below, is attached to your application. Examples of some of these documents can be found on the Research Ethics webpage (http://www.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=4619&bhcp=1). You are not compelled to use the documents which have been provided as examples – they are made available as a convenience to those who do not already have them available.

**APPENDIX 1: Research methodology**

Attach the full protocol and methodology to this application, as "Appendix 1" and include the data collection instrument e.g. questionnaire if applicable.

**APPENDIX 2: Informed consent form**

If no written consent is required, motivate at 4a). The intention is that you make sure you have covered all the aspects of informed consent as applicable to your work.

**APPENDIX 3: Written information given to participant prior to participation**

Attach as "Appendix 3". The intention is that you make sure you have covered all the aspects of written information to be supplied to participants, as applicable to your work.

**APPENDIX 4: Oral information given to participant prior to participation**

If applicable, attach the required information to your application, as "Appendix 4".

**APPENDIX 5, 6, 7: Institutional permissions**

Attach any institutional permissions required to carry out the research e.g. Department of Education permission for research carried out in schools.
APPENDIX 1(b)

LETTER OF PERMISSION
APPENDIX 2(a)
LETTER TO DISTRICT DIRECTOR

MRS NGI BASHMAN
District Director
Department of Education
UITENHAGE DISTRICT
cc: Mr. E. Gorgonzola: CES-IDMS&G

Dear Madam

Re: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SCHOOLS

I am currently registered as a first year part-time D.Ed learner at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University doing full research on the following topic:

Designing a strategy to improve educators’ professional confidence by improving their involvement in their own Continuous Professional Development (CPD)

I hereby wish to request permission to conduct research at specific schools in the Uitenhage District. This will entail having IQMS School Coordinators completing relevant questionnaires regarding this topic. I will be conducting group interviews with them and have workshops on the topic as part of my data collection methods.

Kindly be assured of the fact that my conduct will at all times be guided by the code of ethics as prescribed by the Research Council of the University.

I trust that my request will be favourably considered.

Yours sincerely,
Ms Lizette C. Oosthuizen
SES: IQMS
IDMS & G SECTION

PERSAL NO: 50281551

SIGNATURE: __________________________

RESPONSE

APPROVED/DISAPPROVED

The District Manager

Signature ____________________________ Date ____________________________

23 February 2010
APPENDIX 2(b)
LETTER OF APPROVAL GRANTED

09 April 2010

Ms LC Oosthuizen
SES: IOMS
IDMS & G Section
Department of Education
Uitenhage
6230

Dear Ms Oosthuizen

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION: THE LINK BETWEEN THE CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATORS AND THE CONSTANT DEMAND FOR QUALITY EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Permission is hereby granted to conduct the abovementioned research at the schools in the Uitenhage District as requested. The approval of this research is however subject to the following conditions.

1. Your involvement in the school should be negotiated with the principal to ensure minimum disruption of teaching time. Appropriate time-frames should be negotiated for the research on site which will not disrupt schooling in any way, especially where educators and learners are targeted for responses.

2. Schools participate on a voluntary basis and are under no obligation to assist or co-operate in your research project.

3. The principal, staff, parents and SGB are aware of the study and permission is given in writing.

4. All arrangements concerning your research should be done by you and the Department should not be responsible for any costs involved.

5. A copy of this letter should be submitted to the principal of each school where the intended research is to be conducted.

6. A summary of results of the findings should be submitted to the Office of the District Director on completion of the study.

As the District Office we trust that you will be successful in this interesting research.

Yours sincerely

MRS NGI BASHMAN
DISTRICT DIRECTOR
UITENHAGE DISTRICT
Dear Sir / Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SCHOOLS

I am currently registered as a first year part-time D.Ed learner at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University doing full research on the following topic:

**Developing a strategy to improve involvement of the educators in the Uitenhage area in Continuous Professional Development (CPD)**

I hereby request your permission to include your IQMS Coordinator as one of the participants in my research study. This will require him/her to complete relevant questionnaires; participating in focus-group interviews and workshops that will be conducted by me as part of my data collection procedures.

Kindly be assured of the fact that my conduct will at all times be guided by the code of ethics as prescribed by the Research Council of the University.

I will also ensure that my research does not in any way hamper or disadvantage the smooth running of your school. The idea is to capacitate my participants to play a more meaningful role in professional development programme at your schools.

I trust that my request will be favourably considered.

Yours sincerely,

**MS LIZETTE C. OOSTHUIZEN**

Contact Numbers: 041 995 4168 (office) / 084 687 6974 (Cell)

RESPONSE

APPROVED/NOT APPROVED

The Principal

Signature Date
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR
Lizette C. Oosthuizen

TITLE OF STUDY
Designing a strategy to improve educator’s professional confidence by improving their involvement in their own continuous professional development (CPD).

