A RE-TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE OUTCOMES-BASED PARADIGM

by

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A

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DEDICATION

TO

Tumi and Esi Grace,

for they never saw much of me.
ABSTRACT

With the implementation of a new curriculum - Curriculum 2005 - in the South African school system, teachers have to be re-trained. This is not just to acquaint them with the new curriculum but also to develop them so that they can justify their calling as professional teachers. Thus at the end of such a re-training programme, teachers should be able to adapt their teaching methods to the dictates of the new curriculum.

The language teacher in particular is faced with a mammoth task considering the fact that South Africa now has 11 official languages. The language teacher needs to undergo an intensive re-training in second-language teaching techniques. Added to this is the multilingual nature of the classroom in which the teachers ply their trade.

This study looks at Curriculum 2005 and its origins. Attention is then focussed on teacher training especially in-service teacher education (INSET) and how teachers gain (new) knowledge and thus develop professionally. The overall aim of the study is therefore to see how ready teachers are to adjust to Curriculum 2005 and also to examine INSET in detail so as to come out with suitable suggestions on how the re-training programme should be carried out. The study ends with recommendations on steps to be taken to effectively train teachers without causing any disruption in the school system or lowering the standard of education.
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CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXT, PROBLEM AND GOAL

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the background of the research problem will be discussed and subsequently contextualised. The rationale for the research problem, the research strategies and the methodological choices are also explained. The chapter ends with an examination of the structure and course of study as well as a review of the researcher’s presuppositions and assumptions and a general overview of the chapters.

1.2 ORIENTATION

In 1997, the South African government, through its department of education, culture and sports, launched a new school plan - Curriculum 2005. The new curriculum was adapted largely from educational systems in the former British colonies especially Australia, Canada, the United States of America and New Zealand. It marks a complete departure from the present curriculum which is a content-based, examination led system. Curriculum 2005 is intended to be very practical, that is, develop skills of learners.

The purpose of the new curriculum is to break away from the past and give South African students "quality" education which will keep them abreast with the rest of the world and make them competitive in the outside world. It will also help to bridge the huge gap which existed between black and white educational systems in the apartheid era.
1.2.1 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The 1948 elections brought the National Party to power and with this came the implementation of the ideology of apartheid in South African society (Brink, 1983). During the 1950's the issue of language, which had always played an important part in the definition of Afrikaner identity, increasingly came to be identified with many of the manifestations of apartheid, especially in the educational sphere. The ‘Bantu Education Act’ of 1953 provides a vivid example of this. Hartshorne (1981) has argued that the language policy in black education in South Africa since the 1948 election (and particularly since the “Bantu Education Act”) has centred on two major issues: that of mother tongue instruction and that of the establishment of the primacy of Afrikaans as the preferred medium of instruction at the highest levels. Thus the main objective of the ‘Bantu Education Act’ was to make sure that black South Africans remain “hewers of wood and drawers of water”.

There are many well-documented instances of attempts to resist the ‘Bantu Education Act’ in the literature, but the June 1976 Soweto uprising will be mentioned here because it was a resistance to the imposition of Afrikaans as the medium of instruction in school, in other words the focus of the research is on language related issues. It all began in 1975 when the Minister of Bantu Education announced that half of the subjects in Standard 5 and Form 1 must be taught in the medium of Afrikaans. There was widespread opposition to this regulation. On June 16, 20,000 students marched through Soweto in protest against Afrikaans. The police opened fire and the students responded with violence. The uprising finally settled in 1978 but at a great human cost.

1.2.2 THE CONTEMPORARY SITUATION

Largely as a result of the 1976 Soweto uprising language policy in black education in South Africa has become somewhat more flexible in recent years. Typically, the black child begins his/her schooling in the mother tongue, which will remain the medium of
instruction through the fourth year of schooling. During these years, both English and
Afrikaans are studied as subjects. At the start of the fifth year of schooling, there is a
shift in medium of instruction to either English or Afrikaans but in reality, always to
English as Afrikaans was and still is regarded as the language of the oppressor. The
African National Congress (ANC) added its voice to the on-going language in education
debate by releasing a discussion document entitled “A policy framework for education
and training” in 1994. Language education, as well as the issue of the medium of
instruction has remained central to educational policy problems and of change.

