Pedagogical practices of teachers in under resourced schools. A case study of two rural schools in Mqanduli District of the Eastern Cape Province

By

LULAMA ZIDE

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

Faculty of Education

In the

University of Fort Hare

Supervisors: Dr N. Duku
Co-supervisor: Dr N. Sotuku

February 2013

DECLARATION

I declare that Pedagogical practices of teachers in under resourced schools. A case study of two rural schools in Mqanduli District of the Eastern Cape Province is my own work, except where indicated, and that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any university.

SIGNATURE: DATE

_____   _____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

The South African schooling system is faced with a number of crisis situations. Of these is the high under resourcing in rural public schools. Macfarlane (2005:5) deduces that despite rapid recent urbanization, half of South Africa's learners still attend schools in theses rural under resourced areas. The Eastern Cape is one of the provinces that have saturated the media with a discrepancy of having a lot of under resourced schools especially in rural areas. This study, therefore, investigated pedagogical strategies used by teachers in under resourced schools - how teachers teach to ensure that teaching and learning occurs under such dire circumstances.

The study followed a qualitative approach under an interpretive paradigm with a case study research design. Furthermore, the data collection techniques involved semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and documentary analysis.

This study revealed that all the respondents from both schools seemed to have a common understanding of what a school resource means though put in different statements. The findings also revealed that all the respondents were silent in mentioning parents as school resources. From the documents analysed, it however, came to view that it is expected of the teachers to use a learner centred approach kind of teaching, where learners are mostly used. Responding on parents the teachers alleged a lack of involvement of parents in their children's learning and other activities run in their school.

The study recommends that the Department of Education officials need to make regular visits on schools for the betterment of teaching and learning standard, regular improvement on school facilities and handling of finances.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS   **PAGES**

CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6. REFERENCES

7. APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

DoE   Department of Education

EN   Escuela Nueva

EMIS   Education Management Information Systems

HAC   Housing Assistance Council

HoD   House of Delegates schools

HoR   House of Representatives schools

HSRC   Human Sciences Research Council

LTSM   Teaching and Learning Material

NBPTS National Board for Professional Teaching Standards

NCS   National Curriculum Statement

NMF   Nelson Mandela Foundation

OBE   Outcomes-based education

OCBSAs Outside Core Based Statistical Areas

PCK   Pedagogical content knowledge

QT   Quality teaching

RSA   Republic of South Africa

SGB   School Governing Body

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines a background the study sets on. Following sections comprise of the conceptualization of a well resourced school, an under resourced school and of pedagogical practices. Furthermore, the chapter covers the problem statement, research questions guiding the research, a purpose, objectives, significance, a rationale, a scope of the study, definition of terms and a chapter outline.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In South Africa, inequality still remains a problem in the education system. Bloch (2005) indicates that the education system remains highly stratified with two systems still in place and the inequality between them being reinforced and perpetuated. By reinforced and perpetuated, Bloch refers to a point that the difference in the education system received by South African children is driven by certain forces that make the situation worse. Leibowitz (2010:07) expounds on Bloch's view stating that after sixteen years of democracy the education system of South Africa is still unequally distributed amongst the people. He states that one is for the rich and one for the poor and "still affected by the vestiges, or ravages, of colonialism and apartheid ideology". One consists of the former Model C schools, which is adequately resourced, and the other constitutes the township and rural schools entrenched in abject poverty (Arense, 2011).

The scenario of under resourcing of schools as argued by the authors above indicates that South African schools are differentiated into two categories: (1) the resourced and (2) the under-resourced schools. The South African schooling system is faced with a number of crisis situations. Of these is the high under resourcing in rural public schools. Macfarlane (2005:5) deduces that despite rapid recent urbanization, half of South Africa's learners still attend schools in theses rural under resourced areas. One may ask then, what do these schools have to offer?

The Eastern Cape is one of the provinces that have saturated the media of having a lot of under resourced schools especially in rural areas. Many schools within the province are under resourced in terms of the minimum school equipment. Equipment such as school furniture, telephones, photocopiers, learner resource material (textbooks), electricity, water ablution facilities, audio visuals equipment and, in many instances, even educators (Sao:2008). The state of under resourcing in schools contradicts what the bill of rights, act 108 of 1996, 29(1) (a) 7(b) guarantees. The bill states that everyone has a right to basic education and further education. The state, therefore, through reasonable measures, is expected to make the right progressively available and accessible. In the light of the above, such availability and accessibility as guaranteed by the bill is questionable. Questions and concerns of how teaching and learning occurs in such schools invades our thinking.

The under resourced schools affect the instruction activities that impart knowledge or skill in the teaching and learning environment. Fine, Burns, Payne and Torre (2004:2198) argue that dilapidated buildings coupled with a chronic shortage of up- to- date textbooks cripple teachers and learners' social aspirations, ability and self sense. This means therefore, that

such schools are an insult and a handicap to pedagogy as teachers will experience difficulty in mediating learning. With South African schooling in the Eastern Cape and other parts of the country riddled with such pressures, how do teachers take pride in their profession in such dire situations?

The challenge of the under resourcing of schools by government poses limitations to instructional and curriculum delivery practices. Berger (2003) documents that South African education system is under threat due to the state of resources. Berger explains that well-resourced schools are at a better chance as compared to under-resourced schools in implementing Outcomes-based education (OBE). This view is supported by Wickam & Versfeld (1998:7) who endorse what Professor Joe Muller, former head of the School of Education at the University of Cape Town, claims about how outcomes-based education works in well-resourced schools.

Despite all the inequalities, in South Africa, the national curriculum is expected to be implemented in all public schools (Department of Education (DoE), 2002). This is regardless of whether schools have resources or not. The norms and standards for educators categorises teaching resources in three: (1) Common teaching resources like textbooks, chalkboards and charts, (2) Use of media like overheard projectors, computers, videos, and (3) Popular media and resources like newspapers and magazines (DoE, 1996). Moreover, teachers in under-resourced and resourced schools are expected to fulfil the same roles as outlined in the norms and standards for educators (DoE, 2000).

Schools that are well-resourced have facilities such as laboratories and libraries which help teachers to fulfil their role as learning mediators as compared to their counterparts. In support, Ndungane (2010) argues that what is stated by the DoE is easier done in well-resourced schools than in under-resourced schools. He further claims that well-resourced schools offer a multitude of choices and possibilities to their pupils and they offer smaller, manageable classes, libraries, and science and computer laboratories. However, under resourced schools have been found to be overcrowded. Regardless of such state, they expected to implement the same resource driven curriculum in 'their large, overcrowded classrooms' (Ajiboye and Adeyinka, 2007).

Berger (2003) also defines the norms and standards of media resources for teachers to implement the resource driven curriculum as something that is totally inaccessible. Beger claims that under resourced schools has no electricity to even run media resources. According to Chuenyane (2010), OBE is resource-driven yet only 2.7% of schools have libraries. For the under-resourced even such resources are limited because in some instances a class with 80 learners would be found sharing about 10 textbooks. The government therefore has a duty to find a way of bridging the difference between wealthier schools and their poorer counterparts. Predictably, these gross inequalities in spending, facilities, and faculties have resulted in unequal achievement (Berger, 2003).

The sections that follow conceptualises the meaning of well resourced and under resourced schools.

1.2.1 Conceptualisation of well resourced schools

Well-resourced schools refer to a teaching and learning context that exposes learners to a range of diverse sources of information and representations of ideas and views in many forms and languages (Karlsson, 1998:33). Such range of diverse resources includes facilities such as up to standard sports fields for a variety of extra mural activities, human resource and teaching and learning support material (LTSM).

The schools referred to as well-resourced schools in the South African education context are the schools formerly known as Model C schools. These schools were under the control of the House of Assembly, which were mainly schools for white people only (Cronje, 2012:2). However the term 'Model C' is no longer officially used (Cronje, 2012:2). Other better resourced schools are the schools that were categorised for Indians. These schools were formerly called the House of Representatives schools (HoR) (Roodt, 2011). In addition are the ones that were categorised for coloureds and were called House of Delegates schools (HoD) (Cronje, 2012:2).

These former model C schools trace their roots to the beginning of the 1990s. The then minister of education, Mr Piet Clasé, announced that from 1991 parents with children in white government schools would be allowed to choose from three models how the schools would be run in future (Hofmeyr, 2000:6). By April 1992, approximately 1 900 former white schools had become Model C schools. This was roughly 96% of all schools that were under the control of the House of Assembly (Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC, 2008). The Model C style had principles that would result in the schools becoming semi-privatised. These schools received a state subsidy but would have to raise the balance of its budget

through fees and donations. The schools had also to be able to admit black pupils up to a maximum of 50% of the student body (HSRC, 2008).

Due to the legacy of the past, former 'Model C' schools, and to a lesser extent, former HoR and HoD schools, still benefit from far superior facilities and resources. Such benefits are better than schools that were reserved for African pupils during apartheid (Roodt, 2011:2). These are schools that are better equipped are urban public schools. They tend to have a lower student to teacher ratio (30:1 or less) and offer more facilities and extramural activities (Hofmeyr, 2000:6). These schools receive a smaller state subsidy, which means that the school fees are naturally much higher (Roodt, 2011:2).

Generally, the governing body of the school employs additional teachers so that the student to teacher ratio is kept low. It is possible for these schools to have governing bodies that are able to employ more teachers. Soga (2004), reports that, generally these are schools which are found in the more affluent provinces, such as Gauteng and the Western Cape. The HSRC (2008) claims that, in addition, these schools are able to charge parents of pupil's higher fees, as they normally serve affluent areas. Higher fees therefore allow these schools to employ extra teachers. The teachers are appointed by the governing body, rather than the Department of Basic Education, resulting in smaller classes (HSRC, 2008).

Results in well-resourced schools are excellent, but the pupils attending these schools account for a small number of total pupils attending public schools in South Africa. In former 'Model C' schools, 93.7% of pupils who wrote matric in 2011 passed while in former HOR schools the pass rate was significantly lower at 68.4%. In the 'other schools' the pass rate

was a disappointing 52.9% - well under the national average of just over 60% (Cronje, 2012:2). However, the percentage of learners who write matric in these 'other schools' is even higher. According to Roodt (2011:3), these figures were not surprising as "Former 'Model C' schools are, in general, still better-resourced and better managed than other schools.

Along with superior facilities most well-resourced schools also perform well due to greater parental involvement. Such involvement is through pro-active governing bodies and parent teacher associations. It is also likely that the greater involvement of parents through these entities also contributes to improved results in well-resourced schools (Roodt, 2011:2). Such well served and well organised entities create an environment conducive to perform and offer the best academic results. Thus allow better ability to implement the OBE curriculum, as compared to their poorer counterparts, which are under resourced schools.

1.2.2 Conceptualisation of under resourced schools

Under resourced schools are defined by Karlsson (1998:33) as a teaching and learning context that is exposed to a critical lack and insufficiency in resources. It is a well-known fact that despite concerted effort by the post-apartheid government, the majority of schools attended by black learners remain under-resourced and under-serviced (DoE, 2005). Naicker (2000:1) advocates that he disparity in schools touches on almost every aspect of education service delivery. These include teacher training, resources at school and support materials (Naicker, 2000:1).

Ndungane, (2010) and Berger, (2003); believe that under-resourced schools are faced with tremendous challenges. The following, they claim, are the features of such challenges:

- Inadequate teaching and learning material such as lack of libraries, laboratories, textbooks, chalkboards, access to ICT programs and computers, and furniture.

- Overcrowded classes or multigraded classes which the former referring to a class fluxed with a large number of learners and the latter referring to two or more grades sharing the same classroom.

- Poor infrastructure (such as unwieldy classes).

- Poor sanitation (usage of pit systems), no piped water, and no electricity.

- Insufficient or no funding at all by the government.

South Africa's racist political and educational policies placed these schools at a vast disadvantage in terms of resources as compared to their urban counterparts. These are resources such as physical infrastructure, educational resources availability, teacher quality and quantity, and learner attainment, as compared to their urban counterparts (Nsubuga, 2009:5). At the end of apartheid in 1994, there was a concerted effort by the new government to remove the inequalities and the injustice of the past from the country's education system. The aim was to form a system that is underpinned by principles of democracy, equity, redress, transparency and participation (Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1996c). However, despite these educational gains, inequalities still persist in South Africa's education system. Nowhere else is this more apparent than in the country's rural education sector (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Department of Education (DoE), 2005).

Under resourced schools are schools mostly found in areas with low socio economic contexts and are associated with rural communities, informal settlements and farm schools (Ndungane, (2010) and Bloch (2005). Nsubuga (2009) supports this by indicating that these schools are often found in townships and poorer areas. He claims that this is where generally the school fees, if there are any, are very low but the student to teacher ratio is also much higher (sometime 50:1). For example, Berger (2003) claims that in 2000, over 35% of all school buildings were in 'weak to very weak' condition where buildings needing the most repairs were concentrated in poor, predominantly black areas. According to Motlante (2009), it is sad to know that where education is most needed to help break the cycle of poverty is where infrastructure, administrative and teacher capacity are least impressive.

A recent comprehensive overview of rural schooling in South Africa's poorest provinces is provided in *Emerging Voices* (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005). The document contains ample evidence that despite the advent of democracy, government policies remain insensitive to the specific conditions and needs of South Africa's rural poor. Furthermore, it states that education in rural South Africa remains very much on the margins as it was during the apartheid era. Such areas serve Black dominated areas. As documented by Nsubuga (2009:5), post-apartheid educational reforms have tended to paint black educational problems with one brush. The reforms ignore the unique circumstances of rural schools, especially community schools, within the black education landscape.

The following section explores the term pedagogy together with an overview of various pedagogical practices used by teachers in school generally (whether well-resourced or

under resourced) as the gist of the study lies on pedagogical practices in the rural under resourced schools.

1.2.3 Conceptualizing the term pedagogical practices

Pedagogy is derived from the Greek word "paid," meaning child plus "agogos," meaning leading. Thus, pedagogy has been defined as the art and science of teaching children. Teachers make use of various pedagogical practices when imparting knowledge and being engaged in classroom activities. Pedagogy is defined by Hoadley (2006:16) as a process that "inducts learners into a 'school' way of organising experience and making meaning". This term is based on three senses; 1) the principles and methods of instruction, 2) the profession of a teacher and 3) the activities of educating or instructing activities that impart knowledge or skill" (Hiemstra et al., 1990). Pedagogy also refers to the procedures adopted for the delivery of the content of the various subjects in the school curriculum. The term is also used interchangeably with teaching techniques, methods of teaching, and instructional strategies (Lingam, 2007:188). According to Conrad (1993), the field relies heavily on educational psychology or theories about the way in which learning takes place:

1. The function or work of a teacher.

2. The art or science of teaching; education; instructional methods.

3. Preparatory training or instruction.

Bernstein's theory entails two things involved in a pedagogical practice context. These are classification and framing. These terms describe the structural and interactional aspects of pedagogic practice, exposing the power and control relations that inhere in pedagogic practice. Both terms are intertwined at both macro and micro levels to a set of related concepts which allow for the analysis of the workings of power and control, in particular in

relation to transmission and acquisition processes (Hoadley, 2006:20). The relations of transmission and acquisition consecutively involve teaching and learning.

Shulman (1987) presents a theory on knowledge of teaching. For pedagogical practices, Shulman identifies the Pedagogical content knowledge. This is a combination of content and pedagogy. Pedagogical content knowledge represented an effort to capture the "instruction strategies" teachers use when they teach specific subject matter content (Lee n.d.). Cogill (2008) defines pedagogical content knowledge as the knowledge of how to teach within a particular subject area. It enables teachers to ease the learning for students through use of clear explanations, appropriate analogies and presenting learning in interesting, motivating and even entertaining ways. The concept of pedagogical content knowledge is integral to teaching as a profession and is often considered to be an important aspect of a teacher's lived experience (Botha and Reddy, 2011:257).

Fischer (1979:251) declares that historically, emphasis has been placed on styles or general methods of teaching, for it was assumed that if one followed a recognized method of good teaching, all educable students would learn. However, Fischer (1979:251) states that due to recent commitments to individualize instruction and to lower the dropout rate, there was a need to re-examine teaching styles and their relative merits. Fischer (1979:251) has identified the following pedagogical styles:

A. The task orientated – These teachers prescribe the material to be learned and demand specific performance on the part of the students.

B. The co-operative planner – These teachers plan the means and ends of instruction with the students' co-operation. These teachers encourage and support student participation at all levels.

C. The child centred – This teacher provides a structure for students to pursue whatever they want to do or whatever interests them.

D. The subject centred – These teachers focus on organized content to the near exclusion of the learner. By 'covering the subject', they satisfy their consciences even if little learning takes place.

E. The learning centred – These teachers have equal concern for the students and for the curriculum objectives, the material to be learned. They reject the over emphasis of both the child centred an the subject centred styles and instead help students, whatever their abilities or disabilities, develop towards substantive goals as well as in their autonomy in learning.

F. The emotionally exciting and its counterpart – These teachers show their own intensive emotional involvement in teaching. They enter the teaching- learning process with zeal and usually produce a classroom atmosphere of excitement and high emotion.

However, Long (2008:155) presents the following various commonly used Pedagogical Practices:

1. Interpretative Pedagogies

Interpretative pedagogies stress that students take public action when they venture somewhere new to build working relationships with others. The students go somewhere new, building relationships; confronting and revising familiar stereotypes. Students prioritize both new working relationships and deeper understandings of loaded cultural issues. The Interpretative pedagogies value students' personal growth and emphasize that students share what they have learned over the course of their off-campus experiences.

2. Institutional Pedagogies

Institutional pedagogies focus on students' futures—especially their careers as technical communicators and human service workers. The students learn professional methods for recognizing the expertise and agency of others. The Institutional pedagogies portray students as professionals in training. Students in these courses go public in their professional roles; likewise, these pedagogies promote social change by altering the rhetorical practices students take with them into the workplace. Students note the ethical implications that technical communications carry. There is an interrogation of asymmetrical relationships as institutional arrangements with complex histories and important social implications. Students learn professional research methods for seeking out the perspectives and situated knowledge of community residents.

3. Tactical Pedagogies

Tactical pedagogies prioritize that students learn to produce and to circulate their own public writing. This involves learners being able to circulate their own public writing that challenges the *status quo.* Tactical pedagogies teach students to circulate counter public discourses as expressions of students' social and political views. Students adapt the counter public discourses of radically progressive social movements to their own rhetorical purposes knowing they don't "have to do it alone"' as they can come together and form a movement.

4. Inquiry-Driven Pedagogies

Inquiry-driven pedagogies support discursive spaces where students work with intercultural partners to inquire into and deliberate about pressing social problems, working toward both personal and public change. Deliberating pressing social issues with community partners; circulating documents that serve as catalysts for social change. In inquiry-driven courses, college students learn to participate with other people and perspectives in problem-focused dialogue. Students position themselves as members of a local public deliberating with others across boundaries of difference into a pressing social issue. Students, structure inquiry with others, using tools attuned to their rhetorical goals. Students translate their inquiries into purposeful public documents that respond to rhetorical goals and social exigencies.

5. Performative Pedagogies

Performative pedagogies capitalize on the dramatic aspects of public performance, particularly the capacity to call a public into being. They involve engaging as rhetors with

Others to gain the practical wisdom required to build inclusive communities for effective problem solving. Students capitalize on the dramatic aspects of performance and the poetic world. Students develop the reflective, rhetorical agency. Students perform contemporary paideutic rhetoric by standing for something with others across difference. According to Long (195), the term *paideutic* refers to the "promise" of classical rhetorical education and "the making of good citizens."

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Literature indicates that the South African education system has a two tier system of education. One is for the poor which is under-resourced and one is for the rich and the elite

which is well-resourced (Ntola, 2010:10). However, teaching in under resourced schools occurs under an umbrella of a resource driven curriculum.

According to Wallace (2000:01), lliterature that has examined teachers in under-resourced schools has revealed that teachers may believe jobs in low-performing, under-resourced schools will be too challenging, frustrating, or unsatisfying. But then there seems to be dearth of literature that has examined the pedagogical practices of the teachers in under-resourced schools as most studies have looked at teacher and child relationships. This study, therefore, investigated pedagogical strategies used by teachers in under resourced schools - how teachers teach to ensure that teaching and learning occurs under such dire circumstances

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.4.1 Main Research Question

- What are pedagogical practices of teachers in rural under resourced schools?

1.4.2 Sub – Questions

- What conception do teachers have of a well-resourced school and an under-resourced school?

- What challenges do the teachers experience in their teaching and learning activities due to under resourcing and how do they resolve them?

- Which strategies do teachers use to deliver the content of the learning areas offered in their under resourced schools?

- What success do the teachers have in their under-resourced schools?

1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study seeks to explore the pedagogical practices of teachers in rural under resourced schools. Schooling goes on in under resourced schools, with insufficient resources, the question that comes to mind then is: how do teachers teach and cope with limited resources? The study also explores the practices they use to reach children in implementing the resource driven curriculum. To bring a view from the teachers themselves who are hands-on in the practical level of continuously enhancing teaching and learning in these schools. This study attempts to bring a new insight on what exactly are the realities from a qualitative basis of the people who are on the exposure of what constitutes an under-resourced school and the realities of working in them on a daily basis trying to achieve the best results. The aim is to explore the challenges and successes in teaching in such schools and bring in recommended strategies to overcome the barrier of under resourcing.