INTRODUCTION
You are being invited to participate in this study to investigate the roles and responsibilities of educators in determining their own need for continuous professional development and setting about implementing the relevant professional development programmes. Please read, review and ask any questions that you might have concerning this study. You are free to stop the interview at any time or to choose not to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable.

PURPOSE
The purpose of this study is to describe the perceptions of educators in the Uitenhage area of their own involvement in the assessment of their need for Continuous Professional Development and finding a strategy for the implementation of such development.

DURATION
The interviews conducted with educators will consist of (1) focus-group interviews and (2) individual interviews. These interviews will take approximately 30 – 40 minutes. The workshop on professional development will take up at least one hour 30 minutes.

PROCEDURES
Data will be collected using general guides to (a) interviews (b) questionnaires (c) workshop on professional development. All participants will be given as much time as they feel necessary to respond to questions. With the expressed permission of
each participant, the interviews will be recorded, using a digital recorder. A professional transcriptionist will transcribe the audiotapes. Copies of transcribed data will be available on request. No participant’s name will be used, but each interview will be coded with a number in order to define categories. In no way will the identification be used to determine participant identity. In the event of the workshop being recorded by a video camera, every effort will be made to keep the contents of this recording strictly confidential.

POSSIBLE RISKS/DISCOMFORTS
Some of the questions asked during the interview may cause the participant to feel uneasy or may be difficult to answer. Participants are free to stop the interview at any time, and may choose not to answer any question that makes them feel uncomfortable.

POSSIBLE BENEFITS AND/OR COMPENSATION
No participation benefits or forms of compensation are included in this study.

CONTACT FOR QUESTIONS
If you have any questions or concerns, please contact Lizette Oosthuizen at 084 687 6974 or Professor J.L. Geldenhuys at 041 504 1188.

CONFIDENTIALITY
Every attempt will be made to see that participants and interview information is kept confidential. Audiocassette tapes and video recordings will be used for this study will be disposed of immediately following transcription and verification of transcription. The results of this study will be published and/or presented without naming the participants. Records will be kept completely confidential according to current legal requirements.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION
The nature, demands, risks, and the benefits of the study have been explained to me as are known and available. I understand what my participation involves. Furthermore, I understand that I am free to ask questions and withdraw from the investigation at any time, without penalty. I have read and fully understand this
consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A signed copy will be given to me upon request.

Signature of participant: ___________________ Date: ___________________

Signature of investigator: ___________________ Date: ___________________

Witness: ___________________ Date: ___________________

STATEMENT BY INVESTIGATOR:

I, ________________________________ hereby declare that I have explained the information given in this document to ___________________________ (name of participant). He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in Afrikaans English and no translator was used.

Signed at ___________________ on this ____ day of __________________ 2011.

Signature of investigator: ________________________________

Signature of witness : ________________________________

Signature of witness : ________________________________
APPENDIX 5

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS

Name : Lizette C. Oosthuizen
Learner No : 207090657
Degree : D.Ed
Year : 2011

1. Did your school have a staff development programme in 2010? If yes, briefly explain how. If no, motivate why your school didn’t have one.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

2. List a few of the professional development programmes that the educators of your school have been involved in the past 2 – 3 years.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

3. What, in your opinion, has been the outcome of participation in these professional development programmes?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

4. How important is professional development at your school? Explain.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
5. Which aspects of an educator’s teaching life, do you think, indicate the areas that need professional development?

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

6. Explain what you think the role of the SMT should be in an educator’s professional growth/development?

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

7. Which aspects, do you think, are indicators of the areas that need development in an educator’s career?

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

8. How should the school and the Department of Education contribute to the CPD of educators?

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

9. What can an individual educator do to help his/her own professional development?

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
10. What in your opinion, can the school do to improve the implementation and outcome of CPD programmes?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

11. When, would you say, is the most appropriate time to run professional development programmes, and why?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

12. Briefly explain what your own understanding of professional development of educators is.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

13. Are you in any way involved in the professional development of educators in your school? If yes, explain. If no, motivate.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX 6(a)
INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW GUIDE

Name : Lizette C. Oosthuizen
Learner No : 207090657
Degree : D.Ed
Year : 2011

1. Would you agree that professional development enhances an educator's ability to fulfill his/her responsibilities more effectively? Please explain.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

2. What is the attitude of your colleagues towards professional development?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

3. What, if any, is the role of the following people with regards to staff / professional development at your school?

3.1 The principal

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

3.2 The SMT / SDT

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
4. Would you say staff development is high on the list of priorities of your school’s management plan?