1.3 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

In Chapter Two, it will become clear that Outcomes-based education (OBE) from which
Curriculum 2005 was adapted, is not a universally accepted educational system as its
proponents in South Africa will have the public to believe. Also, it is extremely difficult,
if not impossible to change people’s attitude and knowledge especially if it has certain
political and historical connotations. As is evident in paragraph 1.2, black education was
very inferior to that of the whites during the apartheid era. With this in mind, it is evident
that the competence of black teachers trained in that era is highly questionable and their
ability to move into a complex set of terms and constructs that constitutes OBE, may be
overrated.

In the light of the above, the research questions of this study are:

♦ How do a group of language teachers in Bushbuckridge respond in a re-training
  programme in the OBE paradigm?
♦ What are the human resource implications and who does the training?
♦ How do the teachers respond to issues such as evaluation and assessment, lesson
design and classroom management?
♦ How do the teachers feel about OBE re-training?
The possibility of further questions and perspectives arising during the course of this study is however not ruled out.

1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY

It is the overall aim of this study to identify and systematically examine the perceptions and the re-training capacity of the language teachers involved in this research about Curriculum 2005. To achieve this aim, the study will also consider the following:

♦ The readiness of the teachers to embrace the new system.
♦ The modalities that are in place to re-train teachers.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGICAL ORIENTATION

For the purposes of this research, different types of data will be collected from four language teachers in a rural Bushbuckridge school. There will also be class visits where the teachers will be observed teaching. This will be followed by a workshop where they will be exposed to the OBE concept, its origins, how it works and what will be expected of them in an OBE classroom. Both the class visits and the workshop will be recorded on video. Field notes will also be made by the researcher during these two activities. The final part of the data collection process will consist of individual interviews with the four teachers, focussing on their perceptions of OBE.

The research project will take the form of a descriptive study. The methods of data analysis to be used in this study are based on Miles & Huberman’s (1994:10) general view of qualitative data analysis. They posit that analysis consists of three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing or verification. Thus, as data collection proceeds during the study, data reductions are made in the form
of transcriptions, summaries and clustering. In the final analysis the study will, (in line with Miles & Huberman, 1994:11) look for regularities, patterns, explanations and causal flows and propositions.

1.6 THE RESEARCHER'S PRESUPPOSITIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

As the researcher is the primary tool of investigation in this study, the research reflects his values, beliefs and perspectives. Miles & Huberman (1994:8) indicate that "interpretivists of all types also insist that researchers are no more "detached" from their informants". Researchers have their own convictions, their own conceptual orientations, they are members of a particular culture at a specific historical moment. It is therefore necessary that the researcher makes mention of any presuppositions and assumptions so as to further ensure the reliability of the research and to reduce research bias. The statements below thus reflect the researcher's views regarding this study.

♦ Teachers, especially those in rural areas, will not be too keen to embrace Curriculum 2005 if it will mean "extra" work.

♦ As majority of the present day teachers and teacher trainers are themselves products of the "Bantu Education Act" their competence level is questionable - as is their ability to embrace OBE with confidence.

♦ The new system will not work, if serious attempts are not made first of all, to change the orientation of the average black child who is still assumed to believe that education has no value.

♦ Whereas competency can easily be measured in a technical or vocational field, it cannot be that easily measured in a purely academic environment especially when there are no serious checks and balances in place to stop cheating.
1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of this study are varied and may be viewed from different perspectives. An important limitation, however, is that it is a small monographic study taking place in a rural area and therefore can not be directly generalised. A further limitation is the fact that the study was conducted by a neophyte researcher. Inexperience can lead to the emergence of countless unintentional errors being made throughout the research process. However, reflection upon these errors may provide opportunities for gaining further insight into and an understanding of the research process. The findings reached in this study are therefore at best tentative without further corroboration, challenging and substantiation.

1.8 GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

The following is a summary of the stages of the inquiry as they are set out in the research report.

In Chapter One an explanation of the background, context, research problems and aim is presented along with the research methodology and the researcher’s assumptions and presuppositions.

In Chapter Two, Outcomes-Based Education is examined with particular reference to its origins and development. Also the South African National Qualifications Framework and the proposed norms and standards for teacher education are examined.

In Chapter Three, attention will be focussed on teacher training with particular emphasis on in-service teacher training. Also to be considered is teacher knowledge, teacher development and applications of Vygotsky’s work pertaining to the field of education.
In Chapter Four the research design and the research methods are explicated.