1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

➢ To examine teachers conception of a well resourced and an under resourced school.

➢ To investigate the pedagogical practices the teachers use in under resourced schools (GET Band).

➢ To examine the challenges the teachers experience in their teaching and learning activities due to under resourcing and how do they resolve them?

➢ To explore teacher's successes in under resourced school.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Since the South African government has increased access to education and there has been recognition of the importance of resources to under-resourced schools, there is a drive to put resources in schools. This study will be of value to:

- The National Department of Education

- The Provincial Department of Education

- Provincial Curriculum planners

- District Curriculum manager

- School, teachers and learners

- The parent body

1.8 RATIONALE

As a teacher since 1997, it has been observed that even though a democratic government took over the apartheid system from 1994, the schooling system in South Africa still remains differentiated. This is despite the attempts the government has made such as investing more money in the education department than in other departments, trying to close the gaps in school resourcing as well as to promote quality education. Although literature explicitly defines the benefits of a well-resourced environment in the education system, both to teaching and learning, a number of schools still continue to suffer.

1.9 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted focusing only on two under-resourced junior secondary schools identified in the Mqanduli district in the Eastern Cape Province. The study was confined to interviewing teachers teaching in those schools. The study excluded focus on other teachers from other schools other than the ones stated; as well as no focus was given to other school stakeholders such as parents, students or departmental officials.

1.10   DEFINITION OF TERMS

Outcomes-Based Education: There are many definitions of OBE stated by different researchers in the field. Gulting (1998:24) define outcomes-based education as focussing

and organising an education system around what is essential for all students to be able to succeed at the end of their learning experiences.

Pedagogy: the procedures adopted for the delivery of the content of the various subjects in the school curriculum (Hoadley 2006:16).

Under-resourced Schools: A teaching and learning context that is exposed to a critical lack and insufficiency in resources (Karlsson, 1998:33).

Well-resourced Schools: A teaching and learning context that exposes learners to a range of diverse sources of information and representations of ideas and views in many forms and languages (Karlsson, 1998:33).

1.11 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

The study will comprise of chapters which will be as follows:

Chapter 1: This chapter covers the following sections: an introduction, a background to the study, conceptualization of well resourced schools, conceptualization of under resourced schools, conceptualization of the term pedagogy, a problem statement, research questions, purpose of the study, objectives, significance, a rationale, scope the study covered and the definition of terms.

Chapter 2: This chapter provides the literature review of the study with the following themes: Bernstein's sociological theory of pedagogy, the Escuela Nueva model, a study of public libraries and outcomes-based education (OBE),Overview of the South African curriculum context, conceptualisation of the term rural, rural schools and resources, conceptualization of the term pedagogy.

Chapter Three: This chapter deals with the methodology used in the research, the research paradigm, research design, study population and the methods and techniques used in the study.

Chapter Four: In this chapter the researcher presents all the data collected and analyse it to formulate themes.

Chapter Five: In this chapter, the researcher discusses the findings of the study, make conclusion and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a review of research and literature the researcher has found to be related to the research questions and the context of the research as a whole in order to "... enhance the credibility of the research" (James et al., 1993) as well as present a path on which the study will be embarking on.

The first section presents a theoretical framework, which is the lens which will bring an understanding of how teacher's pedagogical practices are framed. These are Bernstein's (1975) sociological theory of pedagogy and Shulman's (1987) theory for the teaching reform. Sections that follow cover the education system in South Africa, conceptualization of the term rural, a look at challenges faced by rural schools and resources and lastly the conceptualization of the term pedagogy and various pedagogical practices in schools.

2.2   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A number of various literature writers and scholars have researched and presented findings while some created theories on the concept of pedagogy and its practices. This section will look at the following literatures and form a basis of the research study at hand. This will create a path and direction of formulating and consolidating the end findings.

2.2.1   Bernstein's sociological theory of pedagogy

This theory explores class relation in schooling between a teacher and a learner. The theory is therefore in relation to what the study wants to find, that is pedagogies of teachers in under resourced schools, as relations between teacher and learner in pedagogy used in class are involved. This is supported by Nsubuga (2009:75) stating that Bernstein's sociological perspectives on education have found fertile ground in South Africa, in the context of on-going curriculum reforms. His work has been hailed as breaking new ground in

the analysis of the link between macro-level education changes and their impacts at classroom level. For example, Bernstein's theories have proved useful in analysing and explaining the unintended consequences of a constructivist and integrationist approach to learning for South Africa's disadvantaged rural learners, as in Taylor and Vinjevold (1999) and in Taylor, Muller and Vinjevold (2003) as cited in Nsubuga, 2009).

Bernstein's theoretical projects demonstrates how class relations generate and distribute different forms of communication and ways of making meaning which differentially position subjects with respect to schooling and its requirements (Hoadley, 2006). Bernstein's theory allows us to pay close attention to how power structures and how control makes and unmakes the categories into which learners are sorted (Hoadley, 2006:32).

Bernstein in his theory states that education specialises consciousness with respect to school ways of organising experience and making meaning. With respect to agents, the theory identifies how teachers and learners pedagogic identities are demarcated. This occurs in "two key mechanism" known as "classification and framing, which refer, respectively, to power and control" (Holland: 1981).

Classification relates to the "*relations between,* and the degree of maintenance between categories, and these include the boundaries between agents, spaces and discourses" (Hoadley, 2006:17). Classification is further explicitly defined in three contexts:

- At a higher level of abstraction, classification refers to the social division of labour.

- At the macro level classification generates categories of agents and discourses

- At the micro level classification is about the organizational or structural aspects of pedagogic practice (Hoadley, 2006:17).

The study however puts more focus at the latter level which is the micro level as it involves pedagogical practices.

According to Bernstein as analysed in Hoadley (2006:17) classification is outlined as:

- Strong – Where boundaries are explicit and categories are insulated from one another.

- Weak - Where there is integration, or where the boundary is weak or blurred

However, framing refers to the degree of control teacher and pupils possess over the selection, sequencing, spacing and evaluation of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship (Bernstein, 1975). Thus therefore, has an implication for pedagogical practices the teachers use in integrating learning activities in their rural under resourced schools. In this relationship knowledge is organised. According to Shalem & Slonimsky (2010), the organisation of systematic learning is described as the main purpose and internal logic of teaching.

Framing as in classification is further explicitly defined in the various contexts as:

- At macro level framing refers to relations within boundaries.

- At micro level framing refers to the location of control over the rules of communication. It refers to the degree of control teacher and pupil possesses over the selection, sequencing, pacing and evaluation of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship.

Hoadley (2006:18) outlines that framing is categorised as strong (referring to a limited degree of options for students) and as weak (implying more 'apparent' control by learners).

Framing is about who has control over the learning process (Robertson, 2008). Bernstein (1996:19), demonstrates that the nature of control is double – faced for it carries both the power of reproduction and the potential for its change in a pedagogic relationship.

According to Hassan (2002), framing, in a sense, supports classification; as it produces 'the animation of the power grid. These two terms (classification and framing) are said to be "dialectically linked" meaning that they can't be seen separately. Hence, therefore, Hoadley (2006:18) in support of the view that as much as the concepts can be defined separately, but, there is 'a crucial relation," between the two terms. Such relation is shown in the sense that, "It is framing (control) which contains within it the making and the unmaking of the classification (power). The scholars point out that classification can not materialise without the basis, which is framing, in order to achieve its set boundary.

In the light of what Bernstein's theory entails, put in simple terms, classification and framing describe the structural and interactional aspects of pedagogic practice, exposing the power and control relations that inhere in pedagogic practice, both terms being intertwined at both macro and micro levels to a set of related concepts which allow for the analysis of the workings of power and control, in particular in relation to transmission and acquisition processes (Hoadley, 2006:20).

2.2.2 Shulman's knowledge and teaching: Foundations for New Reform

Lee Shulman's (1987) theory for the teaching reform is established or built up on an idea of teaching that emphasizes comprehension and reasoning, transformation and reflection. She argues that the emphasis is justified by the resoluteness with which research and policy have so blatantly ignored those aspects of teaching in the past (Shulman, 1987:1). In this

theory, Shulman provides an argument that responds to the question of the intellectual, practical, and normative basis for the professionalization of teaching. Shulman's (1987:4) argument forms basis on four questions which are:

- ✓ What are the sources of the knowledge base for teaching?

- ✓ In what terms can these sources be conceptualized?

- ✓ What are the processes of pedagogical reasoning and action?

- ✓ What are the implications for teaching policy and educational reform

Such questions make this theory relevant to the study as it seeks to answer how teachers teach in their rural under resourced schools. Such practices as the researcher believes surely emanate from their knowledge base of teaching and the implications for teaching and learning.

Shulman (1986:6) further adds that her approach has been conditioned, as well, by two current projects: a study of how new teachers learn to teach and an attempt to develop a national board for teaching. He states that results of the empirical research on effective teaching, while they are valuable, are not sole source of evidence on which to base a definition of the knowledge base of teaching. Rather, she suggests a shift on the focus of depending on empirical research on teacher effectiveness. Rather the focus should be on an argument he makes, that there exists an elaborate knowledge base for teaching.

In view of teaching, Shulman (1986:7) maintains that a teacher knows something not understood by others, presumably the students. The teacher can transform understanding, performance skills, or desired attitudes or values into pedagogical representations and

actions. He alleges that these are ways of talking, showing, enacting, or otherwise representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern, and the unskilled can become adept. Thus, as he states, teaching necessarily begins with a teacher's understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught. This proceeds, as Shulman states, through a series of activities during which the students are provided specific instruction and opportunities for learning. But the learning itself ultimately remains the responsibility of the students. However, Shulman states that, although this is certainly a core conception of teaching, it is also an incomplete conception. Therefore, he outlines the categories of knowledge that underlie the teacher understanding needed to promote comprehension among students.

According to Cogill (2008), these are:

- Content knowledge – Refers to Academic related knowledge. Subject matter knowledge includes information or data and the structures, rules, and conventions for organizing and using information or data.

- General pedagogical knowledge e.g. classroom control, using group work. These are Principles of classroom management and organization unrelated to subject matter. General pedagogical knowledge is unrelated to a specific subject matter and can therefore be implemented in a vast array of classroom settings.

- Pedagogical content knowledge - The combination of content and pedagogy. This is information or data that helps lead learners to an understanding. This includes any way of representing a subject that makes it comprehensible to others.

- Curriculum knowledge- Materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers. Knowledge of the curriculum can be considered vertical (within a discipline area across grades), or horizontal (within grade and across disciplines).

- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics. It involves Specific understanding of the learners' characteristics .These characteristics can be used to specialize and adjust instruction.

- Knowledge of educational contexts e.g. schools and the wider community. An understanding of the classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, the character of school communities. Knowledge of the big picture surrounding the classroom helps to inform teachers about how the community may perceive their educational actions. This knowledge of educational contexts may also inform teachers about how to proceed in the classroom in relation to school, community, and state conventions, laws, and rules.

- Knowledge of educational ends purposes and values- The purposes and values of education as well as their philosophical and historical grounds. An understanding of the purposes and values of education will help teachers motivate learners.

All these categories, as much as they are in distinct definitions, however blend together to define knowledge of teaching. As the study focuses on pedagogical practices of teachers, of the seven categories, more interest for the study is on the pedagogical content knowledge. Pedagogical content knowledge represented an effort to capture the "instruction strategies" teachers use when they teach specific subject matter content (Lee). Shulman (1987) defines pedagogical content knowledge as the knowledge of how to teach within a particular subject area. It enables teachers to ease the learning for students through use of clear

explanations, appropriate analogies and presenting learning in interesting, motivating and even entertaining ways (Cogill, 2008). The concept of pedagogical content knowledge is integral to teaching as a profession and is often considered to be an important aspect of a teacher's lived experience (Botha and Reddy, 2011:257). They further highlight that Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is described as a transformation of teacher knowledge from a variety of domains of knowledge, which includes subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge about content.

Shulman (1987) observes that as a compliment to the teacher knowledge base theory, Shulman (1987) presented the model for pedagogical reasoning and action. The model for pedagogical reasoning included six components: comprehension, transformation, instruction, evaluation, reflection, and new comprehension. Wilson, Shulman & Richert (1987) elaborate that a linear relationship existed among these components of pedagogical reasoning and action. Pedagogical reasoning begins with the comprehension of subject matter and continues with new comprehension after reflection on instruction. As the heart of the study lies with the pedagogical practices of teachers, more relevance is within the component of instruction.

Shulman maintains that, instruction involves the observable performance of the variety of teaching acts. It includes many of the most crucial aspects of pedagogy which are:

I.   Organizing and managing the classroom

II.   Presenting clear explanations and vivid descriptions

III.   Assigning and checking work

IV.   Interacting effectively with students through questions and probes, answers and reactions, praise and criticism.

XXXVI

Instruction thus includes management, explanation, discussion, and all the observable features of effective direct and heuristic instruction documented on effective teaching (Shulman, 1987:17).

2.3 EDUCATION SYSTEM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Literature reveals that South Africa has a two tier education system. One system consists of well resourced urban schools while the other consists of rural under resourced schools. In support, Arense (2011) expounds that the well resourced system of schools consist of the former Model C schools and the other (under resourced). Well-resourced schools refer to a teaching and learning context that exposes learners to a range of diverse sources of information and representations of ideas and views in many forms and languages (Karlsson, 1998:33). However, under resourced schools are defined by Karlsson (1998:33) as a teaching and learning context that is exposed to a critical lack and insufficiency in resources.

The constitution of the republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108of 1996), ushered in democracy, which in turn, necessitated a review of the national education system. Karlsson (1998:35) highlights that the education system of South Africa changed to a resource-rich, learner-centred outcomes-based curriculum and OBE that presuppose a resource-rich learning environment. The DoE (1997a) confirms that given this educative context, learners develop independent and critical thinking, evaluate matters and solve problems in a more reasoned and systematic manner.

However, the system of education in South Africa still forms basis of its roots planted in the country's previous apartheid ways of ruling by the then government. The apartheid

government racially segregated South African citizens. The White ethnic group was treated as superior and receiving high quality education as compared to a Bantu education system offered for the Black ethnic group only which was so poor that it left millions of adults functionally illiterate (Pretorius, 1999: iv & Lodge, 1985:117). It is a well-known fact that despite concerted effort by the post-apartheid government, nothing much has changed as the majority of schools attended by black learners remain under-resourced and under-serviced (DoE, 2005).

A comprehensive overview of rural schooling in South Africa's poorest provinces is provided in *Emerging Voices* (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005). This overview contains ample evidence that despite the advent of democracy, government policies remain insensitive to the specific conditions and needs of South Africa's rural poor. It also adds that education in rural South Africa remains very much on the margins as it was during the apartheid era. Such areas serve Black dominated areas as documented by Nsubuga (2009:5) noting that post-apartheid educational reforms have tended to paint black educational problems with one brush, ignoring the unique circumstances of rural schools, especially community schools, within the black education landscape.

It is also important to highlight that with the state of the school education system stratified to well resourced and rural under resourced, the resource driven curriculum is expected to be implemented by all schools despite the resource differences. This is also noted by the Department of Education (DoE, 2002) itself alleging that despite all the inequalities, in South Africa, the national curriculum is expected to be implemented in all public schools. Implications are therefore that rural under resourced schools are struggling. Because under

resourced schools involve the concept of rurality, it is of importance to explore and unpack what this term means.

2.3.1 Conceptualizing the term rural

Ashley and Maxwell (2001), indicate that the term suffers from ambiguity, which is a result of being based on an arbitrary and varied divide between urban and rural. According to La Caille (2008) many people have definitions for the term rural, but seldom are these rural definitions in agreement. Housing Assistance Council (2008:4) also agrees that there is no single definition of rural as the question of rural confuses, perplexes, and confounds nearly everyone who works in rural areas or with rural populations of the United States. This is supported by Seroto (2004:21) noting that the term is often loosely used in literature, and is usually implied rather than explicitly stated. Moreover, the situation is further complicated by the fact that rurality is experienced differently in different countries, and in different contexts within the same country (Atchoarena, 2006).

Many writers define rural emerging from a deficit point of view. For example, Howarth (1996) notes that, in America, "in the eyes of our mostly urban majority, rural is often cast as primitive, rugged, and lacking sophistication." Such writers view the rural areas as areas that have no life with hardships for survival and in need of intervention. For some, however, "rural" embodies a sense of the pristine, untainted by the ravaging demands of a modern, urban world with rural people perceived as nice, trustworthy, and community oriented (Danboom 1996). This is to the extent that rural attributes are often still sought after as Howarth (1996) notes that rural influence is still seen in city parks, suburban yards and the recreational activities of urban people". However, the simplest definitions of 'rural' are

those that take a one-dimensional approach to the concept. For example 'rural' as used in McKenna (1994:13) simply refers to belonging to the countryside.

The US Census Bureau defines Rural Areas as open country and settlements with fewer than 2,500 residents. Housing Assistance Council (HAC) (2008:1) writes that in a government policy context, the definition used can determine what places receive what assistance. However, in general, rural areas share the common characteristics of comparatively few people living in an area, limited access to large cities (and sometimes even to smaller towns), and considerable travelling distances to "market areas" for work and everyday living activities.

HAC (2008:1) further states that, a number of government agencies and private sector Organizations, including the HAC itself, define rural using differing measures. HAC has reviewed and summarized these definitions in previous reports (HAC 2002, HAC 2004) and among the more commonly used definitions of rural are the following:

1. *Nonmetropolitan Areas.* The Office of Management and Budget defines a Metropolitan or Micropolitan Statistical Area as a core area containing a population nucleus of 50,000 or more (Metro) or between 10,000 and 50,000 (Micro), together with adjacent communities having a high degree of economic and social integration with that core. Areas that are not in Metropolitan or Micropolitan Areas are Outside Core Based Statistical Areas (OCBSAs). The Housing Assistance Council (HAC), like numerous others, generally combines Micropolitan and OCBSAs into Nonmetropolitan Statistical Areas. Based on counties (or county equivalents), the Metro/**Non-metro** classification is easy to understand and use. It can,

however, mask residential patterns, particularly in the Western United States where counties are large.

2. *Nonurbanized Areas.* Urbanized Areas consisting of densely settled territory that contains 50,000 or more people. All population, territory, and housing units outside of Urbanized Areas are considered to be in Nonurbanized Areas.

3. *Census Defined Rural Areas.* The Census Bureau defines Rural Areas, a subset of Nonurbanized Areas, as open country and settlements with fewer than 2,500 residents

Mostly US, add more on our context, the one below is very small.

In apartheid South Africa, rural areas were simply those areas which happened to fall outside declared municipality borders (Statistics South Africa, 2003). Cities and townships were regarded as 'urban' and everything else as 'rural.' The definition of 'rural' adopted by the Ministerial Committee Report on Rural Education (South Africa, DoE, 2005), is that which was put forward in the 2001 Census Report (Statistics South Africa, 2003). In this document 'rural' refers to those areas in the "former homelands that fall under traditional authority, and those on which commercial white farms are located" (Nsubuga, 2009:23).

The underlying argument however, is that in South Africa the availability of resources in these areas differs markedly from those in urban and peri-urban areas. However, the Ministerial Committee Report on Rural Education report recommends more refinement of this definition by the inclusion of more criteria which have a bearing on the provision of quality education, such as infrastructure, accessibility to services, distances to towns and social conditions in the community.

Nsubuga (2009:23) states that this view of 'rurality' seems to support that of Smith, as quoted in Hartshorne (1992:123). According to Nsubuga, 'rural' in South Africa is characterised by isolated learning communities, separation from mainstream educational thought and progress, low levels of internal/external efficiency and of professional expertise in the community, low rates of input, powerlessness among local leadership, high levels of wastage, and geographical isolation and inaccessibility.

In summary, as much as establishing a universal definition of rural poses many challenges, but rurality, like most other things in society, exists along a continuum and varies extensively based on proximity to a central place, community size, population density, total population, and various social and economic factors. Therefore, "policy makers can use the differences in the characteristics of the places in each classification to help target assistance to its intended recipients" (HAC, 2008:5).

The literature illustrates the complexity and multifacetedness of rural as a concept. Herzog and Pittman (2002:81) point out that "not only have researchers not used a common quantitative definition of rural, many also have criticized existing definitions for being based solely upon population density or size, and not upon other characteristics that are quintessentially 'rural'". A report on rural education in South Africa (NMF, 2005) points out that what counts as rural or urban in South Africa is difficult to define because of the "deep, continuous and intertwined relationships" between the two. Some writers deal with the issue by not defining it at all, others address it by discussing how "it can be fixed" (Stephens, 1994). Despite the difficulties in establishing some degree of universal meaning, definitions

matter and need to be taken into consideration when trying to understand how or why rural is the way it is.