5. Are you in any way involved in the staff / professional development programmes at your school? State how.

6. What, if any, do you think are the benefits of professional development for educators?

7. Do you at your school experience that educators are reluctant to participate in professional development programmes? If yes, give possible reasons for their reluctance.

8. How does your school go about encouraging educators to become involved in staff / professional development programmes?
9. How much time, do you think, should a school spend on professional development programmes for educators?
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

10. Which professional development programmes would you regard as more effective than others, and why?
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

11. Which, if any, professional development programmes do you feel are of no use at all, and why?
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

12. How important do you think is giving feedback to educators about their progress with regard to professional development? Explain.
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

13. Is there a culture at your school of educators working together in order for them to develop professionally? Explain.
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
14. Have you, in the last three years, done anything about your own professional development? If yes, explain. If no, motivate.
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________

15. Do you think that professional development should be continuous and a long term exercise? Motivate your answer.
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________

16. How important do you think, is the school climate / culture in the professional development of educators? Give reasons for your answer.
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________

17. What, according to you, are the challenges / limitations that hamper the effective implementation of professional development programmes at your school?
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________

18. How, would you say, could these challenges / limitations be addressed at your school?
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________
19. What, in your opinion, are some of the key skills / competencies that educators could develop through professional development programmes?

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________

20. Do you think there should be incentives for educators who have completed a certain number of professional development programmes? Give reasons for your answer.

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX 6(b)
INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Name : Lizette C. Oosthuizen  
Learner No : 207090657  
Degree : D.Ed  
Year : 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant No.</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Venue</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>19 July 2011</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>27 July 2011</td>
<td>10h30</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>28 July 2011</td>
<td>12h30</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>28 July 2011</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>02 August 2011</td>
<td>11h30</td>
<td>School</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>04 August 2011</td>
<td>14h00</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>05 August 2011</td>
<td>13h00</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 7(a)

GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE

NAME: LIZETTE C OOSTHUIZEN
LEARNERNO: 207090657
DEGREE: D.Ed
YEAR: 2011

1. Would you agree that every school should have a Staff Development Programme drawn up and implemented every year? Give reasons.

2. Which areas of teaching would you like to see your own colleagues develop in?

3. What do you think is the main function of the SMT/SDT in ensuring that IQMS is implemented at school?

4. How, do you think, can the school leadership go about creating a school climate which is favourable to the professional development of educators?

5. How, do you think, can the District Office of the Education Department contribute to the professional development of educators?

6. What, according to you, can the individual educator do to help his/her own professional development?

7. How important do you think is self-reflection for the individual educator in his/her own professional development?

8. Do you think the idea of educators working/learning together is a good one? Give reasons for your answer.

9. What, according to you, are the factors which hamper the effective implementation of professional development of educators?

10. If you could change anything about the IQMS process, what would it be, and why?
11. What, in your opinion, is the ideal time for staff development programmes at school? Motivate.

12. What is your role as IQMS coordinator in the professional development of the staff at your school?
Name : Lizette C. Oosthuizen
Learner No : 207090657
Degree : D.Ed
Year : 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Venue</th>
<th>No. of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>14h00</td>
<td>Office</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>11 August</td>
<td>14h00</td>
<td>Office</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 8(a)
WORKSHOP PROGRAMME

Name : Lizette C. Oosthuizen
Learner No : 207090657
Degree : D.Ed
Year : 2011

1. Opening and Welcome
2. Purpose of Workshop
3. Workshop Activities
4. Summary of Workshop
5. Workshop Evaluation
6. Vote of Thanks
7. Closure
APPENDIX 8(b)
WORKSHOP ACTIVITIES

DATE : 5 SEPTEMBER 2011  
VENUE : A SCHOOL  
FACILITATOR : MS LC OOSTHUIZEN  
PARTICIPANTS : IQMS COORDINATORS FROM 12 SCHOOLS

ACTIVITY NO 1:
In your group, discuss how you would go about developing a staff development programme for the educators in your school. Mention the factors to be considered and give an example of your plan.