In Chapter Five the processed data are described and interpreted against the theoretical background. The validity of the study is also discussed and recommendations are made.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the context and rationale of the study. The research problem was presented from which the aims of the study were stated. An orientation to the research methodology was provided, which focussed on the methods of data collection, data analysis and conclusion drawing.
CHAPTER TWO

OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION, THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK AND THE PROPOSED NORMS AND STANDARDS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

It was indicated in the previous chapter that Curriculum 2005 was adapted from what is known elsewhere as OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (OBE). This chapter therefore begins with a look at OBE, its origins, development and opposition to it. The National Qualifications Framework and the proposed Norms and Standards for Teacher Education in South Africa, which are some of the modalities being put in place to create equity in the educational system, are also discussed.

2.2 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (OBE)

Outcomes-based Education (OBE) is a student centred, results-oriented design premised on the belief that all individuals can learn. That is, if they are given enough time, proper guidance and encouragement. It is therefore a commitment to the success of every learner, a process of continuous improvement and a philosophy which focuses educational choices on the needs of each learner.

In terms of OBE, what a student is to achieve is clearly identified, his/her progress is based on demonstrated achievement. The student’s needs are accommodated through multiple instructional strategies and assessment tools. Each student is provided time and assistance to realise his/her potential. For an educational system to be identified as OBE, it must have the following characteristics among others:

- It should be future oriented, publicly defined, learner centred, focussed on life skills and context characterised by high expectations of and for all learners and should have sources from which all other educational decisions flow. (Department of Education, 1996).
The proponents of OBE posit that today technology, societal change and a global focus characterise our world and by the time our children enter the job market more than half of today’s jobs will no longer exist and new jobs will have taken their place - so we need to change to OBE in order to get our children ready for the task ahead, that is, a structure for learning designed for simpler times will no longer suffice. This is actually very true. In the previous chapter, it was indicated that black students revolted against the ‘Bantu Education Act’ because it was inferior to what their white counter-parts were receiving. Their fears have proved to be very adequate in the ‘new’ South Africa. There are many “qualified” blacks who can not get work because they are just not competent to do the jobs they claim to have been trained to do. Even the ANC led government of national unity’s affirmative action programme, which is aimed at giving the previously disadvantaged communities a chance to become economically viable, has not helped much in this direction. And this is exactly what is happening in the teaching field; there are many so called qualified teachers on the street but they are ‘unemployable’ because of their inferior training and apparent lack of competence (The Star, 1995).

OBE is deemed to be a process congruent with the public’s current and future demands of high expectations for all learners. It is a process of partnership among all parties who need and expect productive learning and a means of fulfilling the promise of public education to build the future by preparing every learner today (Meyer, 1996).

To begin OBE, schools have to make a commitment to educational improvement which is learner-centred and results-oriented. This process begins by identifying a common set of educational beliefs held by all stakeholders: educators, learners, parents and the community. These beliefs will drive the process to a definition of what outcomes learners should accomplish in their preparation for the future and what processes need to be in place to ensure achievement.

Marzano et al. (1993) maintain that when considering the most effective process for assessing student’s learning and progress towards established outcomes, the following key questions must be addressed.

♦ Does assessment focus on what is important, what is of value, and what students will need to succeed in future?
• Does the assessment process serve students by giving them useful information that will make a meaningful difference to them?

• Are assessment results being used fairly, meaningfully, and in a manner that empowers students?

• Does the assessment process incorporate multiple strategies that encourage students to demonstrate learning and outcomes through a variety of acceptable means?

An authentic task and an authentic assessment provide an outcome-based system for evaluating student learning that effectively addresses all these questions. An authentic task consists of student-centred activities that focus on content and skills that are useful in real life. This involves the acquisition of knowledge and those skills. It therefore serves simultaneously as both instructional and assessment tools, providing a direct link between what is taught and what is assessed. Authentic assessment also consists of various performance-based methods of measuring and reporting the degree to which students demonstrate significant learning results related to content and skills that are useful in real life. It in fact uses authentic tasks to assess how well students are achieving learning outcomes and utilizing complex thinking skills to achieve those outcomes.

In an OBE system, students are assigned grades on the basis of demonstrated achievement rather than the amount of material covered during a grading period. There are three types of authentic assessments - multiple validations, portfolios and secured tasks - and evidence of achievement from all three must be used to determine grades (Pastoll, 1993).