2.3.2 Challenges in rural schools and resources

Schools situated in rural areas often reflect the characteristics of the area, especially the rural government schools. This frequently necessitates coping with problems of the communities these schools serve. Due to isolation and low population density in rural communities, rural schools are typically small compared to schools in more populated communities. Several researchers have suggested that rural budgets are small and do not adequately cover the considerable costs of operation, especially for the new curriculum which is Outcomes-Based Education. This could lead to limited curricular and programme offerings, and a lack of resources (Ndungane, 2010).

Programmes and extra-curricular activities offered in rural schools are limited, affecting pupil's opportunities to learn. Likewise, most rural schools do not have access to technological resources. Educator experience and the recruitment and training of educators are frequently cited as major problems in rural areas. Educators who teach in rural schools are typically less likely to have a Master's degree than their counterparts in urban and suburban schools.

Schools in rural areas face tremendous challenges in providing successful schooling experiences for the economically disadvantaged students they serve as students who attend rural schools are disproportionately poor. They have few positive role models who demonstrate the link between excellence in academic performance and personal fulfilment, gainful employment and career opportunities (Ndungane, 2010). Thus most schools found in

rural areas are constant reminders of the previous government's failure to provide resources for the under privileged ones. Problems faced by rural schools include the following:

- Old facilities

- Highest number of students per school.

- Lowest numbers of qualified educators.

- Tendency to place the greatest demand on educator's time and energies

- in terms of discipline, instruction, lesson planning and class sizes and

- Highest absentee rates among school personnel.

  (Ndungane, 2010; Berger, 2003)

The state itself does not provide schools with enough teaching materials. This is noticed by looking at rural school infrastructure. The educators also remain in short supply of teaching and learning resources. Educators are receiving fewer books for their entire class each year. On the other hand the scarcity of instructional material may inadvertently strengthen the state's authority over what legitimate knowledge is presented to pupils. Educators in rural schools rely heavily on written textbooks, since this is often the only written material available. With this questionable level, teacher quality and extreme shortage of resource materials, OBE might have less chance of being successfully implemented.

When the educator is actually faced with 50-70 children in a classroom, how does he/she comply with curriculum 2005? Will he/she respond to this structure? The problem of overcrowding in classroom is exacerbated by the fact that the senior education bureaucrats and ministerial advisers have little experience on what is happening inside the classroom.

The educator workloads have risen dramatically. The Educators' Voice (January/February 2000:9) states that "A recent survey of primary teaching educators found that they work an average of 61 hours per week. As many as 40%, said that if they were able to make the choice, they would leave teaching."

When dealing with the implementation of OBE in rural schools the following questions need to be attended: If the Department of Education is unable to cater for resources in a classroom of 70 pupils, can educators in general be able to develop their own materials? Are educators properly trained or do they lack the knowledge resources? Other questions are related to a lack of time and support resources structure e.g. libraries, textbooks, computers, etc. The Educators' Voice (2002:19) states that there has been little time on the preparation of Curriculum 2005 and that resources are needed to give a curriculum a chance to be well introduced and that the educators at rural schools were not enough for its implementation.

The Eastern Cape being one of the provinces faced with inequalities in schooling within the province itself and highly engulfed with rurality and its challenges portrays a clear picture of what constitutes under resourced schooling. In this province, the classroom, one of the most fundamental teaching resources in a school is a shortage. Bot (2005:6) indicates that in March 2002, 13 874 classrooms were needed in the Eastern Cape, the biggest shortfall in the country. Overcrowded classrooms are the obvious result with a junior secondary school (JSS) that is a graphic example of how communities cope, as in 2007 it had 17 teachers and over 764 learners; far too many to be accommodated in a block of four brick classrooms and a corrugated iron structure big enough for two classes. Scattered rondavels in the

surrounding village serve as the other classrooms with no office for the principal or any staffroom for teachers (Hendricks, 2008).

Dalton (2005:5) and DoE (2006:1) show that of the 5 929 state schools that were currently in use 572 or 9.6 per cent were described as 'disaster schools', while the percentage of 'very weak school buildings', ranging from classrooms with serious cracks in the walls and no ceilings to those that are structurally unsafe, rose from 14 per cent in 1996, to 53 per cent in 2000 (Bot 2005:6). Hendricks (2008) notes that, the maintenance efforts of poor local communities, in response to this growing problem, are not enough to prevent avoidable tragedies. Newspapers report on classroom walls falling down on children all too often, as in the case of a 10 year old- year- old in Nqamakwe who was killed when a dilapidated school collapsed onto her. (Hendricks, 2008)

Hendricks (2008) in her study also echoes the fact that most poor Eastern Cape homes have little for children to read beyond a Bible. Community libraries are rare in rural areas, and over three-quarters of schools nationally have no library (Bot 2005:7). Besides shortages of textbooks, there has been little if any provision of readers, making it difficult for learners to develop age appropriate literacy in their home language or English, the language of learning and teaching from grade 4. Hendricks exemplifies the state textbooks shortage with a senior secondary school, where the shortage of textbooks in 2005 meant that 65 Grade 10 learners shared 20 English textbooks. The learners sat mainly on low benches without a backrest, had no desks on which to write (they wrote on their laps) and their teacher had neither table nor chair in his classroom.

In a context of such a dire shortage of furniture and textbooks, even when the school had donations of reading books and a teacher who could run a classroom library, there was no suitable surface – bookcase, cupboard or table – on which the teacher could store or display the books donated by Biblionef and Kearsney College. The books lay on the dusty cement floor of an improvised library housed in a block of toilets – toilets which were unused and unusable, because they were designed for water-borne sanitation (Hendricks, 2008). Fine, Burns, Payne and Torres (2004:2198) in a study of youths in run-down schools in the United States of America (USA), argue that dilapidated buildings coupled with a chronic shortage of up-to-date textbooks cripple teachers' and learner's aspirations, ability and sense of themselves.

Furthermore, the South African Schools Act of 1996 makes it clear the vital importance of parent involvement in a child's schooling. However, in the Eastern Cape, the Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005:108) found that 25 percent of female households heads had no formal schooling at all while for some is too low for them to play the role defined by the School's Act. According to the foundation, this was found disturbing as mothers play an active and supporting role in their children's learning more than men.

As much as the curriculum is faced with challenges in rural schools, but teaching and learning continues. Therefore, makes it a need to look at pedagogical practices teachers use, responsive to the contexts, at the same time help in achieving goals of the curriculum. The section that follows discusses pedagogical practices literature writers at large have explored. It is of importance to the study, as the study itself focuses on looking at pedagogies of the teachers in rural under resourced schools.

2.4 PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES

Before the researcher examines possible pedagogical practices, there is a need to unpack the term pedagogy.

2.4.1 Conceptualization of the term pedagogy

Pedagogy refers to the procedures adopted for the delivery of the content of the various subjects in the school curriculum. The term is also used interchangeably with teaching techniques, methods of teaching, and instructional strategies (Lingam, 2007:06). Pedagogy is derived from the Greek word 'paid' meaning child plus 'agogos' meaning leading. Thus, pedagogy has been defined as the art and science of teaching children (Hiemstra et al, 1990). In a similar fashion Hoadley (2006: 16) writes that pedagogy "Inducts learners into a 'school' way of organizing experience and making meaning".

This term, pedagogy, is based on three senses, "the principles and methods of instruction, the profession of a teacher and the activities of educating or instructing activities that impart knowledge or skill" (Hiemstra et al, 1990). According to Conrad (1993), the field relies heavily on educational psychology, or theories about the way in which learning takes place which involves:

1. The function or work of a teacher.

2. The art or science of teaching; education; instructional methods.

3. Preparatory training or instruction.

However, Brown (2003:1) provides a strong argument that all pedagogical acts "are affected by the conceptions teachers have about the act of teaching, the process and purpose of assessment, and the nature of learning". Such conceptions act as filters through which

educators view and interpret their own teaching environment (Marton, 1981). Moreover the conceptions can act as barriers to change (Richards & Killen, 1993). Consequently, any efforts to change educators' pedagogical practices, whether by mandate or through professional development activities, may be doomed to failure, unless these conceptions are acknowledged, challenged and eventually changed (Vandeyar and Killen, 2007:101). The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) are in support and agreement to what the term pedagogy entails. NBPTS indicates that teaching has become more than an activity that conserves valued knowledge and skills by transmitting them to succeeding generations as they have a say and may question and challenge certain developments for the betterment of their pedagogical contexts (Early Childhood/Generalist Standards, 1998). The following section explores pedagogical practices of teachers at large.

2.4.2 Pedagogical Practices

The study is based on pedagogical practices of teachers in rural under resourced schools. As the researcher, I have checked international innovations and attempts relating to pedagogical practices, that have been done in contexts that also are rural and poor like the context in which the study was conducted.

2.4.2.1 The Escuela Nueva model

This is a model that was developed to improve the education system in schools serving communities of very low socio-economic status in Colombia and Guatemala. The two countries were faced with various challenges in their education system in poor communities such as frequent use of a curriculum geared toward urban students, a lack of instructional materials, school buildings in disrepair, and teachers who usually employed passive frontal methods of pedagogy (Colbert &Arboleda, 1990 as cited in Kline, 2002). The Escuela Nueva

(EN) model creates the opportunities for students and community members to also have a degree of ownership over what could have been viewed unfavourably as an imposed reform (Kline, 2002). What constitutes this model originates from a need for change and development in an education system that has been scarred by various contexts in poor communities.

2.4.2.1.1 Historical development of the Escuela Nueva

According to Kline (2006), Escuela Nueva's (abbreviated as EN) successful reputation is directly related to its history. In Kline's (2006) analysis document of the program, EN is said to have started in the 1970s. It was designed on the basis of what is termed by (McGinn, 1996 as cited in Kline) as a 'critical aspect which is its 'organic nature'. Organic Nature of the program means that it was a process that drew on the input of many educators and allowed for numerous revisions to be made throughout its nearly two decades (1971-1989) of evolution. EN started in the 1970s as a grassroots initiative and has progressed to a national reform coordinated by the Colombian Ministry of Education.

The Colombian government, because of a chaos that it experienced within its education system, decided to bring a change and decentralize its education system. It brought in a new system of schools known as Unitary Schools with various procedures and changes accompanying it. As time progressed, it eventually became clear that the Unitary Schools had flaws--teachers and supervisors did not fully understand the reform and many teachers felt that creating their own educational materials required too much work (Kline, 2006).

Amidst of such flaws in the Unitary Schools, a group of rural primary school teachers in the Department (state) of Norte de Santander developed their own solution to the problem of

multi-grade schooling. They created learning guides with self-instructional activities for all the basic subjects and all five grade levels. Unlike the Unitary Schools materials, these ready-made guides did not increase teacher preparation time. The schools that used the learning guides, as well as other components, were labelled "Escuela Nuevas". By 1976, as a result of funding and support from UNICEF and USAID, and recognition from the Colombian Ministry of Education, the EN program was implemented in 500 primary schools throughout rural Colombia (McGinn, 1996; Rojas & Martinez, 1993; Rugh&Bossert, 1998). Hence therefore the Unitary Schools are regarded as the grassroots of the EN model.

2.4.2.1.2 Components of the Escuela Nueva model
The model forms basis on the following components:

- Addressing technical problems in the classroom

Development of materials by teachers themselves that is adaptable to the local context and to the needs of the students and teachers with an on-going exchange between students, teachers and the community.

- The training of teachers

Three one-week teacher trainings take place during their first year, paralleling the students' learning activities. The first training covers the goals and methodology of EN and the use of some of its components. The second covers how to use the student learning guides, flexible promotion, and the use of instructional materials. The third training focuses on the creation and use of the school library. Teacher learning is then supposed to continue in micro-centres, where teachers congregate once a month to exchange ideas and help each other solve teaching problems or involve their communities in reform efforts (Schiefelbein, 1991; McEwan & Benveniste, 1999).

- Teacher support

In addition to providing teachers with educational materials, resources, and opportunities for capacity building, Ministry trains local supervisors to serve as pedagogical advisors to teachers. This requirement by the central government acknowledges the necessity of leadership in carrying out a major change. While the reform is supposed to involve the local community, if the teacher is the only person in an isolated village trying to implement the reform, it may remain extremely difficult to do without governmental support (Rojas & Martinez, 1993; Rojas, 1994; Schiefelbein, 1992; Schiefelbein, 1991; McEwan &Benveniste, 1999).

- Teacher ownership

It allows for the similarities and differences between rural communities to be taken into account. The micro-centers help reinforce this sense of ownership by giving teachers the opportunity to discuss problems and come up with creative solutions together. Access to a community of peer teachers through the micro-centers is another incentive for teachers to support the reform (Rojas & Martinez, 1993; Rojas, 1994; Schiefelbein, 1991; Schiefelbein, 1992; McEwan &Benveniste, 1999 as cited in Kline).

- Students and Community members ownership -

The EN model creates the opportunities for students and community members to also have a degree of ownership over what could have been viewed unfavourably as an imposed reform. The government requires students to take on leadership roles and make decisions that have tangible impacts in their school environment. Such involvement is aimed at teaching civic and democratic values.

Students interact with their communities by making maps of the community, drawing on examples from local customs in their various activities, and inviting community members to the school to share knowledge about their communities. Through their active participation, both in and out of the classroom, the students are involved in changes in their school. In this way, the EN model also helps to break down divisions between schools and the larger community, facilitating implementation and increasing effectiveness of the education reform (Rojas & Martinez, 1993; Rojas, 1994; Schiefelbein, 1992; Schiefelbein, 1991; McEwan & Benveniste, 1999).

- Self-instructional EN learning guides

These are a key component of program flexibility and adaptability to the local context and student learning needs. They were designed to encourage active engagement of students in the learning process. They present information in such a way as to enable already-literate students essentially to teach themselves the material, and to move at the speed and level that is appropriate for them. This allows the teacher to address the individual needs of students without detracting from the learning of other students at different levels.

The learning guides also take pressure off teachers to constantly plan lessons for various grade levels, and they can help teachers make the material more interesting for the students by providing guidance or connecting the curriculum to the local community, hopefully making schooling more relevant for the students. The learning guides' direct students through activities that often require them to work with their peers and explore their communities. They are complemented with "learning corners," where additional instructional materials are housed. Each classroom has a small library and a suggestion box

for students to give input. The above analysis of the most crucial aspects of the EN reform is based on the model that was defined explicitly before 1989, when there was a mass expansion of the program. In this process of expanding nearly to the national level, aspects of the reform described above were compromised due to issues of scale and management (McGinn, 1996, McEwan, 1998 as cited in Kline).

2.5   VARIOUS PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES

For Bernstein, power does not only reside within the structure of knowledge, but also in its recontextualization, in pedagogic practice. He distinguishes between two main forms of pedagogy. A *performance* model of pedagogy concentrates on the outcomes of learning; it "places the emphasis upon a specific output of the acquirer, upon a particular text the acquirer is expected to construct, and upon the specialised skills necessary to the production of this specific output, text or product" (Bernstein, 1996: 58). A *competence* model of pedagogy concentrates on the process of learning rather than the outcome. It foregrounds "the realization of competences that acquirers already possess, or are thought to possess" (Bernstein, 1996: 58).

Inside pedagogic practice, power is embedded in a number of ways. It is embedded in the way that knowledge is organised into curriculum (*classification*), and in the relationship between educator and learner and the degree of control that the educator or learner has over the curriculum (*framing*) (Savodnik, 1995: 9-10). Bernstein makes the point (important in relation to informal education) that power is not only exercised in overtly hierarchical teacher-learner relations, what he calls *visible pedagogy* (usually associated with a performance model of pedagogy), but is also exercised in *invisible pedagogy* (usually

associated with a competence model of pedagogy), where the hierarchical relationship is implicit and covert. In visible pedagogy, the relationship of authority of the educator over learner is explicit and defined, while in invisible pedagogy, these rules and hierarchical relationships are not absent but are implicit: "power is masked or hidden by devices of communication" (Bernstein, 1990, cited in Sadovnik, 1995: 13). Finally, relations of power are also embedded in the relationship between the *instructional discourse* (knowledge and skills content) and the *regulative discourse* – the particular set of norms and values in which it is located (Bernstein, 1996: 28).

Not varying much to what Bernstein discusses, but focussing more on which element between teacher and learner each style centres on is Quirk (1994), suggesting four different teaching styles. These styles involve the **Assertive** approach which he claims is a teacher-centered approach characterized by direct questions and answers, and relays information. Closely related is the **Suggestive** style, where the teacher offers opinion, practical experience and suggests alternatives often by relating personal experience. Thirdly, he mentions The **Collaborative** method which moves toward being learner-centered with acceptance and exploration of the learner's ideas and empathetic sharing of experience. Lastly, Quirk identifies the **Facilitative** style, which is a mode that is mostly learner focused as the exchange extends beyond the clinical content to the feelings of student and preceptor. The style accepts learner feelings, offers feelings as well as encouragement to the learners

However, Wagaman (2009: 103) discusses a format of pedagogical styles that focus on classroom management which she states results in better classroom discipline and greater

student learning. Wagaman mentions the Authoritarian, Permissive, Detached and Authoritative teaching styles. In the Authoritarian style, the teacher is often described by students as a screamer. Learners are expected to obey and mostly do so out of fear as the teacher will blame the discipline problems in class on students. In the Permissive style, the teacher just wants to be friends with learners. The teacher may plead with the students to raise hand or to follow other simple rules, but does not have a firm discipline plan in place. The Detached style involves a teacher that does not care. Wagaman indicates that the teacher has become desensitized to discipline and may not even care which grades his or her learners receive in class. The teacher does not offer any emotional support or behavioural management and such style is a result of illness or depression (ibid).

A quality teaching (QT) model, though it was developed for Australia, is said to be one of the comprehensive set of general pedagogical practices that enhance student learning (Killen, 2007). The principles of the model are highly applicable to South African schools as they are based on a constructivist approach as OBE. In South African context the outcomes based education is said to be having a back line of the constructivist approach. Constructivist approach according to (Killen, 2007) is said to have several contemporary interpretations as it relates to education, sharing four common principles which are:

I.   What a person knows is not just received but is actively constructed by the learner.

II. Because knowledge is the result of personal interpretation of experiences, one person's knowledge can *never be totally transferred* to another person.

III. The cultures and societies to which people belong influence their views of the world around them and therefore, influence what they 'know'.

IV.   The construction of ideas is aided by systematic, open- minded discussions and debate

The model has the following dimensions: Intellectual quality, significant knowledge, deep understanding, higher order thinking, conditional knowledge, explicit quality criteria, high expectations, academic engagement, social support, and learner self-regulation and learner choice (Killen, 2007). Teachers who routinely make use of the QT model are said by Killen (2007) are mostly likely to be: knowledgeable, enthusiastic, confident, effective communicators, committed, compassionate and curious. Different teaching strategies mostly involved in OBE according to the model are: direct instruction, discussion, small group work, co-operative learning, problem solving, research, role play and case study.

In the light of the various pedagogical practices teachers use within the context of imparting knowledge and being part of the drivers of teaching and learning activities, aboard known as the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards has set a number of standards which teachers have to meet and comply with (Early Childhood/Generalist Standards, 1998). These standards notably rest on a fundamental philosophical foundation comprised of five core propositions (Berry, 2007). Such standards are identified through various acts and are categorised as follows:

- **Teachers are committed to students and their learning- This standard is portrayed through various acts such as:**

1. Teachers are dedicated to making knowledge accessible to all students based on their belief that all students can learn.

2. They treat their learners equitably by acknowledging individual differences among students.

3. They adjust their practice according to these individual differences based on observation and knowledge of their students' interests, abilities, skills, knowledge, family circumstances, and peer relationships.

4. Teachers understand how students develop and learn. Therefore, these educators incorporate the prevailing theories of cognition and intelligence in their practice.

5. They are aware of the influence of context and culture on behaviour. Under these general circumstances, teachers develop students' cognitive capacity and their respect for learning.

6. They foster students' self-esteem, motivation, character, civic responsibility, and their respect for individual, cultural, religious, and racial differences.

- **Teachers know the subjects they teach and have the necessary pedagogical knowledge. This standard is expressed when teachers:**

1. Have a thorough understanding of the subject(s) they teach and appreciate how knowledge in their subject is created, organized, linked to other disciplines, and applied to real-world settings.

2. While faithfully representing the collective wisdom of our culture and upholding the value of disciplinary knowledge, they also develop the critical and analytical capacities of their students.

3. Master pedagogical knowledge used to convey and reveal subject matter to students.

4. Are aware of the preconceptions and background knowledge that students typically bring to each subject and of strategies and instructional materials that can be of assistance.

5. Understand and solve the possible difficulties likely to arise in the classroom and modify their practice accordingly.

6. Instructional repertoire allows them to create multiple paths to knowledge, in general, and to the subjects they teach, in particular.

- **Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning. Teachers are observed as having a mastery on this standard when they:**

1. Create, enrich, maintain, and alter instructional settings, materials, and strategies to capture and sustain the interest of their students and to make the most effective use of time.

2. Strive to engage students and adults in assisting their teaching as well as to enhance their practice with their colleagues' knowledge and expertise.