Time: 10 minutes Report back: 2 minutes Discussion: 3 minutes

ACTIVITY NO 2:
As a group, explain briefly which steps you would take to circumvent those factors which hamper the effective implementation of CPD in your school. List those factors, then tell us how you would change the situation at your school. Make use of the following table to complete this activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>STEPS / SOLUTIONS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

Time: 10 minutes Report back: 2 minutes Discussion: 3 minutes
**ACTIVITY NO 3:**
In your group, discuss how you as the SMT/SDT will ensure that the IQMS process is fully functional in your school. Name the person, processes and/or any other mechanism you would include in your efforts. Complete this activity by make use of the table provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEPS</th>
<th>WHO</th>
<th>WHAT</th>
<th>HOW</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</table>

Time: 10 minutes  Report back: 2 minutes  Discussion: 3 minutes

**ACTIVITY NO 4:**
As a group, discuss briefly how you would attend to the following matters regarding the educators' involvement in their own CPD:

4.1 Encouraging/motivating individual educators to become actively involved in their own CPD.
4.2 Creating a culture of educators working/learning together at your school.
4.3 Getting educators to change their attitude/mindset towards IQMS.

Time: 10 minutes  Report back: 2 minutes  Discussion: 3 minutes

**SUMMARY OF WORKSHOP** : 5 minutes
**EVALUATION OF WORKSHOP** : 5 minutes
**VOTE OF THANKS AND CLOSURE** : 5 minutes
APPENDIX 9(a)

SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>LIZETTE C OOSTHUIZEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LEARNER NO</td>
<td>207090657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEGREE</td>
<td>D.Ed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YEAR</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contribution by school, SMT, DoE in educators’ CPD</td>
<td>Create opportunities for CPD</td>
<td>Explain what the role of the SMT should be in CPD. What do you think can the school do to improve the implementation of CPD? How important do you think is the school climate in the CPD of educators? How do you think can the District Office of the DoE contribute to the CPD of educators?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitor progress, give feedback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivate &amp; encourage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Workshops, courses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support &amp; guidance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role of the individual educator in his/her own CPD</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>What can an individual educator do to help his/her own professional development? Would you agree that professional development enhances an educator’s ability to fulfil his/her responsibilities more effectively? What is the attitude of your colleagues towards CPD? How important do you think is self-reflection for educators’ CPD?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Active involvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-reflection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges/factors hampering implementation of CPD</td>
<td>Lack of planning</td>
<td>When, would you say, is the most appropriate time to run professional development programmes, and why? Which aspects of an educator’s teaching life, do you think, indicate the areas that need professional development? What, according to you, are the challenges hampering the effective implementation of CPD of educators? How, would you say, can these challenges be addressed at your school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills/competencies which can be acquired</td>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>What, in your opinion, has been the outcome of educators’ participation in CPD programmes? What, in your opinion, are some of the key skills/competencies that educators could develop through professional development programmes? Which areas of teaching would you like to see your own colleagues develop in?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More knowledge of subject content</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Implementation of IQMS process | Staff development programme  
Ensure implementation  
Fewer administrative tasks | Did your school have a staff development programme in 2010? List a few of the staff development programmes that your staff were involved in the past 2-3 years? Would you say staff development is high on the list of priorities of your school management plan? Do you think there should be incentives for educators who have completed a certain number of professional development programmes? What is your role as IQMS coordinator in the professional development of the staff at your school? |
APPENDIX 9(b)
SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWS

NAME: LIZETTE C OOSTHUIZEN
LEARNER NO: 207090657
DEGREE: D.Ed
YEAR: 2011

1. CPD enhances educators’ ability to fulfil responsibilities more effectively?
   Yes. Helps to capacitate educators / better equipped / empowered / broadens perspective / leads to improved performance / exposed to other ideas / increases knowledge.

2. Colleagues’ attitudes towards CPD?
   Most accepted. Few not prepared = near retirement age. Others see it as increasing their workload. Some changed after having attended specific workshop or course.

3. Role of: 1. Principal 2. SMT/SDT
   Some principals not that much involved. Coordinator must shoulder responsibility. Others give guidance; encourages/plays leading role, mentor. No principal against professional development. However, not involved enough.

   SMT: Coordinators feel they have to do everything. Not all SMTs work together.

4. Staff development – high on priority list of school management plan?
   Staff development – not always high on priority list. Most = yes.

5. Participants’ involvement in staff development at school?
   All participants involved in CPD at school. IQMS coordinator as well as member of SMT/SDT. Takes leading role. Coordinates, manages CPD.
6. Benefits of CPD for educators?
   Enables them to keep up with latest trends: technological advances, etc; boosts self-confidence; improves performances; leads to school improvement.

7. Educators reluctant? Reasons?
   Age factor. Near retirement. Do not see any benefits in developing. Comfort ones, attitude, lack of interest.

8. How does school encourage educators to do CPD?
   Regular information sessions. Motivational talks, workshops. Encourages active participation in CPD programmes.

9. How much time is needed for CPD?
   Most feel – not during teaching time, after school, once a term, beginning or end of term, not all in favour of holidays. Needs will determine when, how, what, how long?