3. Command a wide range of generic instructional techniques and use them appropriately.

4. Manage efficiently both the students and the learning environment. Thus, instruction is organized and implemented to allow the schools' goals for students to be met.

5. Are able to set the norms for social interaction among students and between students and teachers.

6. Understand how to motivate students to learn and how to maintain their interest even when facing temporary failure.

7. Can assess the progress of individual students as well as that of the class as a whole.

8. Employ multiple methods for measuring student growth and understanding and can clearly explain student performance to parents.

- **Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience. Such a standard is observed through performances such as:**

1. Being models of educated persons, exemplifying the virtues they seek to inspire in students--curiosity, tolerance, honesty, fairness, respect for diversity, and appreciation of cultural differences.

2. Exemplifying the capacities that are prerequisites for intellectual growth--the ability to reason and take multiple perspectives, to be creative and take risks, and to adopt an experimental and problem-solving orientation.

3. Drawing on their knowledge of human development, subject matter and instruction, and their understanding of their students to make principled judgments about sound practice.

4. Making decisions that are grounded not only in the literature, but also in their experience.

5. Engaging in lifelong learning that they seek to encourage in their students.

6. Critically examining their practice, seek to expand their repertoire, deepen their knowledge, sharpen their judgment, and adapt their teaching to new findings, ideas, and theories.

- **Teachers are members of learning communities. As a teacher to have achieved this standard, acts as listed below are expected:**

1. Contribute to the effectiveness of the school by working collaboratively with other professionals on instructional policy, curriculum development, and staff development.

2. Can evaluate school progress and the allocation of school resources in light of their understanding of state and local educational objectives.

3. Knowledgeable about specialized school and community resources that can be engaged for their students' benefit, and are skilled at employing such resources as needed.

4. Find ways to work collaboratively and creatively with parents, engaging them productively in the proper functioning of the school.

2.6 SUMMARY

Thus chapter has discussed theories underpinning the study. These are Bernstein's sociological theory of pedagogy and Shulman's knowledge of teaching. Furthermore literature exploring the education system in South Africa, Rurality and pedagogical practices has been used. Following is a chapter that deals with the way in which data was collected.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH   METHODS   AND   METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to establish a map the readers of this research 'will be relying on' and on the methods used to come to the conclusions drawn on data that have been

collected and how reliable they are (Hofstee, 2009:107). This chapter will show the reader of how the researcher collected the data on the pedagogical practices of teachers in under-resourced schools. The kind of data, with the structuring format of what was used, how and why, is stated in the paragraph below. This will help in showing what the researcher did to come to validated and reliable conclusions.

The structure of the chapter follows a discussion of the research approach, research design, research paradigm, methodology (research instruments, data, and analysis), negotiation of entry, trustworthiness, limitations, ethical considerations, and conclusion.

3.2   RESEARCH APPROACH – QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

The study aimed at bringing realities rooted in what the teachers constitute as their pedagogical practices in their field of teaching in under-resourced schools. Such information was accessed from teachers' narratives of their stories and the observations of their practices in their practical, natural settings. Hence the study adopted a qualitative research approach.

Qualitative research is an approach that stresses a phenomenological model in which multiple realities are rooted in the subject's perception and a focus on understanding and meaning is based on verbal narratives and observations rather than numbers (McMillan, 2008). This means that reality is understood by people in different ways, and we can only come to know their meaning and perceptions by listening to what they say through use of language. Furthermore, we can come to know their understanding by also observing their behaviours, in order for us to explain what they mean, which can be unpacked through use

of words rather than numerals. This outlines that the behaviour of a person or the gestures used by a person also gives out the understanding of a certain concept by that particular person.

Leedy & Omrod (2005:133) maintain that the qualitative approaches have two things in common. First, they focus on phenomena that occur in natural settings – that is the 'real world' and secondly, they involve studying those phenomena in all their complexity narratives and observations rather than numbers. According to Williams (1998), qualitative approach is subjective, makes use of language and description rather than numerals and figure. In this approach, therefore, there was an interaction between subjects as it was based on verbal narratives. This allowed the researcher more room to get as much meaning as can be found. The researcher, therefore, found it befitting to use this approach for this study.

In the interaction, narrations and observations between the researcher and participants in a qualitative research approach, Leedy et al. (2005:133) advocates that researchers rarely try to simplify what they observe. Instead, they recognize that the issue they are studying has many dimensions and layers, and so they try to portray the issue in its multifaceted form. As such, in my opinion, the realities of situations, issues or any other phenomena studied in their natural form are what constitute the entrance and departure for a qualitative study and as much, were entities this study was entitled to follow (Ibid).

Qualitative research approach is further described by Punch (2005:134) as "... not a single entity, but an umbrella term which encompasses enormous variety". Punch (2005:133) argues that three aspects of these diversity concern paradigms, approaches to data and

methods for the analysis of data. Such diversity has further been analysed as distinctive characteristics testified by literature as the features of a qualitative research approach. Such characteristics establish that, it is based on a paradigm of interpretivism and constructivism, is less structured and flexible, has confirmability, allows direct data collection, has rich narrative descriptions, with process orientation and emergent research design (Leedy et al, 2005; Silverman, 2001:258-259; Macmillan, 2008, Hamersley, 1992a:125 as cited in Silverman 2001). In the paragraphs below, each principle is further analysed as encompassed within the context of the study.

The principle of interpretivism and Constructivism forms basis on the assumption that reality is socially constructed and rather than a single objective reality, there are multiple realities, each related to the complexity of naturally occurring behaviour, characterized by the perspectives of the participants (Macmillan, 2008). This principle was acknowledged by this study as it aimed to bring the realities encompassed in various pedagogical practices teachers use to teach in under-resourced schools. The study had been conducted while teachers were in their natural setting, being the classroom, as well as their perspectives drawn through interviews.

Macmillan (2008) establishes that, the principle of being less structured and flexible in qualitative research, is where a more interactive mode of data gathering is emphasized and numerical data used only to provide simple descriptions. This allowed the study an interaction between researcher and participants through the use of semi structured interviews, with questions being probed deeper to get more meaningful data as it was

drawn from what they say. Thus, therefore, allowed the researcher to flexibly probe further on the response that was given by respondents to get as much data as can be given.

Qualitative research maintains that its principle of confirmability replaces objectivity (Macmillan, 2008). This principle entails that, the researcher's objective opinions are put aside as it is the respondent's opinions that are important. This means that the focus and importance was based solely on what the respondents say and not what the researcher thinks. As interviews and documents were used during the course of the study, this allowed the researcher to come to more in depth conclusions, as what was concluded was what the teachers themselves said and can say at any given point of confirmation needed. There was recorded material from the interviews, and thus putting away any objective point of view the researcher as the investigator may have had.

The researcher, as the investigator, had a direct role in obtaining information, as the interviewer, an observer, or the person who studies artefacts and documents (Macmillan, 2008). This allowed a direct data collection approach which was also another important principle of a qualitative study. This helped the researcher in getting and bringing first hand information that was primary raw from the teacher's narrative descriptions in the under-resourced schools which is the grassroots level of the study.

Rich narrative descriptions as a principle of a qualitative study were made as allowed by every detail of the data collected and recorded. In qualitative research this is thought to contribute to a better understanding of behaviour. Such descriptions in this study had been what the teachers described as their pedagogical practices in these under-resourced schools as well as the strengths and weaknesses they identified. The descriptions were in the form

of words rather than numbers and that captured what have been observed in the same form in which it occurred (Macmillan, 2008). Such descriptions emanated out of analysis being done with words (Punch 2005:142). The interview session was a process and this leads to the next principle of process orientation in the next paragraph.

The principle of process orientation rooted the research in bringing the natural phenomena of data in its process of occurrence. In qualitative studies the process through which behaviour occurs, not just the outcomes or products is observed (Macmillan, 2008). The study had an interview process schedule which involved interviewing the teachers. In such processes the researcher was able to collect as much data on teaching practices used by the teachers.

3.2.1 Demerits of qualitative research

Silverman (2006:44-46) claims that as much as the qualitative approach has a great input in the research field of the naturalistic world but it is criticised in various contexts. These include:

- Qualitative research does not always show contextual sensitivity. The study responded to this limitation by taking field notes during interviews to note down any expression in any form that occurred during the session.
- Critics state that this approach has a problem of reliability and moreover is criticised of anecdotalism which questions validity of the research. The researcher in responding to this limitation did a triangulation of doing interviews (both individual and focus group) and document analysis to validate the study.

Furthermore, for the study, the researcher responded to these limitations by following the arguments for justification of other qualitative researchers saying, concern for the reliability of observations arises only within the quantitative research paradigm which is ruled by the positivist position (Silverman, 2006:46). In addition, it is argued, once we treat social reality as always in a flux, then it makes no sense to worry about whether our research instruments measure accurately (Silverman, 2006:47).

3.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM: INTERPRETIVIST

A paradigm may be viewed as a set of *basic beliefs* … that deals with ultimate or first principles (Voce, 2004:1). Guba & Lincoln (1994:108) advocates that in research studies, paradigms define for the researcher what it is they are about, and what falls within and outside the limits of legitimate research. The study adopted an interpretivist paradigm and being informed by the fact that the study falls in a case study design. With the case study research methodology being suited to the interpretivist paradigm, as interpretivism research methods include focus groups, interviews, research diaries, that is, particularly methods that allow for as many variables to be recorded as possible (Elliott & Lukes, 2008; Torrance & Lewin, 2005 as cited in Voce, 2004:1).

Interpretivist positions are founded on the theoretical belief that reality is socially constructed and fluid (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006). 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 (Cousin, 2005; Elliott & Lukes, 2008 as cited in Voce, 2004:1). In this paradigm, the researchers recognise that all participants involved, including the researcher, bring their own unique interpretations of the world or construction of the situation to the

research and the researcher needs to be open to the attitudes and values of the participants or, more actively, suspend prior cultural assumptions (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006 as cited in Voce, 2004:1). The researcher in this study acknowledged and respected the attitudes and values of the participants by being open.

Interpretivist approach promotes a transactional or subjectivist epistemology that assumes that we cannot separate ourselves from what we know. The investigator and the object of investigation are linked such that who we are and how we understand the world is a central part of how we understand ourselves, others and the world (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). In this study, this referred to the focus the study was embedded on, which brought an insight and knowledge of what the teachers understand and interpret as their pedagogical practices, their experiences of the strengths and weaknesses, the researcher was open to their views as what will construct the meaning of the context studied.

3.4   RESEARCH DESIGN: CASE STUDY

Research design refers to the plan for carrying out a study (Macmillan and Schumacher, 1993). Punch (2005:63) defines a research design as situating the researcher in the empirical world, and connecting research questions to data. As this study falls within the qualitative research, it was therefore befitting to use a case study design of two schools in the Mqanduli district, both identified as under resourced.

A case study is a research design that is widely used in the social care and in the social science field, because it allows the researcher to study in detail, the relationships of individuals and small groups, in their natural setting and studied in depth over a defined period of time (Leedy et al, 2005; Walsh, 2001:52; Huysamen, 1994:168). Punch (2005:145)

describes a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.

As a case study is mostly used to define phenomena in social care fields, Punch (2005:145), defines a case study as "a method of studying social phenomena through the thorough analysis of an individual case". Punch further states that the case may be a person, a group, an episode, a process, a community, society, or any other unit of social life. Data relevant to the case are gathered, and all available data are organized in terms of the case where the case method gives a unitary character to the data being studied by interrelating a variety of fact to a single case. Thus, it provides an opportunity for the intensive analysis of many specific details that are often overlooked with other methods.

The study investigated a case of pedagogical practices teachers use in under-resourced schools in two schools in the Mqanduli district. This study aimed at getting an in depth and detailed data on these pedagogical practices, and while there are a variety of specific purposes and research questions to answer, the general objective was to develop as full an understanding of these cases as possible (Punch, 1998:150, as cited in Silverman, 2005:126). This was done in order to give a deeper insight in answering the question of what pedagogies the teachers use, as well as strengths and weaknesses they identify in such pedagogies. A case study design, therefore, befitted the study, as a case study is particularly useful in giving a rich description and holistic value (Rossman & Rallis, 1998:70).

Silverman (2005:126) reveals three kinds of case studies viz. intrinsic, instrumental and collective case studies. In the intrinsic case study, no attempt is made to generalize beyond the single case or even to build theories. In an instrumental case study, a case selected is studied in depth but the main focus being on something else while the collective case study studies a number of cases in order to investigate some general phenomena. The case, in this study, was studied using the collective case study, as two schools were studied in order to investigate phenomena of pedagogical practices used in under-resourced schools. However, a case study has its pros and cons (Walsh, 2001:53).

3.4.1 Advantages of a case study

Walsh (2001:53) has identified the following three:

- A case study strategy is ideal for collecting data on subtle and complex social situations. This means that a case study is ideal in studying phenomena that involves the principle of interpretivism and Constructivism which emanates from the complexity of social situations.

- You won't need to try to impose any control over events or variables, as you would if you used an experimental strategy. This underlines a point that, data comes fluently as raw as it is given in its natural occurrence with no need of manipulating any of the variables.

- Case studies are generally manageable for people who wish to do small-scale project research, because their focus is limited to a defined setting, a group of people or even an individual.

3.4.2 Disadvantages of a case study

- Lack of generalizability: This relates to a fact of not being able to generalize that findings of a case study research as it specifies that particular case in that particular context. This study takes a stand of not being based on generalization, as the case studied in this research is uniquely around pedagogies of the two schools identified and are categorized as under-resourced in the specified area or context. As Punch (2005:146) suggests, the intention of the study is not to generalize, but rather to understand the case of these pedagogies in these schools in complexity and its entirety, as well as in its context. This serves a "situation where generalization would not be the objective" (Punch, 2005:146).

- Ambiguity: In my understanding this means a case study may give a different conclusion in a different study of a similar context. Ambiguity will not arise out of this case as it will be studied as a particular case in its own right which will be building an in depth understanding on the case specified in the study (Punch, 2005:146).

Disadvantages of a case study were responded to by the study and therefore the researcher viewed a case study as a suitable design for this research.

3.5   RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The study is a qualitative research study that falls in a case study design. Literature indicates that a case study relies on a variety of data gathering instruments (Rossman & Rallis, 1998:71). The instruments normally used in case studies include observations, documentary analysis and interviews. This study used semi structured interviews (individual and focus groups) and document analysis as instruments to collect the data.

3.5.1 Semi structured interviews

Semi structured interviews as one of the instruments that were used to gather the data in this study were administered to teachers teaching in grade 3, 6, and 9 in the selected schools. Saez (2010) mentions that in semi structured interviews, the entire process is improvised and conversational, while key points and answers are recorded on a form designed to evaluate and sort answers and this gives the person being interviewed a chance to give a lot of good information, while making the entire process seem more like a normal conversation than a question session.

Semi-structured interviews are interviews also described by literature as ones that allow a free and open context. Such openness allows focused, conversational, two-view way communication, where the interviewer follows a guideline but is able to phrase the questions any way they see best, when it seems appropriate. They maintain a gap where not all questions are designed and phrased ahead of time, as a number of questions are created during the interview, allowing both the interviewer and the person being interviewed the flexibility to go into details when needed. (Nichols, 19991:131; Saez, 2010; Wimmer and Dominic, 1997:156; Breakwell, Hammond and Fife-Schwa, 1995:231).

Saez (2010) identifies that semi structured interviews carry a series of advantages which are of:

- Being not as invasive as a structured interview, as instead of being forced to answer questions directly, the interviewee can expand and also question the interviewer. This allowed the researcher in the study to probe and expand more on the questions that were asked to get amore richer response.

- Being useful not just for confirming the same information, but also learning more and giving the answers reason and context; making it easier for candidates to talk about sensitive subjects and issues. Because it was a free and two way communications, a lot of information which would have been difficult and sensitive to share was explored.

- Questions being prepared ahead of time allowing the interviewer to be prepared and appear competent during the interview. This allowed the research to be calm and collected, providing motivation and support to the respondents as they tend to fear interviews. Also what I noticed was that the preparation also minimised cases of having a boring and repetitive interview process.

- Allowing informants the freedom to express their views in their own terms and can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data.

In the light of the above advantages of a semi structured interview, the following are the limitations to this kind of interviews:

- Since the interview is conversational in nature, it could bring up a lot of unnecessary information. Focus and probing more on responses responded to this limitation.

- In a group interview, candidates could end up assisting each other or speak out of turn. This might cause them to lose focus on the topic. Each respondent was informed beforehand that, it is expected of every member of the session to share his or her views as they may differ to other people. This helped a lot in avoiding this limitation in the focus group interviews.

- Requires training as many problems can arise, such as leading questions, poor listening skills, not asking probing questions, repeating questions, not judging the

answers or asking questions that are insensitive or not specific. The question guide was prepared before hand and piloted on a few people before used to overcome such challenges.

- Time consuming and resource intensive. The interview sessions for each selected school were done on the same day for respondents in each school during their break time. A voice recorder was used and further supplemented with field notes taken during the session

- You have to be able to ensure confidentiality. Pseudo names were used (Saez, 2010).

Furthermore, justification on the use of this instrument regardless of the limitations is the authentic understanding the study aims to bring in this research, with, as literature claims, the main way to achieve such an understanding into people's experiences being an interview (Silverman, 2006:119). Moreover, the world never speaks directly to us but is always encoded via recording instruments like field notes and transcripts and as such the use of interviews in this study is determined by need to hear the voices of the teachers themselves describing and constructing meaning of the phenomena being researched (Silverman, 2006:113).

Four respondents were interviewed for the interviews. All the respondents were teachers teaching in the General Education and Training Band. The language used was English as it is a language of communication in schools. However, respondents were allowed to respond in either English or in isiXhosa (their mother tongue). The interviews were responding to the following research questions:

- ✓ What conception do teachers have of a well-resourced school and an under-resourced school?

- ✓ What challenges do the teachers experience in their teaching and learning activities due to under resourcing and how do they resolve them?

- ✓ Which strategies do teachers use to deliver the content of the learning areas offered in their under resourced schools?

- ✓ What success do the teachers have in their under-resourced schools?

3.5.2 Focus group discussions

To validate as well as also increasing the credibility of the study, a focus group discussion guided by the same interview guide as in the individual interviews was conducted. More data and valuable insights were produced during the discussions as the respondents expressed themselves freely amongst the group members (Gabrium & Silverman, 2004:71). One group from each school was interviewed, involving all the teachers teaching in grade 3, 6 & 9. Each group was composed of males and females. The respondents were allowed to voice their views openly according to the questions asked in the interview guide and the researcher controlled the discussion to avoid any dominance by individuals in the discussion.

Focus groups enable the researcher to "stimulate an in-depth exploration of a topic about which little is known" (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1998: 505), a fundamentally important part of data collection for this study. In each of the focus group discussions the researcher used participatory techniques as the method of data collection. This was most beneficial as the environment of the focus group "provide[s] data that are closer to the emic side of the

continuum, because they allow individuals to respond in their own words using their own categorizations and perceived associations" (ibid:507).

Ten respondents were involved in the discussions. Three from school A and seven from school B. All the respondents were also teachers teaching in the General Education and Training Band. The language used was also English as in the interviews. The respondents responded in either English or in isiXhosa (which is also their mother tongue). The interviews were responding to the following research questions:

- ✓ What conception do teachers have of a well-resourced school and an under-resourced school?
- ✓ What challenges do the teachers experience in their teaching and learning activities due to under resourcing and how do they resolve them?
- ✓ Which strategies do teachers use to deliver the content of the learning areas offered in their under resourced schools?
- ✓ What success do the teachers have in their under-resourced schools?

As the researcher conducted individual interviews as well as focus group discussion, on both semi-structured interviews were used, with the same guide of question used. The researcher in both interviews first read the topic of the study at large and then followed by asking the first question that basically involved a profile of each respondent. Thereafter, questions that respond to the study were asked. In an instance where respondents gave brief responses, the researcher would probe more for fuller explanations.

The guide of the interviews was not followed as such as the flow of the interview was determined by the responses given by the respondents. At times the respondents would answer a certain question that was scheduled for later in the middle of another question and therefore forcing the researcher to skip that question. The interviews were asked and answered in a language comfortable to the respondent, which varied from English to Xhosa or even switching from one to the other.

The scheduled time for the interviews also varied according to the way respondents expressed themselves. For the focus group more time was taken as each respondent who wanted to respond to a question in the group had to be given time to voice his or her views.

3.5.3 Document Analysis

Document analysis was another instrument or technique used to gather data for this study. These were various written documents that were consulted to validate the study. Leeds (2001) defines document analysis as a detailed and systematic examination of documents on a particular organization for a purpose of identifying patterns. In this instrument, the researcher negotiated with the school management team for documents that would give any information concerning the resources and teaching policies of the school. The documents analysed by the researcher were the ones available and which the researcher was given access to use. Primarily the documents used were educator minute book, school governing body minute book, school management team minute book, a log book, an asset register, staff establishment for 2011, a school annual survey and a school fund paper budget allocation.

The minute books are documents that archive all the discussions and outcomes of a meeting held and were going to help in identifying whether resources were up for discussion in the meetings. A log book shows all the visitors visiting the school, differentiated as educational, or prominent as well as all the information about the school personnel. It was of help in seeing departmental visits for assistance to the school. The staff establishment showed how many teachers were expected to be employed by the school. An Annual survey form showed all the details of all the resources found in the school while the asset register was of help in specifying the teaching resources. The latter, which is the paper budget allocation, helped in identifying the amount injected to the school account, for buying teaching and learning support material.

3.6 SAMPLING

Leedy & Omrod (2005:144) define sampling as a process in which a particular sample for particular entities is selected. Similarly, Punch (2006) identifies that sampling is about deciding the place or site and the respondent or person from whom the data will be selected. Walsh (2001) states that It is important to sample a population in order to get access easily, as it is not economically feasible to involve all members in a research project, as the population may be big or small.

There are two types of sampling methods namely probability and non probability sampling (Hysamen, 1994). Probability sampling is composed of random, stratified, systematic and cluster sampling as its examples while non probability sampling is made up of convenience, purposive, quota, and snowball sampling (Hysamen, 1994; Walsh, 2001; Wysocki, 2004).

In this study, the researcher used a purposive sampling method to select two under-resourced schools from Mqanduli district. Purposive sampling is one in which each sample is selected for a specific purpose. It is regarded as the most important kind of sampling of non probability sampling. Sampling will be done at three levels: viz, at the research site, respondent level and subject specifics levels as follows:

(a) Samplings of research sites – two junior secondary schools under Mqanduli district in the Eastern Cape were chosen. These schools were chosen on serving a specific purpose of being schools operating and practising yet are identifiable as under resourced. Refer to features of under-resourced schools in the background of the study. The schools were identified according to the quintile system used by the government to categorise schools for funding purposes. The schools that were used are schools that belong to quintile one, which is a quintile associated with schools that are poor, and serving poverty stricken areas.

(b) Sampling the respondents – Respondents that were sampled in this study for individual interviews were teachers teaching in grade 3, Natural Sciences in 6 and 9 which are considered the exit grades in the General Education and Training Band in the education system. Four teachers (two from each school) teaching Natural science in the selected grades were sampled. One respondent from school B, a grade six teacher, did not consent to being interviewed hence four respondents were interviewed.

Also a focus group interview involving all the teachers for the three grades teaching other learning areas was administered. One focus group was conducted in each

school. Three respondents from school A and seven respondents from school B were involved making a total of ten respondents.

Teachers were chosen as respondents as they were the ones who use the pedagogical practices to teach in these under-resourced school needed to be identified in the study. Also they are the ones who know the strengths and weaknesses of the pedagogies that will be identified.

(c) Sampling of learning area specified – learning areas for grade 3, 6 & 9 were chosen for both kinds of interviews. For the individual interviews, Natural Science was the sampled learning area for grade 6 & 9. All the other learning areas prescribed for the three grades were sampled for the focus group discussions.

3.7   NEGOTIATION OF ENTRY

The researcher negotiated entry into the field by filling in the Department of Education (DoE) form that asked for permission to conduct the study as specified in the proposal forwarded. The form was filled and sent to the provincial office and a letter that was signed by the Superintendent General of the DoE came back when the permission had been granted (**Appendix A**). Prior to the permission letter from the DoE, the researcher personally visited the District Director, Circuit Manager, the School Managers and the Respondents (teachers), explaining what the study was about , its significance, as well as the role they were to play in the study and asked for their permission to conduct the study. The researcher also explained the ethical considerations the study was to follow. A letter written by University of Fort Hare Research Supervisor, Dr Duku, giving detailed information about

the research topic was also handed to the school principal, the circuit manager and to the respondents (**Appendix B**).

Hoepfl (1997:25) advocates that the participants are the ones to grant someone access to their lives, their minds, and their emotions, therefore permission has to be sought. Responding to the suggestion of the above writer, the researcher wrote special letters to the respondents that was seeking consent for their participation in the study (**Appendix C**). With the District Director, Circuit Manager and School Manager the researcher, the researcher also wrote special letters to them asking for their permission to use the teachers and their schools as study sites for the research (**Appendix D, E and F**)). After the negotiation was done and consent was granted by the respondents, appointments for interview dates were set telephonically. The interview times for individual and focus groups were done at different times.

3.8   TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

According to Seale (1999:266), trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability. In addition, Golafshani (2003:603) also offers that reliability and validity are conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in qualitative paradigm. Reliability is defined by Van der Aardweg (1993:201) as a statistical concept that relates to consistency and dependability while validity is defined as'the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers'.

To ensure that the study reflected trueness of what was investigated, the researcher used triangulation, which is typically a strategy for improving the validity and reliability of research or evaluation of findings (Golafshani, 2003:603). Triangulation is also defined by Creswell & Miller (2000:126) to be "a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study". Triangulation may involve the use of different methods, especially observation, focus groups and individual interviews, which form the major data collection strategies for much qualitative research (Shenton, 2004:65). The researcher triangulated the study by also using three kinds of instruments to collect the data, which were semi structured individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis.

A tape recorder together with field notes were also used to authenticate what the respondents said. The participants were told upfront what the researcher would be doing and their consent was sought before the study commenced. Participants were welcomed to use alias names and were told that the information would be treated as confidential as possible. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:103) are in support of this when they state that "respondents must be assured that data will only be used for the stated purpose of the research and no other purpose, and that no other person will have access to interview data" (Bless and Higson- Smith,1995). Assured of these matters, participants felt free to give honest and complete information.

3.9 LIMITATIONS

One major limitation was not being able to conduct a pilot study on the research to test the instruments due to time constraints. As much as the researcher was prepared to conduct

the main study of the research a number of other limitations were experienced. Firstly, a lot of delay and difficulty to start the process of collecting data was caused by a huge delay in the release of the letters from the Superintendent General, which acknowledged the acceptance of the study to continue. Moreover, respondents were very reluctant to be involved in the study, to an extent that the number of respondents to be interviewed individually was reduced from six to four. Even with the four respondents that were interviewed, delays of change in time and dates for interviews caused a lot of delay in the process. One respondent, who teaches NS for grade six in school B withdrew from participation at the last minute. Furthermore, the schools did not have some of the documents needed for the document analysis while it also took a long time to get the ones that were present.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics are important to consider in research studies as they tell us what is morally good and bad and right and wrong (Wysocki, 2004:54-56). Ethics serve to protect participants from possible harm by the researchers (Birch et al, 2002). The researcher in this study had to follow various sets of criteria or rules and standards, for her to be recognised as ethically considerate which have been discussed in the paragraphs that follow as indicated by literature.

In a research project participants have to cooperate or not to cooperate with the researcher and have to freely consent to the participation and their property as a study site. Their involvement should be voluntary and not in any way forced on them (Birch et al, 2002; Wysocki, 2004). The researcher informed and explained the purpose of the study to the

participants that were involved and made a request to obtain their permission to conduct the study. In support of this Clarke (1999:83) acknowledges that, failing to reveal one's identity as a researcher or concealing the true purpose of the study from informants constitutes unethical conduct.

Participants in a research study have protection over their rights, with one being the right to privacy and confidentiality (Wysocki, 2004:54-56). This refers to both the identity of an individual that must be kept a secret, as well as the information gathered from the individual. The results obtained should be in harmony with the informant's right to dignity and privacy (Mouton 2001:243-244 as cited in Sithole, 2008; Mouton, 2001; Walsh, 2001:70-71; Wysocki, 2004:54-56). To follow and adhere to this ethical issue the researcher made use of pseudo names as one of the ways of confidentially using participants, as confidentiality is when the researcher knows who the respondents are, but their identities not revealed.

Participants have to be protected from any kind of harm which may be in any form such as physically or psychologically (Walsh 2001:70-71; Wysocki 2004:54-56). The researcher, as suggested by various writers, where a research study may have a negative impact on the physical or mental health of a participant, even to the extent of temporarily upsetting them, has to fully inform of the risk, and the researcher should take every possible step which will be dropping the study or changing the design and data gathering instruments to minimise any harm coming to them (Walsh, 2001:70-71; Wysocki, 2004:54-56). Such impact did not occur in the process of this study, however if such harm had arisen, the researcher would have followed the suggestions stated above by the specified literature writers.

Furthermore, the researcher had to maintain honesty and integrity throughout the study. This means data gathered carefully, findings reported honestly, and any problems, errors or distortions acknowledged. The researcher in the study made use of ultimate transparency and presented precise data as researchers must never falsify data. The researcher adhered to this ethical standard as it viewed as unethical to either lie about you or engage in research without the knowledge of the participants (Walsh 2001: 70-71; Wysocki 2004:54-56). The transcripts of the interviews were sent back to the respondents to read and verify that what was transcribed was what they said.

A research must have a positive contribution to knowledge and human understanding (Walsh 2001: 70-71; Wysocki 2004:54-56). As a student researcher it was important that my aim on the study also be to advance my own knowledge and understanding and avoid any kind of frivolous reason. Therefore the researcher was obliged to report both positive and negative findings to add new knowledge to human understanding. Frivolous, illegal behaviour or unjustifiable suffering or no beneficial intention or purpose in a study is unethical (Walsh 2001, p 70-71, Wysocki 2004:54-56).

The researcher therefore considered it an obligation to present an ethically accepted study by following all the ethical norms such as informing all participants before hand of their involvement in the study and treating their participation with confidentiality. First and foremost a request and permission from the DOE and the school managers to use the schools as well as teachers which are their assets was forwarded.

3.11   DATA ANALYSIS PROCESS

Bogdan & Biklen (1998:150) addresses data analysis as " a process of systematically searching and gathering the interview transcripts, field notes and other materials that the researcher accumulates during data collection in order to increase his or her understanding of the phenomenon and ultimately to be able to present what have been discovered to others". It is a way of creating order through interpretations of data collected and providing patterns and inferences that may emerge. Data analysis for a case study research is said to involve the steps highlighted below:

- Organizations of details about the case – The specific facts are arranged in a logical order.

- Categorisation of data – Categories are identified that can help cluster the data into meaningful groups.

- Interpretation of single instances – Specific documents, occurrences, and other bits of data are examined for the specific meanings they might have in relation to the case.

- Identification of patterns – The data and their interpretations are scrutinized for underlying themes and other patterns that characterize the case more broadly than a single piece of information can reveal.

- Synthesis and generalization – An overall portrait of the case is constructed. Conclusions are drawn that have implications beyond the specific case that has been studied (Leedy & Omrod, 2005:150).

In this study data was analysed as follows:

✓ Analysing data from the interviews

As data analysis is an ongoing process, the researcher first transcribed all the data gathered from the interviews by playing the notes from the tape recorder and typing them down. As data involves working with data, organizing it and breaking it into manageable units, the researcher also organised the data collected in response to the research questions.

✓ Analysing data from documentary analysis

Secondary sources which were various documents made available by the school, were used to gather data for the study. The documents used were interpreted in order to be able to identify related themes from the different data they contain. Patterns relating to what has already been identified in other methods used in the study were identified as data analysis in a case study involves the organisation of the details about the case, categorising it and interpreting single instances to identify patterns (Leedy & Omrod, 2005:145).

3.13 SUMMARY

In this chapter, a detailed outline and justification of the methodology of the study was presented. The study followed a qualitative approach under an interpretive paradigm with a case study research design. Furthermore, the data collection techniques involved semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and documentary analysis. The discussion also focussed on the sampling procedures, the validity and reliability, trustworthiness, negotiation of entry into the research sites, ethical considerations, data analysis procedure and the stages of data collection. The next chapter deals with the presentation of the data collected in this research and its analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present and analyze the data collected for this study. The

researcher conducted the study by using semi structured individual interviews, focus group

discussions and document analysis. Pseudo names, considering the principle of anonymity,

have been used to profile the schools as well as the respondents used in the study. Two schools were sampled for the study, one a junior secondary and one a senior primary. In terms of respondents, four respondents for individual interviews, two from each school were selected. Two groups of focus group discussions were also used when data was being collected, one consisting of six participants while the other consisted of five participants. In addition, document analysis was used as a third data collecting instrument. The study responded to the following questions:

4.1.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

4.1.1.1 Main Research Question

- What are pedagogical practices of teachers in rural under resourced schools?

4.1.1.2 Sub – Questions

- What conception do teachers have of a well-resourced school and an under-resourced school?

- What challenges do the teachers experience in their teaching and learning activities due to under resourcing and how do they resolve them?

- Which strategies do teachers use to deliver the content of the learning areas offered in their under resourced schools?

- What success do the teachers have in their under-resourced schools?

The chapter is structured as follows:

4.2 Profiles of research sites and respondents

4.2.1 School profiles

4.2.2 Profile of respondents

4.3 Presenting and analyzing data

4.3.1 Data presentation from interviews

4.3.3 Data presentation from document analysis

4.4 Conclusion

4.2 PROFILE PF RESEARCH SITES AND RESPONDETS

4.2.1 School profiles

Table 4.1 Profile of schools in which the research was conducted

NAME OF SCHOOL		SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B
HISTORY		Established in 1983	Established in 1985
LEVEL OF THE SCHOOL		SENIOR PRIMARY SCHOOL (SPS)	JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL (JSS)
SCALE	NUMBER OF CLASSROOMS	One block with four classrooms	Two blocks with eight classrooms
	NUMBER OF EDUCATORS	7	13
	NUMBER OF LEARNERS	258	419
	LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION	ENGLISH	ENGLISH
	LEARNER'S HOME LANGUAGE	XHOSA	XHOSA
	STAFF (GENDER)	2 MALES AND 5 FEMALES	3 MALES AND 10 FEMALES
QUINTILE NUMBER		ONE - NO FEE SCHOOL	ONE - NO FEE SCHOOL

SCHOOL FUNDING LEVEL OF SCHOOL	SCTION 2 OR SECTION 21	SECTION 21- Though not yet received funds	SECTION 21
DEMOGRAPHIC AREA OF THE SCHOOL	RURAL OR URBAN	RURAL	RURAL
FACILITIES	LABORATORY	None	none
	STAFFROOM	None	Available
	ADMINISTRATION OFFICES	None	Available
	FEEDING SCHEME	available	Available
	PHOTOCOPIER	None	None
	FAX MACHINE	None	None
	COMPUTERS	None	None
	ELECTRICITY	None	None
	PIPED WATER	None	none
	SPORTS FACILITY	None	Only a soccer field
	SCIENCE KIT	None	none
	LTSM	A few number of textbooks available and no stationery delivered	A few number of textbooks available as well as insufficient stationery
	TECHNOOG KIT	None	none
	TELEVISION	None	none
SAFETY	FENCE	None	available
	SECURITY GUARDS	None	None

	ALARM	None	none

As Table 4.1 shows, the researched schools were assigned pseudo names, A and B. Table 4.1 also indicates that the levels of the schools. School B is a Junior Secondary School, meaning that it starts from grade R up to grade 9. Grade 9 in the school, is an exit point for the learners to go to High School to start grade 10. In school A, the exit point is Grade 6, for learners to go to another school, to finish their junior secondary schooling, before proceeding to high school level. School B is therefore a Senior Primary School.

Furthermore, as the table indicates, both schools are in the same quintile, which is quintile 1, and allocation of fund as per the quintile system of funding are of the same standard. This means that the schools have a demographic allocation of serving in rural areas that are established as poverty stricken areas and both schools have been declared as no fee schools. The state of resources therefore depends on what the government provides as well as donations the school can get.

Both schools according to the table have been declared section 21 schools. School A started in 2011 and school A started in 2010. As school A has not been in the section for long a time, the allocation has not yet been activated. This means that school A has been a section 20 school up to now. Being a section 20 or section 21 schools, as Mandla, an acting principal (refer to table 4.2) explained, determines the norms of funding for a school. Being a section 20 school, means depending on making requisitions to the Department of Education and

await authorization and delivery by the department. However, being a section 21 school, as the school experienced, means having funds as per the allocation of the state, deposited directly into the school account.

From the documents as well as verbatim confirmation, with regards to resources, which are one of the main focuses of the study, Table 4.1 also points out that both schools are under resourced. The schools are under resourced because of the fact that, they still lack in basic and other valuable resources needed for teaching and learning to effectively occur. According to the table, both schools highlight a shortage in textbooks which is a critical component of what the Department of Education categorizes as a basic need in a school. The matter is much worse in school A, as there is reportedly a shortage of stationery as the school did not receive any for this year (2011). The schools are also short of classrooms with school A also short of an admin block. .

4.2.2 Respondent's profile

Table 4.2 Respondent's profile from individual interviews

Respondents	School	Gender	Age	Highest qualification	Experience in teaching	Post level	Status of employment	Learning area offered	Grade Taught
Sallie	School B	F	36	Advanced Certificate in Education	01	1- Educator	Temporal	Life Skills, Literacy, Numeracy	3
Mluleki	School B	M	45	Bachelor of Education	17	1- Educator	Permanent	Natural Sciences	9
Mandla	School	M	39	Advanced	15	3-	Permanent	Natural	6

| | A | | | Certificate in Education | | Acting Principal From 2010 | | Sciences | |
| Noxolo | School A | F | 34 | National Professional Diploma in Education | 05 | 1 Educator | Permanent | Technology | 6 |

Table 4.2 shows a profile of the respondents under use of pseudo names, for both schools, respectively, with all four respondents being educators teaching in the GET band have been interviewed. Two respondents from each school were interviewed making the study to comprise of two males and two females with ages ranging from 34 to 45 years.

Table 4.2 also points out that, two of the respondents hold a highest qualification of an Advanced Certificate in Education while the other, Noxolo, has done a National Professional Diploma in Education and Mluleki holding a Bachelor of Education. The years of teaching experience also vary from one to seventeen years with three of the respondents being post level one educators and one respondent being an acting principal as from 2010.

Three of the respondents, as the table shows, are reportedly permanent, except for Sallie, who is still a temporal educator. This means that Sally does not have that much of an experience as compared to her counterparts. Classes or grades involved in the study, as both Table 4.2 and 4.3 below indicates, are the grades considered by the DoE as exit point. These are grade 3, 6 & 9. In these grades, focus as stated in sampling in chapter three was only given to Natural Sciences, and grade 3 learning areas except for the one respondent

who teaches technology. The teacher was chosen due to a limitation of a Natural Sciences teacher not willing to be involved in the study.

Table 4.3 Respondent's profile from focus group discussions

Respondents	School	Gender	Age	Highest qualification	Experience in teaching	Post level	Status of employment	Learning area offered	Grade
Nothemba	School A	F	43	Advanced Certificate In Education	16	1- Educator	Permanent	Numeracy, Literacy and Life Skills	3
Siza	School A	M	42	Advanced Certificate In Education	8	1- Educator	Permanent	Social Sciences	4-7
Patricia	School A	F	49	Advanced Certificate in Education	19	1- Educator	Permanent	Xhosa and Arts and Culture	4-7
Lukho	School B	F	49	Bachelor of Education with Honours	19	2- Head of Division in Intermediate Phase	Permanent	Xhosa &Life Orientation	6
Nomangesi	School B	F	50	Bachelor of Education	24	1- Educator	Permanent	Numeracy, Literacy &	3

				with Honours				Life Skills	
Siziwe	School B	F	46	Advanced Certificate in Education	10	1- Educator	Permanent	Technology & Natural Science	6
Sizwe	School B	M	42	Advanced Certificate in Education	7	1- Educator	Permanent	Arts and Culture and Social Science	9
Luntu	School B	M	43	Bachelor of Education with Honours	17	4- Principal	Permanent	Technology	9
Lungiswa	School B	F	40	NPDE	5	1- Educator	Permanent	Arts and Culture and Social Sciences	6
Monica	School B	F	40	Advanced Certificate in Education	8	1- Educator	Permanent	Economic and Management Science and Xhosa	9

Table 4.3 presents the profiles of ten teacher respondents, three males and seven females, from both schools, who participated in the focus group discussions. The participants ranged from forty to fifty years of age, with six participants holding an Advanced Certificate in

Education, one holding a Bachelor of Education, while the other two are holding a Bachelor of Education with Honours.

Furthermore, Table 4.3 profiles that the years of experience ranged from 5 to 24. The majority of the participants are post level one educator while the other three are in management positions i.e. two are HOD's while one is a school principal (school manager). All the participants are employed on a permanent basis, teaching various learning areas in grade 3, 6 and 9.

4.3   PRESENTING AND ANALYZING DATA

As indicated in the introduction, the data for the study was collected by using three research instruments, semi structured individual interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis. The section that follows presents what has been revealed by the respondents during interview sessions as well as what has been presented by the documents. The data will be presented by responding to each of the research questions the study embarked to investigate.