10. Which programme more effective?

11. Which programmes of no use?
    Most feel one should be able to learn from anything that comes your way. Some of those not related to teaching.

12. How important is feedback to educators?
    Very. Serves as motivation > educators aware of what is still lacking. Highlights strengths and weaknesses. Provides information on strides made.

13. Culture of working together at school?
    Almost all = yes. Mostly foundation phase. Other grades to a lesser degree.

14. Personal development past three years?
    Academic studies = some. Most = short courses. Management courses, Computer literacy; Sports management.
15. CPD = continuous and long term?
   Yes. Educator = lifelong learner; development does not stop.

16. School climate/culture = how important?
   Very. Should encourage educators to develop. School to create opportunities for educators to learn and develop. Should enhance teaching and learning.

17. Challenges/limitations to effective implementation of CPD?
   Time. Finances. Lack of interest in development, lack of availability of resources, lack of information, attitude of educators.

18. How to address these challenges/limitations?
   Proper planning and time management, regular discussions, encouraging and motivating educators.

19. Skills/competencies educators need to acquire through CPD?
   Innovative teaching strategies, gain more knowledge on subject content, gain more confidence, learn to communicate better.

20. Incentives/rewards?
   All = yes, but not in terms of money. Certificates, diplomas, etc. as proof of participation in CPD programme, could serve as encouragement, could instill spirit of competitiveness, own development should be main incentive.
### APPENDIX 9(c)

**SUMMARY OF REPORT BACK FROM PARTICIPANTS ON WORKSHOP ACTIVITIES**

#### ACTIVITY NO 1: DEVELOPING A STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>TARGET GROUP</th>
<th>MODUS OPERANDI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administration: Reporting; Presenting of case</td>
<td>Beginners Intermediate Advanced</td>
<td>Computer training at different levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport management Coaching Theory/Practical Refereeing</td>
<td>All educators involved in sport as extra-mural activity</td>
<td>Coaching clinics, lectures, workshops, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team building Staff motivation</td>
<td>All staff members</td>
<td>Approach businesses Motivational talks Sessions outside school Bosberaad Staff outings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>SMT members</td>
<td>Workshop/training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### ACTIVITY NO 2: FACTORS HAMPERING EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF CPD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>STEPS/SOLUTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude</td>
<td>Implement programme Rewarding educators for their hard work Motivational speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of motivation</td>
<td>Fundraising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of resources</td>
<td>Computer classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate technological skills</td>
<td>Coaching sessions Community involvements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge/expertise iro sports</td>
<td>Involvement and motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age factor</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### ACTIVITY NO 3: HOW SMT WILL ENSURE IQMS PROCESS IS FULLY FUNCTIONAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEPS</th>
<th>WHO</th>
<th>WHAT</th>
<th>HOW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal SGB, SMT/SDT Sen &amp; Master educators</td>
<td>School Dev plan Policies; SIP; Staff Dev Programme; Committees Class visit schedules</td>
<td>Reports Regular meetings Checklists Evaluations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empower DSG SDT</td>
<td>Calendar IQMS Management plan</td>
<td>Regular feedback</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
ACTIVITY NO 4: EDUCATOR’S INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR OWN CPD

4.1 Encouraging / Motivating educators
Point out benefits
Gain their trust
Set the example
Tangible results
Evidence/results of things that work
Constantly encourage
Preach development

4.2 Culture of working together
Regular meetings
Common tasks
Force them to work together
Create opportunities
Joint responsibilities
Put them in charge
Team building
Harmonious relationships

4.3 Getting educators to change their attitude / mindset
Development is payment enough
Must understand policies
Workshop policies
Gain educators’ trust
Point out benefits
Healthy working relationships
Set the example
Do not have favourites
Do not concentrate on negatives
APPENDIX 9(d)
WORKSHOP EVALUATION FORM

Workshop Topic : Continuous professional development for educators
Workshop Objectives : To address the issues emanating from the findings of the questionnaires and interviews
Date : 5 September 2011
Facilitator : Ms LC Oosthuizen
             : NMMU D.Ed Learner

You do not have to write your name and/or any other personal details. Kindly complete the form as honestly as possible:

QUESTIONS:

1. Did the workshop achieve the stipulated objective? Motivate your answer.

2. Use the table below and rate the quality of the presentation.

|--------------|---------|------------|---------|-------------|

3. What did you learn from this workshop?

4. What, according to you, was the highlight of the workshop presentation?

5. What would you suggest for a similar workshop in order to improve the presentation?

Thank you for your co-operation.