4.3.1 Presenting data from interviews

4.3.1.1 Conception teachers have of a well-resourced school and an under-resourced school

All (100%) the respondents, from both schools and both sets of interviews, defined a school resource in what could be categorized into four groups which are: human resource, infrastructure, teaching material and finances. Under human resource the respondents alleged that it comprises of teachers, admin staff and learners. Representing the infrastructure, they alleged that it is resources such as, school buildings, sports field as well as sanitary rooms. On teaching material, it was brought to view by the respondents that it

refers to text books, stationery and any other models of teaching aids which the respondents termed the Teaching and Learning Material (LTSM). For the latter group (LTSM), the respondents mentioned the funds allocated to the school as well as any donations they may receive. This is evidential in what the following respondents said:

Respondent Mandla, school A, (individual interviews) responded that: *"School resources mean many things such as teachers, learners, infrastructure, learning materials such as textbooks, fields for sports, grade R swings and many more other things."*

Respondent Mluleki, school B, (individual interviews) shared that: *"Human resource, without people nothing will be able to happen. Before even people are there, there has to be a structure, before going to the inside, which is learning material e.g. books, teaching aids, even the furniture. Those are resources needed in a school."*

Respondent Siza, school A, (focus group) responded that: *"Oh we are speaking of money firstly, speak of learning materials at school, speak of people, staff that is human resource, things that help us in teaching such as resources like libraries, sports field, science labs etc."*

"It is everything that makes the school to function, starting from human resource, such as staff. Libraries and you go to books and

teaching aids for teaching, science kits are all resources. In other words if you are speaking of a library, it has to have the material & equipment needed inside it. Those are resources that assist in teaching. It even goes to the level of sports fields as learners have to play" (**Respondent Luntu, (focus group), school B**).

Responding to what the terms well resourced and under resourced, from the data collected, the respondents from both schools held similar insights about what the terms mean. For a well-resourced school a number of issues emerged which can be categorised as: well-equipped infrastructure (enough: classrooms, sanitary rooms, sports fields for all codes), Enough Teaching and learning material (sufficient LTSM, libraries, science labs), efficiently human resourced (teachers, learners, admin staff), rich and associated with White ethnic group.

- **Well-equipped infrastructure (enough: classrooms, sanitary rooms, sports fields for all codes)**

All (100%) the respondents alleged that well resourced schools have enough infrastructures for teaching and learning to occur. Evidentially they said:

> **"***Beautiful classrooms, all sports grounds, coaches for sport, they have everything…"* (**Respondent Noxolo, (individual interviews), school B**)**.**

"In the sports field the material must be enough and there for learners to use. Classrooms for all grades are available and are in the best condition." (**Respondent Monica, (focus group) school A**).

- **Enough Teaching and learning material (sufficient LTSM, libraries, science labs)**

All the respondents (100%), alleged in their statements that well resourced schools have sufficient Learning and Teaching Support Material. The efficiency of the material allegedly made teaching and learning to occur effectively as everything needed is available.

Respondent Mandla, School A, mentioned that: *"A well-resourced school is a school that has enough books, for teaching and learning to occur effectively. You don't have any shortage in such a school because all the facilities are there …"*

Respondent Mluleki, school B, also revealed that: *"A resourced school will have all the material needed in a school, for example, sports kit is there, everything. Even when they are going somewhere, they have transport. Computers, equipment for science is there, everything is there …"*

Respondent Noxolo, school A, confirmed by saying: *"Well-resourced schools have all teaching and learning material. Computers are there."*

> **Respondent Nothemba, (focus group), school A, mentioned that**:*"Well-resourced schools are schools that have all teaching materials. You find resources for Maths, for Science, for Technology, computers are there. All you need to teach.*

> **Respondent Monica (focus group), school B, evidenced this by saying**: *"I think a well-resourced school is a school that has all the resources we have already mentioned, equipment and also enough. If you want a laboratory you get it."*

- **Efficient human resourced (teachers, admin staff)**

Half (50%) of the respondents reportedly mentioned availability of teachers and admin staff as other resources that define a well resourced school. For example:

> *Respondent Patricia (focus group) school A, reported that: "Teachers, admin staff"*

> *Respondent Siza (focus group) school B: "Enough staff and clerks for admin and finances"*

- **Rich and associated with White ethnic group**

Minority of the respondents (28%) reportedly associated a well-resourced school with previously white schools or Model C schools. They also allegedly termed such schools as also rich. This is evidenced in their statements when saying:

"..Like in those rich white schools…" **(Respondent Mandla, individual interviews, school A).**

"Well-resourced schools are schools that we have not yet found in our communities. They are still in those white areas; for rich people…" **(Respondent Mluleki, school B).**

However, an under-resourced school was commonly defined by the majority (100%) of the respondent as opposites of well-resourced schools. For example, issues such as lack of LTSM, poor infrastructure, poor and found in rural areas. Evidentially from their reports:

Respondent Sallie, individual interviews, (school B), claimed that:

"…Where there is nothing except some books and chalkboard to write and even those books are not there for other classes. It's those rural poverty stricken areas…"

Respondent Noxolo, individual interviews (school B) alleged that:

"… an under-resourced school is the opposite of all this."(Referring to the characteristics of a well-resourced school)

Respondent Nomangesi (school B) supported this by sharing that:

"Learners might be there, buildings might be there, even books, but not sufficient. Rural schools with no electricity, no internet, and learning material not sufficient. You may be expected to do a certain

program but have a barrier of not having what is needed to run the program."

Respondent Siziwe, focus group (school B) *"Not enough classrooms, not enough learners, no playgrounds where learners can play, no fencing, no lab, no computers and has a high shortage of material. It's schools that are found in rural areas where there is illiteracy and people who mostly depend on social grants."*

Respondent Siza (school A) reported that: "...*where there is a lot of shortage of everything, in rural areas with dilapidated classrooms, even short of books for learners to write..."*

Respondent Lunga (7%), brought another view, versus the term not enough, and reportedly said that: *"There might be no buildings at all, classes are lacking, no reading books yet there is nothing learners can do without reading books. There might be only one book maybe for the teacher only, no variety, no referencing, there is nothing. No space for school grounds, the environment not conducive at all to teaching and learning and no electricity."*

The respondents in responding to the meaning of under resourced schools even associated under resourced schools and the rurality context with their schools, for example:

Respondent Mandla (an acting principal, school A) mentioned that: *"An under-resourced school is a school like ours sisi. Yhu, yhu, yhu, very under-resourced and it's from a rural area, is a very under-resourced school, it's not built properly and there's no material for teaching, that is the laboratory, infact all that's assisting when you're in class is not there."*

Respondent Mluleki, (school B) reported that: *"Schools like ours are the ones we term under resourced. Our schools in rural areas are drastically under resourced; because we are working under extremely difficult situations. The working conditions are not conducive to the learning at all. We encounter a lot of difficulties; maybe embedded in the community itself and other parents are illiterate …"* When probed further to state clearly what he meant by extreme conditions, the respondent mentioned the fact that they are working with no resources.

Respondent Nothemba, (school B) stated that: *"*It is *our rural schools where there is nothing except some books and chalkboard to write and even those books are   not there for other classes like in my school. My school does not have resources. For example I am teaching grade three, young children, who most of the times want to see what you are talking about, like cucumbers in balanced foods,*

where you will show them. So there are no resources at all but we

are trying our best."

The respondents in their definitions allegedly associated well-resourced schools with the ethnic group of whites and with riches (money) while relating under-resourced schools to rural and poor. It seems to them rich and white go together whereas rural, poor and Black also go together. Because they relate rural and poor with under resourcing, the respondents also related such state with their own schools as they claim they are under-resourced. The insight the respondents seem to hold is of a deficit point of view, concerning under-resourced schools, where rural is associated with a need for intervention. Moreover, the respondent's view of school resources was silent in talking about parents as also school resources. Seemingly the focus of the respondents regarding school resources is on what is inside the school premises.

4.3.1.2 Challenges the teachers experience and how they resolve them

The respondents echoed a number of challenges they allege are facing their schools in overall view, because of the level of under resourcing they are in. Various matters arose out of the respondent's statements as bulleted below:

➢ **Lack of Learning and Teaching Support Material**

Respondent Nothemba (school A) alleged that they are faced with a challenge of a curriculum, based on technological developments. The respondent allegedly explained that by technological developments she meant involvement of computer usage, televisions etc. in school curriculum. The same learners, coming from the alleged poor communities and under-resourced schools, write national papers which ask about things currently happening

on television. This becomes difficult and challenging for the learners and affects their performance, the respondent further echoed.

Respondent Noxolo (school B) also alleged that, not having resources creates a problem in their school, of learners running away when they have to perform practical work. The respondent alleges that, the learners run away because they do not know what they are expected to do as well as stage fright. She further stated when schools gather together to do activities such as quizzes, learners run away and therefore causing problems for the teacher, as they have stage fright caused by not knowing exactly what they are talking about. The respondent also stated that the under resourcing also creates a production of learners who do not know many things when are outside of the schooling environment. What they see in the outside world as she alleges is surprising to them, as there were not much resources used for teaching and learning in their school.

Respondent Lungiswa, on this point echoed that deterrence occurs in career choices for the learners, when reporting that:

> *"One other thing I've noticed is that, the learners that have already passed from our school to other schools, look like they have blinkers on their eyes, because if one becomes a policemen, they all become policemen, because they learned without resources. They do not go to those careers we see being taken by learners from resourced school, such as engineering. There are so many careers in this era for them, they are not like us, but I think they are caused by*

studying in our schools where we do not have these resources to

teach them effectively."

> ## Lack of infrastructure

A shortage in storage rooms where the respondents would for example, display their learner's handwork from learning areas such as Arts and Culture was voiced by Respondent Patricia.

> ## Use of Theory

Respondent Mluleki (school A) revealed that under resourcing creates a lot of difficulty as it leads them as teachers, to theorizing what is written in the text books. He explained that as there is not much they can find as teachers in the environment to refer the learners, the learners therefore solely depend and rely on what the teachers impart theoretically to them. The respondent further reported that this impacts negatively on the future learning of learners. He reported that, because of under resourcing, the schools are producing learners that have not been perfectly taught, with that leading to high schools complaining about the learners they receive. In support, **respondent Nothemba** evidenced that, *"The whole progress of our learners depends on the school therefore if the school fails as not having resources, it becomes difficult."*

> ## Downsizing of school

Respondent Lukho mentioned a downsizing in school learner enrolment, reportedly caused by unavailability of resources. She alleged that a competition arises within schools in making admissions as their school is under-resourced with a neighbouring school being better-resourced. Learners as she alleged tend to look for schools that have a better range of

resources to offer. In support, the learners as alleged by respondent Nomangesi, are coming from a community that is in no level of supporting them with any resources such as magazines or television. For the learners as she alleged, there is no difference between what they see at home and at school. That, as the respondent commented, demotivates learners to come to school, and may also have played a big role in the high dropout rate in their school.

➢ **Lack of parental support**

The respondents, 100% of them, justified their SGBs and the communities as one other challenge they are faced with. The schools were reportedly faced with a challenge of uncooperative parents to their children's learning as alleged by respondent.

Respondent Lukho echoed this by saying: *"One other thing the parents in the community do not cooperate in ways such as coming to school and look at the achievements of the learner…"*

Respondent Patricia voiced that, *"They just come out and say, thina asiboni nenye, you must teach our learners as teachers so that he or she can go and join other educated people. No support at all."*

Such factors allegedly manifest themselves in the teaching and learning process. As respondent Mluleki alleged, a school cannot depend that much on financial support from the community. Instead, according to what respondent Noxolo revealed, it is the other way round, as the teachers have to make plans of making sure teaching and learning occurs

regardless of the under resourcing. This goes as much as helping out at homes, on social issues such as foster grants for learners who are orphans and many other issues. The problems encountered in the community, as the respondents imply, make a definition of many things happening around the school, as **respondent Mluleki**, mentioned that: *"Is very poor, like you'd notice with their children, they have some mal nutrition, you know, they are slow to grasp information, feeling that it has to do with under nourishment and correct ways of nutrition from their homes."*

One respondent, Sallie, even mentioned that, in class she would notice that some learners keep looking at the kitchen, while she is busy teaching. When making a follow up, she would find that a learner came to school in an empty stomach, caused by various factors such as, staying with a grandparent or may also be is an orphan.

From what can be deduced also from the respondents, it seems the SGB does play a role though, but illiteracy and coming from a community that is poverty stricken, majorly dictates the impact of their role in their school's status of being under resourced. That was evidenced from responses saying:

> *"Since we are coming from people who are from an illiterate, they do not play their role that much part, it's mostly the initiative of the teachers…"* **(Respondent Mandla, school A).**

> *"You can see that our SGB works, I have seen it in these few months I have been here, but the only problem is that they are illiterate and do not know a number of things. In meetings they*

*depend on what the teachers will say, what the teacher says is correct, like they only know studies, they call them studies, and they see studies continuing that's all. I think the principal reports to them about the schools under resourcing but you find out that some have never even went to school. Our chairperson for example never went to school, so they see themselves as people who cannot bring much to education."***(Respondent Sallie, school B).**

> **Lack of support from the DoE**

According to all the respondents, the Department of Education is also not playing its part as they allegedly expected. The respondents from both schools alleged that the department is good only on paper and fails dismally in practically rocketing their planning. They were reported by all (100%) the respondents as scarce in making visits and poor in coordinating their programs. It was alleged by the respondents in school B that, an example of poor coordination of plans was evident during the time where teachers were attending a Caps workshop in a venue in town. They alleged that it was said that, since the workshop was to be hosted during school holidays, teachers would provided with accommodation. According to the respondents, that promise was never kept instead teachers were going up and down, paying out of their own pockets. In visits, they were alleged by school B respondents that, they come to fight, wanting to see the school effectively progress and not offering help.

One other point of failure, echoed by all the respondents from both schools was that of making very late deliveries. The deliveries as alleged could be as late as even delivering a previous financial year's order in the following financial year with another order expected to

be delivered. The respondents alleged that they did not receive stationery for year 2011 up until towards the end of June. Furthermore, it was reported by the respondents that even when the department finally delivers, it puts the material in town for the school to make financial means of collection.

This is evidenced in the following statements:

"The government is not very supportive at all. There is this problem of delivering material late and when we enquire, we would not find the actual cause, there is no specific answer. They are not committed fully in their jobs. You always get the information that the head office did not deliver. There is this place called Bisho which they always put the blame on. Our regional does not care as they do not follow on things." **(Respondent Mluleki, school B).**

"The department does not do much at all. Take for example, this year we did not receive the stationery from January to June. We were told there was a case pending concerning the deliveries and therefore they had to wait for the outcomes of the court in order to deliver to us." **(Respondent Mandla, school A).**

"We have written letters to the department and have received responses we were not expecting. They do not even visit our

schools to assist us with the school in general." (**Respondent Siza,**

school A).

"The principal is always complaining that they do not care. He

says they have tried a number of times to ask for help but haven't

received any. But we are still hoping to see what is going to

happen now that there is this new thing called CAPS coming up as

it is said the department has promised that things will be better."

*(***Respondent Monica, school B).**

Respondent Patricia (school A) acknowledged some point of workshops conducted by the

department as some form of good work the department performs. However, **respondent**

Siza (school A) from the same group disagreed on this by alleging that the workshops are

done wrongly as they are hosted in Umtata, a city, with teachers having to pay for

transportation themselves. His statement evidenced as follows: *"The workshops themselves*

are done wrongly because they take us to Umtata, coming from far away schools, instead of

using closer venues. We spend loads of money with nowhere to claim yet are sitting there

expecting us to go them."

Respondent Patricia agreed to the respondent's allegation. She reported that as much as he

acknowledges the attempt, but what the respondent says is true. She added that, what

makes it worse is that the department uses teachers elected as cluster leaders to do all the

work. Her statement was voiced as follows: *"He is right and speaking the truth, because they*

use the teachers to be cluster leaders and expect them to do all the work they are expected

to do as officials." Respondents from school B group allegedly summarized the role of the department of education as a "One hundred percent failure."

On the other hand, all the respondents (100%) reported that as much as there is the negative effect caused by the under resourcing, they find ways to resolve their problems for teaching and learning to occur. Respondent Mandla reported that the experience they have over the years of working in under resourcing, has made them as teachers to be able to resolve the challenges themselves. He stated that they come together as teachers to discuss these challenges and come with solutions such as approaching nearby high schools for help. He also stated that they have also started knocking on the doors of the department of education asking for help. As the respondent alleged, as teachers, in his school, they made an initiative of asking for help from the embassy of Japan, which responded by giving the school a donation of 5 classrooms.

As it emerged from respondent Salie, use of lesson plans and preparing for what you will teach in class also helps in resolving the challenges. The planning, as she revealed, helps her in having different ways of imparting the knowledge as well as making sure that all learners have the information given.

Respondents Patricia further reported that, as teachers, they teach and also perform the admin work themselves. She stated that they sacrifice for the work to be done. Respondent Mluleki, however, reported that they do not do that much except do their best in the way they teach. Being asked to elaborate on this, the respondent stated that as teachers they use many ways they feel will help shape what the learners are suppose to learn as well as proved their support to them. He stated that they come to school every day and make sure

that the school functions properly by improvising as teachers. The respondent seemed not that much eager to specify what exactly is their best as he elaborated in much vaguer responses. In my opinion, the respondent seemed to be trying to state that they try as much as they can to overcome whatever problem they encounter in school, as there is continuity in teaching even without resources.

Summarily, the respondents seem to hold a view that under resourcing negatively affects learning academically and socially. It is also seen to be a handicap in the learner's future as well as their identity and being critical thinkers. The SGB and community at large are viewed as having no involvement to school programs because of illiteracy, poverty and high unemployment rate. It seems that the respondents do not seem to consider other factors such as parents lacking a deeper insight of their role at school and learning as a whole.

The respondents seem to be in need also of regular visits from the DoE which seem from what they say may boost their schools in many things. It can be noticed though that even though they are not assisted that much by their stakeholders, their experiences and planning ahead helps them in moving forward. It can also be viewed that the teachers do take an initiative of playing a role themselves such as asking for help from other organizations and not just wait for help from their department only.

4.3.1.3 Strategies teachers use to deliver the content of the learning areas offered in the rural under resourced schools

The respondents have revealed various strategies they use in doing their job of educating learners, regardless of their under resourcing, as mentioned earlier when teachers were defining the status of resources in their schools. Strategies revealed by the respondents, put together, are shown in the tables below:

Table 4.4 Pedagogical Practices of teachers from individual interviews

Pedagogical Practice	Names of respondents in individual interviews			
	Mandla School A (SPS)	Sallie School B (JSS)	Noxolo School A (SPS)	Mluleki School B (JSS)
Environment	✓	✓	✓	✓
Chalkboards	X	✓	✓	X
Twin schools	✓	✓	X	X
Field trips	✓	X	✓	X
Photocopy	X	✓	✓	X
Self financing	X	X	X	✓

Table 4.5 Pedagogical Practices of teachers from focus group interviews

Pedagogical Practice	Names of school in focus group discussions	
	School A	School B
Environment	✓	✓
Chalkboards	✓	✓
Twin schools	✓	X

Field trips	✓	X
Groups	✓	✓
Journals, pictures, newspapers	✓	✓
Photocopy	✓	✓

As table 4.4 and 4.5 show, seven strategies were mentioned by the respondents as the ones they use in their under-resourced schools. From the individual interviews five strategies were mentioned and two more strategies were added by the focus group interviews. The table highlights on each strategy the respondents that have mentioned that specific strategy. For each respondent or school a tick has been used as coding in each strategy used by the respondent or school and a mark with x if not mentioned.

❖ **Use of environment**

In using the environment, all (100%) the respondents mentioned that due to lack of some concrete models of resources, they make use of the environment. For example, Respondent Mandla, a Natural Science teacher, stated that for his subject it depends upon the theme or topic to be dealt with. For instance, at the beginning the respondent alleged that they deal with wetlands and therefore it is possible to take learners outside and show them what he is teaching. Respondent Mluleki also mentioned the use of the environment as a teaching strategy as he made use of environmental resources such as 'amalongwe' (cow dung). Other respondents evidentially supported by stating that

*"One other way is to use natural environment as we lack some of these resources. Say you are teaching about flowers, and then you have to wait for a season that will have flowering time and make examples with plants such as 'imvumvu', which is a plant they know and see every day. If you teach energy you make examples of paraffin, candle wax and also cow dung. So you use the resources they know before you go to the ones you speak about without them being able to see."***Respondent Siziwe, school B**

*"In Arts and Culture, most of the times we do practical work, then you send learners to go outside and look for rubbish material to make things like paper mach'e' and other projects. We can't buy things as we do not have money."***Respondent Patricia, school A**

❖ **Use of chalkboard**

Half (50%) of the respondents from individual interviews and both schools from focus groups reportedly used chalkboard as one way of facilitating teaching and learning. Both the respondents stated that they write on the board for the learners to read or copy down. Respondent Salie stated that at times she writes the story on the chalkboard and sometimes creates the story herself and then derive questions out of the story. Such a strategy is allegedly used to cover the gap of having insufficient or no textbooks and reading books at all. Respondent Lukho (focus group) stated that at times, during Xhosa periods, she writes the story on the chalkboard because of the shortage in reading books. Moreover, in using the chalkboard the respondents also mentioned making drawings, to reportedly show meaning when a model or actual object cannot be found. For example, Respondent Mluleki

(individual interview) evidenced by alleging that as there are no resources, they do some drawings, draws charts, and then talks about them in order to have any kind of concrete material learners can see. Respondent Lukho stated that at times, during Xhosa periods, she writes the story on the chalkboard because of a shortage in reading books.

❖ **Twinning schools**

The tables also shows that half of the respondents from individual interviews and school A from the focus groups revealed that they make use of consulting other schools (twinning) and ask for assistance with resources. **Respondent Mandla (school A)**said:*"We try our best, in an urban area, it's easy to go to another school there and ask then for assistance, then they give you some to show learners, but it's not easy for us to get them all."*Also, the respondent mentioned getting help from high schools, which he alleges are not resourced themselves but do get some resources at times and help out the General and Education Band (GET) schools as these GET schools are reportedly their feeder schools. These resources though, as the respondents in school A alleged, get finished quickly as the feeder schools, flux on the same high school. This leads to some schools not getting anything, and that makes it difficult for the schools at large. **Respondent Salie, as respondent Mandla,** also mentioned that she goes to another school to get books to assist her to have a good lesson as the school has no textbooks. The respondent is a grade three teacher, which is a class, as she describes, that needs to see things as well as be able to read and write, each and every day.. **Respondent Patricia** shared that, *"One other thing we do is to work co-operatively as teachers. If you are not good at one thing in a learning area, you go and ask for help from another teacher in another school. In that way we work together very much and make it easy."*

Respondent Noxolo (a technology teacher, School A) on being asked about assistance from other schools responded differently, claiming that they do come together as teachers of different schools, only to find that they share the same problems and therefore cannot be of much help to each other. Also, school B mentioned that they have not yet done such a strategy and have not even went to ask for assistance from any school except respondent Sallie from the individual interviews, whom they confirmed does this.

❖ **Field trips**

As shown in tables, from both sets of interviews, only the respondents from school A allegedly mentioned that at times when there is an access on funds they take learners to places, meaning that they embark on excursions and field trips. In responding to the challenge of learners being surprised by the outside world, the respondents stated that, they take learners on tours to expose them to many things they are not familiar with. For example:

> **Respondent Noxolo** shared that: *"Ok, we also do touring here at school, like we take learners to places and show them things like yipizza le and other important things such as aquariums etc."*

> **Respondent Siza** revealed that: *"As you are here today, tomorrow we are going on a tour. That is one way of showing learners things and places, some of which they learn about in learning areas such as Social Science."*

Worth noting is that the respondents school B from the individual interviews allegedly did not mention field trips. However, the respondents from the focus group in school B reported that they do not take educational tours because they are expensive, and therefore

involve a lot of money which the school and community at large does not afford. Such a report seemed to explain the reason why respondent Sallie and respondent Mluleki from individual interviews, who are coming from the same school, never mentioned such a strategy in the individual interviews.

❖ **Use of photocopier machines in town**

Half of the respondents also mentioned the use of a photocopier machine as another strategy that assists them in their teaching. For example, **respondent Sallie** reported that at times as she has no reading books, in fact "no books at all," she would photocopy in town for the learners the page she needs and give out to the learners or would read to the learners aloud as they listen. **Respondent Nomangesi** specifically reported on this and stated that at times *"as availability of resources at the foundation phase is a problem,"* she would also photocopy a book she gets for the learners in order to develop their reading skills.

❖ **Self financing**

Because there is no electricity as well as no photocopier machines in their schools, respondent Mluleki (school A) brought to view that at times as teachers they go as far as financing certain activities themselves. He alleged, as Table 4.3 points out, that at times as a teacher you have to pay out of your own pocket and reportedly made an example of buying things like balloons to teach certain aspects such as air pressure in science.

❖ **Groups**

Both schools, in the focus group interviews, as the table profiles, reportedly shared similar insights of strategizing their teaching by putting learners in groups to cover the gap of a shortage of books. This strategy was reported in both schools, as going hand in hand with

using a photocopying machine on certain material a teacher gets, which may not be enough to provide each learner.

❖ **Journals, pictures and newspapers**

The respondents from the focus group also added the use of collecting journals, magazines and pictures around their homes and in town, to give out to the learners for cut and paste. They alleged that such collection is done by them as teachers only, as learners cannot find any in their homes. **Respondent Lukho** evidences this by saying: *"As an intermediate phase teacher, who teaches Xhosa and having no reading books, I look for newspapers written in Xhosa, like fever, take a scribbler and paste the cuttings so that they have a reading book."*

It seems, from what the respondents are alleging that, teachers make use of various teaching strategies and the resources they can get at that point in time to make sure that teaching and learning occurs. To them the strategies they use seem to be what they can do best and nothing more. There was no mention of strategies that help in broadening up the minds of learners for critical thinking or independent thinking as well as independent learning. Moreover, the strategies mentioned by the respondents were more of a general nature and not subject specific.

For all the respondents, the environment seems to be one common strategy they all use. Respondent Mandla (school principal) and respondents from his school are the only respondents who make use of twinning with other schools as the respondents from school B did not make mention of. However respondent Noxolo in twinning with other schools seems to be expecting help from schools around their circuit and does not broaden her thinking towards other school that is not within the circuit as respondent Mandla does.

4.3.1.4 Successes teachers have in their under-resourced schools

With the various ways the respondents use to resolve their teaching and learning challenges, successes were allegedly identified around various areas involved in teaching and learning as well as the school at large. All (100%) of the respondents mentioned that, the fact that learners are passing and progressing to other grades and most importantly to high school and tertiary level shows a level of success on their attempts. Respondent Mluleki alleged that some are working in various departments and that makes them happy as teachers, though, they are achieved under difficult situations**. Respondent Noxolo** even stated how proud she is to be a teacher when she sees some of the achievements by saying:

"It's nice at school as you deal with children. You know, it makes you proud to be able to mould the mind of a person, knowing that at the end I am developing this person. For example learners come to school still lacking in some aspects of discipline, such as, addressing an elder with a prefix of 'sister' or 'miss' to a teacher."

It seems that the majority however under-resourced as the schools are, devise a number of ways for the school to continue functioning, which leads to certain achievements the teachers attain in time, which mark a successes that boost up their confidence in the harsh conditions they reportedly work under.

4.3.2 Documentary analysis

The documents made available by School B were SGB minutes, SMT minutes, Staff minutes, Paper budget, Log book and an Annual Survey form. Other documents asked such as class visits records, Asset register were not available. School A, however managed to provide all the documents stated above with one limitation of seeming disorganised as it took a long time to get a document but they had them.

The documents revealed in School A and a verbal confirmation in School B, showed that the schools had a lot of shortage on school assets such as infrastructure and LTSM. The Annual Survey also has a part that questions about assets, financial expenditure and other areas. The surveys from both schools reflected that both schools were experiencing a lot of asset shortage. School A has been a section 21 school two years longer than School B which had not even finished a year. The part for expenditure showed that funds had been spent on LTSM but also showing much spent on infrastructure to accommodate learners.

In the minute books, nothing could be found relating to either pedagogical practices of teachers or relating to the situation of resources in the school. Mostly what was discussed in the staff and SMT minute books were issues such as allocation of work, other activities of the schools such as exams and mandates the department has given on principal's meetings.

A worth noting fact was picked in the allocation of duties. The overload of work mentioned by the respondents as a challenge they are faced with was suggested by the documents, as in most cases teachers were given three or more learning areas to teach. On top of that, teachers also had to play roles in other committees such as sport, catering, financial committee (FINCOM) etc. Even in these committees a person's name would appear in more than one committee as there is a shortage of staff. On the SGB minutes of School A there was also a point that alleged that a grade one teacher was going to be asked to combine her grade with grade two as grade two had no teacher at the time.

The class visit book shared information on how teachers were expected to teach in class. There were recommendations of using resources as some lessons were observed to be

having no resources used as well as usage of learner centred approach. However visits for the year 2011 were not yet done which was explained to be due to time constraints.

The log book, from both schools, alleged only two departmental visits, which were made in 2008 and 2009 respectively. Out of the two visits in School A, one was for the school nutrition program.

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter the data collected during the interview schedules and from documents accessed has been presented and analysed. The chapter provides the raw data coming from the participants, as has been triangulated through interviews, focus group discussions and documentary analysis as claimed in chapter three.

This study revealed that all the respondents from both schools seemed to have a common understanding of what a school resource means though put in different statements. The findings also revealed that all the respondents were silent in mentioning parents as school resources. From the documents analysed, it however, came to view that it is expected of the teachers to use a learner centred approach kind of teaching, where learners are mostly used. Responding on parents the teachers alleged a lack of involvement of parents in their children's learning and other activities run in their school.

The researcher also found that the Department of Education fails also in playing its part as allegedly expected. Findings from the interviews were that the teachers were happy to see learners from their schools progressing with their studies up to high school level and

beyond. For them, being there at their schools, making a difference is a success and a happy moment for them.

The following chapter concludes the study with the findings, articulated from the data, draws conclusions and makes recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This study aimed at investigating the pedagogical practices of teachers in rural under resourced schools in the Eastern Cape Province. This chapter then discusses the main findings as presented in chapter four with relation to the literature reviewed. Conclusions will be drawn and recommendations or suggestions for future research will also be dealt with. The study was guided by the following research questions.

Main research question

- What are the pedagogical practices of teachers in under-resourced schools?

Sub – Questions

- What conception do teachers have of a well-resourced school and an under-resourced school?

- Which strategies do teachers use to deliver the content of the learning areas offered in rural under resourced schools?

- What challenges do the teachers experience and how do they resolve them?

- What successes do they have in their under-resourced schools?

5.2   DISCUSION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

Five main findings have been discussed in this section and they are:

5.2.1 School resources: Teacher's conception of school resources

This study revealed that all the respondents from both schools seemed to have a common understanding of what a school resource means though put in different statements. According to the interviews conducted, human resource (teachers, administrative staff and learners), infrastructure (school buildings, sports field as well as sanitary rooms), teaching material (text books, stationery and any other models of teaching aids) and finances are what underpin school resources. According to Scheerens (2000), these resources are 'school inputs' and when used effectively, they can guarantee learner academic achievement (output of schooling).

The findings also revealed that all the respondents were silent in mentioning parents as school resources. Such silence contradicts what the South African Schools Act of 1996 makes clear, which is the vital importance of parent involvement in a child's schooling. The findings, however, showed that the schools experience poor involvement of parents due to illiteracy. The Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005:108) agrees to the findings as it found that in the Eastern Cape, 25 percent of female households head had no formal schooling at all while for some it is too low for them to play the role defined by the School's Act. According to the foundation, this was found disturbing as mothers play an active and supporting role in their children's learning more than men.

5.2.2 Teacher's conception of well resourced and under resourced schools

The evidence from this study shows that a well-resourced school/well-equipped school is a school where there are enough classrooms, sanitary rooms, sports fields for all codes, library, a laboratory, technology room and enough teachers to teach the learners. The findings also show that such schools are associated with previously called white schools or model C schools. In concurrence to the findings of this study, Roodt (2011:2) also suggests that the schools referred to as well-resourced schools in the South African education context are the schools formerly known as Model C schools.

However, an under-resourced school was commonly defined by the majority of the participants as a school that has a shortage in resources or may not have them at all. They were characterized as schools that are opposites of well-resourced schools. The opposite

involves insufficient LTSM (books, chalkboards) poor infrastructure (dilapidated classrooms, pit systems, no electricity) lack of human resource etc. Some literature collaborates what the findings reveal as they also identify the following as some of the characteristics of under-resourced schools in South Africa (Ndungane, 2010; Berger, 2003; City Press, July 2010):

- Inadequate teaching and learning material such as lack of libraries, laboratories, textbooks, chalkboards, access to ICT programs and computers, and furniture.

- Overcrowded classes or multigraded classes which the former referring to a class fluxed with a large number of learners and the latter referring to two or more grades sharing the same classroom.

- Poor infrastructure, such as unwieldy classes.

- Poor sanitation (usage of pit systems), no piped water, and no electricity.

- Insufficient or no funding at all by the government.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that under resourced schools are also associated with rural areas, which are related to having a huge shortage on resources. Research findings according to Bloch (2005) and Ndungane (2010) and also corroborates this testimony by highlighting that under resourced schools are schools mostly found in areas with low socio economic contexts and are associated with rural communities, informal settlements and farm schools. This scenario is typical of schools within the Eastern Cape Province (Bot, 2005).

5.2.3 Strategies teachers use to deliver the content of the learning areas offered in rural under resourced schools

The teachers in both schools, as mentioned earlier in the previous section, are working in under resourced schools. They termed the under resourcing as drastic, but, however, teaching and learning goes on. Findings from the interviews revealed a lot of ways the teachers use to teach, to ensure that teaching and learning occurs. This is difficult however, in a situation faced with problems of under resourcing. Literature endorses this by stating that the norms and standards of media resources for teachers to implement the resource driven curriculum is totally inaccessible to under resourced schools. In such schools there is no electricity to even run media resources (Berger, 2003).

Evidence from the interviews suggests that for the respondents, teaching strategies is about what they use when teaching. It is also what they believe makes learning occur more effectively in their under resourced environment. For them, teaching strategies are the efforts they make to make it a point that pedagogy occurs. The words used by literature to identify different teaching strategies only relate in terms of their meaning by being placed to what is said by the respondents as there was no specific mention of the terms in the interviews. The respondents revealed various strategies as such making use of the environment to show models of what is being taught. Use of drawings to impart knowledge was also mentioned.

Within the strategies identified by the respondents, a relation to what Savodnik (1995: 9-10) reveals, that inside pedagogic practice, power is embedded in a number of ways is visible. It is embedded in the way that knowledge is organised into curriculum (*classification*), and in

the relationship between educator and learner and the degree of control that the educator or learner has over the curriculum (*framing*)) (Bernstein, 1996: 58). The ways the strategies for teaching are organised do reveal a sense of power and control held by the teachers as termed classification and framing by Bernstein.

The findings confirm a visible pedagogy (usually associated with a performance model of pedagogy), where the relationship of authority of the educator over learner is explicit and defined, while on the other hand there is also invisible pedagogy, where the rules and hierarchical relationships are not absent but are implicit as "power is masked or hidden by devices of communication" (Bernstein, 1990). It is evident that the strategies used by the teachers depend on what the teacher views as a way of dealing with the situation of being in an under resourced environment, but most importantly being driven by the zeal to produce a performance model of pedagogy as well as the curriculum expected competence. Brown (2003:1) provides a strong argument that all pedagogical acts "are affected by the conceptions teachers have about the act of teaching, the process and purpose of assessment, and the nature of learning".

The respondents also mentioned strategies of making use of journals magazines etc, chalkboards and drawings. Such strategies are in the same vein as Shulman's (1987) Pedagogical content knowledge. This is a combination of content and pedagogy. This is information or data that helps lead learners to an understanding. The PCK includes any way of representing a subject that makes it comprehensible to others as the respondents have revealed. The strategies are the same as ways of talking, showing, enacting, or otherwise

representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern, and the unskilled can become adept (Shulman, 1987).

From the documents analysed, it however, came to view that it is expected of the teachers to use a learner centred approach kind of teaching, where learners are mostly used. This goes hand in hand with the principle of the curriculum used in SA, which is Outcomes Based Education. In South Africa, the national curriculum is expected to be implemented in all public schools (Department of Education (DoE), 2002). This is regardless of whether schools have resources or not. Moreover, teachers in under-resourced and resourced schools are expected to fulfil the same roles as outlined in the norms and standards for educators (DOE, 2000).

5.2.4 Challenges experienced by teachers and how they resolve them

The findings indicate four sections within which the teachers' echoed challenges arise. These are as follows:

- **Lack of support from parents**

Responding on parents the teachers alleged a lack of involvement of parents in their children's learning and other activities run in their school. It was voiced that parent's literacy is one major factor viewed as the major reason of such lack of involvement, as parents are stated to be saying they do not know anything about what schooling. This contradicts with the South African Schools Act of 1996 that makes it clear the vital importance of parent involvement in a child's schooling. However, literature agrees with the teachers as it states

that in the Eastern Cape, the Nelson Mandela Foundation (2004:108) found that 25 percent of female households heads had no formal schooling at all while for some are too low for them to play the role defined by the School's Act. According to the foundation, this was found disturbing as mothers play an active and supporting role in their children's learning more than men. In the SGB minutes there was no reflection at all of a meeting held to discuss the situation of under resourcing or any curriculum issue for that matter, in the school, which makes me conclude that it is because of a lack of understanding that they have a role to play on such issue.

- **Under resourcing**

The findings also show that the low standard of resources in the schools is a challenge to the teachers and the school as a whole. The findings show that under resourcing leads to many things such as low learner enrolment which further leads to a few teachers employed as learners move to more resourced schools leading to an overload of work. The findings confirm what the Educators' Voice (2002:19) states, that the educators at rural schools are not enough for the implementation of the curriculum. One respondent alleged that a competition arises within schools in making admissions as their school is under-resourced with a neighbouring school being better resourced, for example, may have a few computers. Learners as teachers alleged, tend to look for schools that have a better range of resources to offer.

Moreover, the learners are coming from a community that is in no level of supporting them with any resources such as magazines or television. For the learners, there is no difference between what they see at home and at school. That, as the respondents commented,

demotivates learners to come to school, and may also have played a big role in the high dropout rate in their school. Furthermore, the issue of infrastructure in these rural under resourced schools creates a shortage in storage rooms where the respondents would for example; display their learner's handwork from learning areas such as Arts and Culture, Technology etc. This concurs with what Hendricks (n.d.) states that in a context of such a dire shortage of furniture and textbooks, even when the school had donations of reading books and a teacher who could run a classroom library, there was no suitable surface – bookcase, cupboard or table – on which the teacher could store or display the books donated by Biblionef and Kearsney College. The books lay on the dusty cement floor of an improvised library housed in a block of toilets – toilets which were unused and unusable, because they were designed for water-borne sanitation (Hendricks, n.d.).

- **Curriculum challenges**

The findings further indicate that curriculum is based on technological developments. The same learners, coming from the alleged poor communities and under-resourced schools, write national papers which ask about things currently happening on television. This becomes difficult and challenging for the learners and affects their performance as their schools do not have such facilities. The findings agree with Karlsson (1998:35) highlighting that, the education system of South Africa has changed to a resource-rich, learner-centred outcomes-based curriculum and OBE that presuppose a resource-rich learning environment. The resource-rich environment refers to a teaching and learning context that exposes learners to a range of diverse sources of information and representations of ideas and views in many forms and languages.

However, for the learners in these schools a resource rich curriculum is still a distant dream. For them what Fine et al (2004:2198) in a study of youths in run-down schools in the United States of America (USA) is a definition of their future lives, where Fine argues that dilapidated buildings coupled with a chronic shortage of up-to-date textbooks cripple teachers' and learner's aspirations, ability and sense of self.

Related to this situation of a crippled rural and under resourced curriculum is the Escuela Nueva Model that was developed to improve the education system in schools serving communities of very low socio-economic status in Colombia and Guatemala. The model put structures that aimed at helping improve the situation of those schools (Colbert & Arboleda, 1990 as cited in Kline, 2002). The South African change in curriculum undergone the same line, but not being able to negotiate and follow the structures put in place openly and effectively, continue to create the same two tier system of schooling. This would mean a continuation of a rural South African schooling context Hartshorne (1992:123) viewed as characterised by isolated learning communities, separation from mainstream educational thought and progress, low levels of internal/external efficiency and of professional expertise in the community, low rates of input, powerlessness among local leadership, high levels of wastage, and geographical isolation and inaccessibility.

- **Lack of support from Department of Education**

The researcher also found that the Department of Education fails also in playing its part as allegedly expected. The department was proved to be good only on paper and fails dismally in practically rocketing their planning as they are scarce in making visits and poor in coordinating their programs. It was alleged by the respondents in school B that, an example

of poor coordination of plans was evident during the time where teachers were attending a Caps workshop in a venue in town. The respondents acknowledged that it was said that, since the workshop was to be hosted during school holidays, teachers would provided with accommodation. According to the respondents, that promise was never kept instead teachers were going up and down, paying out of their own pockets.

One other point of failure, echoed by all the respondents in school B was that of making very late deliveries. The deliveries as alleged could be as late as even delivering a previous financial year's order in the following financial year with another order expected to be delivered. Moreover, when it finally delivers, it puts the material in town for the school to make financial means of collection. However, when a visit is made the expectation is to see a school effectively progressing or someone to account if there is no effective progress. Workshops conducted are hosted in Umtata, a city, with teachers having to pay for transportation themselves.

The interviews also revealed that teachers resolve their challenges in many ways. They asked for help from outside as well as performed certain duties such as doing admin work. This is also reflected by the fact that the schools do keep documents regardless of the challenges.

5.2.5 Successes teachers have in their under-resourced schools

Findings from the interviews were that the teachers were happy to see learners from their schools progressing with their studies up to high school level and beyond. For them, being there at their schools, making a difference is a success and a happy moment for them.

Participants in School A were so proud of their learner performances in sport and in academic competitions. They viewed themselves as champions in their own state as some schools look to them yet they are a small school. It was evidenced that teachers devised a number of ways for the school to continue functioning, which led to certain achievements the teachers attain in time, which marked a success that boostet up their confidence in the harsh conditions they reportedly work under.

5.3 VALUE OF THE STUDY

The focus of the question in the study was to identify pedagogies teachers in rural under resourced schools use for the teaching and learning process. Doing a study on rural schools has always been my interest as I admired the effort teachers in such schools take to make sure that they make a difference on the minds of those marginalised learners. Being a teacher in such schools, I observed that the efforts put by the teachers under such dire circumstances paid out at the end, as some of the learners are living a better life today. Some are investing back to the same schools as teachers themselves who are there to make a difference. It is against such background that I decided to shape a study that focuses on narrating what the teachers had to say about the way they teach and create an atmosphere of belonging to the world.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The scale of the study is such a small scale as it only focussed on two schools in the whole Eastern Cape. Moreover, the researcher aimed at working with six respondents in the individual interviews which then proved not possible due to various reasons such as participants being reluctant in being interviewed. However, findings of the study are rich

and provide a deeper insight on pedagogical practices teachers use in rural under resourced schools, which may be applicable to a certain extent to other schools.

5.5   REFLECTONS ON THE RESEARCH PROCESS

This was my first time doing research, having not much prior theoretical understanding of what research involves, let alone practically done one. When I first started, I had in mind a view of a documentary such as the ones I see on Television, where you expose things and to my surprise my supervisor said this one is academic and goes by academic rules. Now I am proud to say I have learnt a lot and am still looking forward to doing more research in the coming future. The process, however, was not easy at all, as a lot of sacrifices were done to meet the set deadlines, having to study books very hard about how research is done, attending extra classes with an Honours group, but I have made it. I've grown in many ways and still cannot believe that I have made it this far. Today I am proud to say the process has taught me to say, I am a researcher, I am a mentor to other following students and a future scholar for new ground breaking discoveries to be made in the history of academic research.

5.6   RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations established in the study make suggestions for improvement the school level and recommendations for future research.

A.   Recommendations for the school level

- The DoE officials need to make regular visits on schools for the betterment of teaching and learning standard, regular improvement on school facilities and handling of finances.

- A project of mobile libraries needs to be considered by the stake holders involved in the education system.

B. Recommendations for future research

Further possible future research would contribute to a wider spectrum of knowledge to the education system in pursuing the following areas:

- What role can the municipality play in improving the situation of various facilities in schools?

- What intervention strategies would bring growth to the school's resourcing procedures?

5.7 CONCLUSION

The study arrived at conclusions that:

- Schools in rural areas are still vastly under resourced and marginalised however teachers continue to make a vast difference with what they have.

- Parents still lack insight on their valuable input to the education of the country.

- The government or rather the Department of Education still has a challenge of uplifting the standard of education by taking a more uninterrupted step in resourcing under resourced schools.

- Teachers take an initiative of using various practices to ensure that teaching and learning occur.

6. REFERENCES

Ajiboye, O. and Adeyinka, T. (2007). Problem and Issues in Teaching and Learning and in Large Under-Resourced Classroom in Nigeria Public Schools Implication for Policy Making. *The Social Sciences, 2: 24-30.*

Arendse, L. (2011).The school funding system and its discriminatory impact on marginalised learners.*Lecturer, Faculty of Law, University of Pretoria* VOL 15.

Atchoarena, D. 2006. The contribution of higher agricultural education to learning and development in rural areas: Experiences and policy implications. *Int. Working Group on Education (IWGE) meeting, FAO, Rome. UNESCO, Paris.*

Ashley, A. & Maxwell, S. (2001). Rethinking rural development.*Development Policy Review,* 19. (4).

Atkinson, P. (1985). Language, structure and reproduction: an introduction to the sociology of Basil Bernstein. *London: Methuen*.

Berger, E. (2003). "The Right To Education Under The South African Constitution". *College of Law, Faculty Publications.*Paper 26.University of Nebraska –Lincoln.

Bloc, G. (2005, November 17). Partnership for quality education. Paper presented at SAQA-Africa Conference, Gallagher Estate, 17 November 2005*. SAQA-Africa Conference, Gallagher Estate*.

Birch, M.,Miller, T. (2002). 'Encouraging participation: ethics and responsibilities', in Manther M., Birch M., Jessop J., Miller T.(eds), *Ethics in Qualitative Research,* London. Sage.

Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. (1998).Qualitative research in education: An introduction to theory and methods (3rd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Bernstein, B. (1975) Class, codes and control, vol.3: Towards a theory of educational transmission (London, Routledge and Kegan Paul).

Bernstein, B. (1990). Class, codes and control, volume 4: the structuring of pedagogic discourse. London: Routledge.

Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: Theory, research, critique*. London: Taylor and Francis.

Bernstein, B. (2000) *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: theory, research, critiques* (Lanham, Maryland/Oxford, Rowman & Littlefield).

Bot M. (2005). School education in South Africa: tracking change over ten years. *EduSourceData News*, No 48. Houghton: The Education Foundation Trust. 1-10.

Breakwell, G., Hammond, S., & Fife-Schaw, C. (1995). Research methods in psychology. London, UK: Sage

Brown, G. (2003). Teachers' instructional conceptions: Assessments' relationship to learning, teaching, curriculum and teacher efficacy. Paper presented at the joint conference of the *Australian and New Zealand Associations for Research in Education (AARE/NZARE)*, Auckland, 28 Nov.-3 Dec.

Chuenyane, G. (2010, July 25). OBE gets overhauled. City Press. Accessed November 22,2010 from http//www.citypress.co.za/SouthAfrica/Features/OBE-gets Overhauled.

Clark, A. (1999). Qualitative Research: data analysis techniques. *Professional Nurse,* Vol. 14 No: 8.

Cogill, J. (2008). Primary teachers' interactive whiteboard practice across one year: changes in peda.gogy 1 and influencing factors. EdD thesis King's College University of London.

Cohen, D. Crabtree, B. (2006)."Qualitative Research Guidelines Project."

Colbert de Arboleda, V. & Arboleda, J. (1990). Universalization of primary education in Colombia, *The New School Programme*. UNESCO.

Conrad, D. J. (1993).Calvin and Hobbes and other icons of Americana.*TESOL Journal, 2*(3), 34.

Constitution of South Africa, (1996), Act no.108 of 1996. Pretoria.

Cousin, G. (2005, November).Case study research. Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 29(3), 421–427.

Creswell, J. W. & Miller, D. L. (2000).Determining validity in qualitative inquiry.*Theory into Practice, 39*(3), 124-131.

Cronje, F. (2010). Why some schools work. SairrToday.

Dalton D. (2005). Classroom crisis: the state of school infrastructure in the Eastern Cape. Research Report.Public Service Accountability Monitor, Rhodes University, Grahamstown.

Danboom, D. 1996. Why Americans value rural life. *Rural Development Perspectives.* 12(1):15-18.

Department of Education (1996) *South African Schools Act,* Act no. 84 of 1996. Pretoria.

DOE (1997a) Curriculum 2005. Learning for the 21st Century (Pretoria).

DOE (1997b) Foundation Phase (Grades R to 3) Policy Document (Pretoria).

Department of Education (1998) *National Norms and Standards for School Funding* Government Gazette, vol. 400, no. 19347, 12 October 1998. Pretoria.

Department of Education (2002) Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (Schools) (Pretoria).

Department of Education (DOE) (2000) *South African Curriculum for the Twenty First Century. Report of the Review Committee on Curriculum 2005.*Presented to the Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, Chisholm, L. Chairperson. (Pretoria).

Educator's Voice January/February 2000.

Elliott, J. and Lukes, D. (2008). Epistemology as ethics in research and policy: The use of case studies. Journal of Philosophy of Education, 42(S1).

Fine M., Burns A., Payne Y.A. and Torres M.E. (2004). Civic lessons: The color and class of betrayal. *Teachers College Record.*106 (11) 2193-2223.

Fischer, B.B., & Fischer, L. (1979). Styles in teaching andlearning.*Educational Leadership, 36* (4), 245-254.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research.*The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-606.

Guba, E.G. and Lincoln, Y.S. (1994), "Competing paradigms in qualitative research", in

Denzin,N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds), Handbook of Qualitative Research, Sage, Thousand Oaks,

CA,pp. 105-17.

Hargreaves, A. & Moore, S. (20000. Educational outcomes modern and postmodern

interpretations: response to Smith and Dow. *British Journal of Sociology of Education,*

21(1):27-42.

Hasan, R. (2002). Semiotic mediation, language and society: three exotropictheories –

Vygotsky, Halliday and Bernstein. Presentation to the SecondInternational Basil Bernstein

Symposium: Knowledges, pedagogy and society. Cape Town.

Hoadley, U. (2006). Analysing pedagogy: the problem of framing.*Journal of Education, No.*

40.

Hoepfl, M. C. (1997). Choosing qualitative research: A primer for technology education

researchers.*Journal of Technology Education*, 9(1), 47-63.

Hofmeyr J.M., Schollar E and McCay L (1998) Investigation of school quality in West Wits

region. The emerging school landscape in post-apartheid South Africa. Report for

AngloGold.

Housing Assistance Council (HAC). (2002). *Taking stock: rural people, poverty and housing at*

theturn of the 21st century. Washington, D.C.: HAC.

Housing Assistance Council (HAC). (2004). *Race, place, and housing: housing conditions in*

rural minoritycounties. Washington, D.C.: HAC.

Howarth, William. (1996). The value of rural life in American culture. *Rural Development Perspectives.*12(1):5-10

Hysamen, G.K. (1994). *Methodology for Social and Behavioural Science*. Bloemfontein: Southern Book Publishers.

James, W. O., C. Prucha, and R. Brewer.(1993). Cost-effective techniques to control human enteropathogens on fresh poultry.Poult. Sci. 72:1174-1176.

Karlsson, J. Ô. (1998). Public libraries and outcomes-based education (OBE).*Innovation* 16.

Killen R, (1996). Effective Teaching Strategies.*Lessons from Research and Practice*. Social Science Press. Australia.

Kline,R.(2002). A Model for Improving Rural Schools:Escuela Nueva in Colombia and Guatemala. *Current Issues in Comparative Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, Vol.2(2).*

LaCaille, J.P.(2008). Promoting Tourism in Rural America.National Agricultural Library, Rural Information Center.

Leeds, P.D. (2001). *Practical research. Planning and design, 5*[th] *ed.* New York: MacMillan.

Leedy, P. & Ormrod, J. (2001).*Practical research: Planning and design* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications

Lingam, G.I., 2007. Pedagogical practices: the case of multi-class teaching in Fiji primary school. *Educational Research and Review,* **2**(7): 186-192.

Macfarlane D. 2005. Treat rural schools as special case, report urges. *Mail and Guardian*.May 27- June 2, 2005. p4.

Mackenzie, N. and Knipe, S. (2006, October). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. Issues in Educational Research, 16(2).

Marton F. (1981) Phenomenography – describing conceptions of theworld around us. Instructional Science 10, 177–200.

McEwan, P.J. & Benveniste, L.A. (1999). *Constraints to implementing educational innovations: The case of multigraded schools*. Stanford, CA: School of Education, Stanford University.

McGinn, N. F. (1996). Resistance to good ideas: Escuela Nueva in Colombia. In L. Buchert (Ed.), *Education reform in the South in the 1990s* (pp. 29-52). Paris: UNESCO.

McKenna, H. (1994). The Delphi technique: A worthwhile research approach for nursing? Journal of Advanced Nursing, 19(6). [MEDLINE]

McMillan, J.H. and Schumacher, S. 1993. *Research in Education: A Conceptual Introduction*. New York: Harper College Publishers.

McNeir, G. (1993). *Outcomes-based education*. ERIC Digest 85. Retrieved 13 July, 2012, from

http:// eric.uoregon.educ/publication/digests/digest085.html

Mouton, j. (2001).*How to succeed in your Masters' and Doctoral Studies: A South African guide and resource book.* Pretoria.

Ndungane, N.(2010). Historic schools restoration projects. Towards Centres of Cultural and Educational Excellence. Accessed November 02, 2010 from <u>http://www.historic</u> schools.org.za/view.asp?pg=Speeches&Sub=Speeches

Nelson Mandela Foundation. (2005). Emerging Voices: A Report on Education in South African Rural Communities. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Nichols, P. (1991) Social survey methods: a field guide for development workers.

Development guidelines, v. 6. Oxford, Oxfam.

Nkondo, R.L. (1997). The Use of Tsonga as the Medium of Instruction in Secondary Schools.Unpublished M.Phil. Dissert ation. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.

Nsubuga, Y. N. (2009). *The integration of natural resource management into the curri-culum of rural under-resourced schools: a Bernsteinian analysis.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa.

Nyuswa, Y.N.(2003). Outcomes-Based Education and under-resourced schools:

An evaluative study.University of Zululand, Durban.

Pretorius, F. (1998). Outcomes-Based Education in South Africa.Hodder and Stoughton Publishers. Johannesburg.

Pudi, T. (2006). From OBE to C2005 to RNCS: Are we still on track? *Africa Education Review*, 3 (1/2), 100-112.

Punch, K.F. (2005). Introduction to Social Research–Quantitative & Qualitative Approaches.London: Sage.

Quirk, M. (1994). How To Teach and Learn In Medical School: ALearner-Centered Approach. (Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas).

Rambani, T.E. (2000). The Perception of Grade One Teachers: Towards the Use of Educational Technology in Implementing Curriculum 2005: A Case in the Northern Province.Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation. Thohoyandou: University of Venda.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). (1996c). *TheNational Education Policy Act.* Government Gazette No.27 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Richards C & Killen R. (1993). Problems of beginning teachers: Perceptions ofpre service music teachers. *Research Studies in Music Education*, 1:40-51.

Rojas, C. & Martinez, H. (1993).*Escuela Nueva program in Colombia: Characteristics of Effective schools and issues elated to going to scale.* Mimeog.

Roodt, M. (2011).'Model C' schools need to be supported.

Rossman, G. B., and S. F. Rallis. (1998). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rugh, A. & Bossert, H. (1998). *Involving communities: Participation in the delivery of education programs*. Washington D.C: Creative Associates International, Inc.

Sadovnik, A. (1995). *Knowledge and Pedagogy: the sociology of Basil Bernstein*. Ablex Publishing, New Jersey.

Saez, A. (2010).Semi-structured Interview Protocol.Retrieved on 6 july 2011 from *http://www.ehow.com/info7904390questions-interviewee-should-ask-interview.html*.

Schiefelbein, E. (1990). *Redefining basic education for Latin America: Lessons to be drawn from the Colombian Escuela Nueva*. Paris: UNESCO-Orealc.

Seale, C. (1999). Quality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 5*(4), 465-478.

Seroto, J. (2004). The Impact of South African Legislation (1948-2004) on Black Education in Rural Areas: A Historical Educational Perspective. DEd thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Shenton, A.K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects.*Division of Information and Communication Studies, School of Informatics, Lipman Building,Northumbria University, Newcastle.*

Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review, 57*(1), 1-22.

Silverman, D. (2001). *Interpreting qualitative data: methods for analysing talk, text and interaction*, 2nded. London: Sage.

Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing qualitative research: a practical handbook* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods For Analyzing Talk, Text And Interaction (3rded).London: Sage.*

Spady, W. and Marshall, K. (1994): 'Light, not Heat, on OBE'. *The American School Board Journal*. Vol. 181, pp. 29–33.

Soga, N.N.(2004). Self-managing schools in Gauteng: Challenges and opportunities for school- based managers*.* MEd dissertation. Pretoria: Univeristy of South Africa.

Taylor, N., Muller, J. & Vinjevold, P. (2003).*Getting schools working: Research and systematic school reform*. Cape Town: Pearson.

Taylor, N. & Vinjevold, P. (1999). Teaching and learning in South African schools. In N. Taylor & P. Vinjevold (Eds.), *Getting Learning Right: Report of the President's education initiative research project* (pp. 131-162). Johannesburg: The Joint Education Trust.

Torrance, H. (2005) in Torrance, H. and Stark, S., 'Case study'. In Somekh, B. and Lewin, C. (eds). Research methods in the social sciences. London: Sage Publications.

U.S. Bureau of the Census (Census Bureau). 1995. *Urban and rural definitions.*
http://www.census.gov/population/censusdata/urdef.txt

U.S. Bureau of the Census (Census Bureau)*.* 2001. *Census 2000 urban and rural classification.*http://www.census.gov/geo/www/ua/ua_2k.html

U.S. Bureau of the Census (Census Bureau). 2003. *About metropolitan and micropolitan statistical areas.* http://www.census.gov/population/www/estimates/aboutmetro.html

U.S. Bureau of the Census (Census Bureau). June 14, 2005. Proposed FY 2006 FMRs. Research presentation to Housing Statistics Users Group, Washington, D.C.

Van der horst, H. & Mcdonald, R. 1997. *OBE. A teacher's manual.* Pretoria. Kagiso.

Vandeyer S, Killen R 2007. Educators' conceptions and practice of classroom and practice of classroom assessment in post-apartheid era.*South AfricanJournal of Education,* 27(1): 101-115.

Wagaman, J. (2009). Understanding the Four Teaching Styles. Retrieved September 10, 2012, from http://suite101.com/article/understanding-the-four-teaching-stylesa135809

Wickham, S. & Versveld, R. 1998.. To what extent do learning materials impact upon teaching and learning practices? Paper presented at the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies held at the University of Cape Town, July 1998.

Williams, M.1998.'The Social World as Knowable'. In T.May and M.Williams (eds.),*Knowing the Social World*.Buckingham: Open University Press.

Wilson, S. M., Shulman, L.S., & Richert A. E. (1987). '150 different ways' of knowing: Representations of knowledge in teaching. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), *Exploring teachers' thinking*. (pp.104-124). London: Cassell.

Wimmer, R., & Dominick, J. (1997). *Mass media research: An introduction. Belmont, MA: Wadsworth.*

Wysocki,D.K. (2004). *Readings in social research methods* (2[nd]ed). Peking University Press.

7. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER OF PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FROM SUPERVISOR

Faculty of Education

School of Postgraduate Studies
28 Commissioner Street
East London & Stuart Hall, Alice

Phone: East London: 043704 7219| Fax: 043- 7047228
Alice: 0406022103
nsibeko@ufh.ac.za/tmalima@@ufh.ac.za

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

20 June 2011

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that Ms Lulama Zide is mEd candidate at the University of Fort Hare. Her student number is 200426966. Her research title is "Teaching strategies of teachers in two under resourced schools in the Mqanduli District." She is due to collect data during the period of June-August 2011. Kindly grant her permission.

Sincerely

Dr. N. Duku
Research Supervisor

APPENDIX B: LETTER TO THE RESPONDENTS OF SCHOOL A AND B

TO: THE RESPONDENT

SCHOOL A & B

MQANDULI DISTRICT

5080

Dear Sir/ Madam

I, Lulama Zide, an M.Ed student at the University of Fort Hare, seek your permission to involve you as a participant in this research study. The topic is about the pedagogical practices of teachers in rural under resourced schools. Your identity will be kept anonymous as pseudo names will be used to avoid any harm towards you on the contribution you will make in this study.

Your kindness in granting me the permission will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely

L. Zide

APPENDIX C: LETTER TO THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR

TO: THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR

MQANDULI DISTRICT

MTHATHA

5099

SUBJECT: Research Studies

Dear Sir/ Madam

REQUEST FOR YOUR CONSENT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN TWO SCHOOLS UNDER YOUR

DISTRICT

I, Lulama Zide, an M.Ed student at the University of Fort Hare, seek permission to conduct

research in two schools under your district, by using the teachers as participants in the study

and some school documents. I promise anonymity of the name of the school and names of

teachers will be used by following the use of pseudo names and interviews will not take

place during teaching time. My research topic is about the pedagogical practices of teachers

in rural under resourced schools.

Your kindness in granting me the permission will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely

L. Zide

APPENDIX D: LETTER TO THE CIRCUIT MANAGER

TO: THE CIRCUIT MANAGER

MQANDULI DISTRICT

MTHATHA

5099

SUBJECT: Research Studies

Dear Sir/ Madam

REQUEST FOR YOUR CONSENT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN TWO SCHOOLS UNDER YOUR

CIRCUIT

I, Lulama Zide, an M.Ed student at the University of Fort Hare, seek permission to conduct

research in two schools under your district, by using the teachers as participants in the study

and some school documents. I promise anonymity of the name of the school and names of

teachers will be used by following the use of pseudo names and interviews will not take

place during teaching time. My research topic is about the pedagogical practices of teachers

in rural under resourced schools.

Your kindness in granting me the permission will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely

L. Zide

APPENDIX E: LETTER TO SCHOOL A & B

To: The Principal (School A & B)

 Mqanduli District

5280

Subject: Research Studies

Dear Sir/ Madam

REQUEST FOR YOUR CONSENT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

I, Lulama Zide, an M.Ed student at the University of Fort Hare, seek permission to conduct research in your school by using your teachers as participants in the study and some school documents. I promise anonymity of the name of the school and names of teachers will be used by following the use of pseudo names and interviews will not take place during teaching time. My research topic is about the pedagogical practices of teachers in rural under resourced schools.

Your kindness in granting me the permission will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely

L. Zide