2.3 APPROACHES TO OBE

People are drawn to OBE in different ways and with different understandings of its potential applications and implications for curriculum design, instructional delivery, learner assessment and the awarding of credentials. OBE can be characterised as Traditional, Transitional and Transformational (Spady & Marshall, 1991:68-72).
2.3.1 TRADITIONAL OBE

This version is not radically outcomes-based because the starting point is in most cases the existing curriculum from which outcomes are derived. This approach is also termed curriculum-based objectives (CBO). Outcomes are synonymous with traditional, content-dominated categories that do not relate to real-life demands and living experiences. There is no clear concept of the learner as a total person. This is because there is no clear link between the learner's performance and the socialisation process which the learner has undergone. Traditional OBE limits the demonstration of competence to small segments of instruction in much the same way that a subject teacher would formulate lesson objectives based on content. Thus traditional OBE is characterised by the following shortcomings:

- demonstration of competence is limited to small segments of instruction;
- the performance context is assumed to be classroom or school;
- the curriculum is only loosely aligned with exit outcomes at the final exit point and these outcomes tend to be narrow in scope;
- it does not challenge the time frame of learning.

2.3.2 TRANSITIONAL OBE

It lies in the twilight zone between the traditional subject-matter curriculum structures and planning processes and the Transformational OBE. This approach gives priority to higher-level competencies, such as critical thinking, effective communication, technological applications and complex problem solving, rather than particular kinds of knowledge or information. Broad attitudinal, affective, motivational and relational qualities or orientations are also emphasised. Transitional OBE is much like the general aims of the current syllabuses if they were to be expressed as outcomes.

2.3.3 TRANSFORMATIONAL OBE

This is a collaborative, flexible, transdisciplinary, outcome-based, open-system, empowerment-orientated approach to learning. It equips all learners with the knowledge, competence, and
orientations needed for success after they leave school. Hence, its guiding vision of the school leaving learner is that of a competent future citizen. Success in school is of limited benefit unless learners are equipped to transfer that success to life in a complex, challenging, high-tech frame. Transformational OBE correlates very closely with the concept of a goal in content syllabuses. The difference however is that the social processes which impact on and develop through learning are taken cognisance of. Thus, given the attempts by the department of education to transform the South African society into a just and equitable one, it becomes imperative that transformational OBE is the ideal form of OBE to adapt (Spady & Marshall, 1991).

2.4 OPPOSITION TO OBE

The general picture that has been painted by the proponents of the new curriculum is that it has been very successful in the countries in which it has been implemented, but articles by Pliska & McQuaide (1994:66-69), and McGhan (1994:70-72) reveal that OBE has not received universal acceptance in those countries. For instance in the USA, vociferous leaders - both professional and laymen and especially church leaders - have been reported to have made startling accusations about school reform. Some of the concerns raised are that the outcomes had included affective aspects because certain affective traits had been identified as important outcomes for school graduates. They also charged that OBE was an attempt to revive a previously reserved assessment policy. Another concern raised was that the databases would collect information on children and their families. Teachers on their part raised the following concerns:

♦ How would the proposed outcomes framework affect programme development and job security for teachers?
♦ How will OBE affect teacher preparation, certification and staffing?
♦ How will high school programmes in one district be compared to high school programmes in another district? (Manno, 1995:720-726).

The misgivings raised above are no doubt quite serious but as they seem to be country specific one does not need to worry too much about the effect it will have on South Africa. The questions raised by the teachers however need very serious attention in South Africa. For instance, certain teacher organisations are opposed to panel inspection and teacher preparation so if it is reintroduced they will most definitely oppose and even try to sabotage the implementation of
Curriculum 2005. Also, there are already many unemployed teachers, which means that if the implementation of the new curriculum will lead to further retrenchment then it would definitely be resisted.

Another issue for serious consideration is confusion brought by the 1996 matriculation examination. That is, in 1996 it was decided that for the first time in the history of South Africa all the various education departments which existed in the past should merge and all matriculants should write one examination. Furthermore, each province was expected to conduct its own examination. The aftermath of this is still being felt. There was a large scale leakage of questions. It was even alleged in some quarters that questions and memoranda could be obtained on the Internet. As if that was not enough, the marking process was even more chaotic. These ranged from markers in the North West Province embarking on a strike action to protest against the preferential treatment being given to white markers, to the dismissal of all markers in the Northern Province because according to the MEC for Education many of them were just not qualified to be markers. To cap it all, almost a year after the examination, some students are still awaiting their results. With these in mind, the last concern raised by the teachers should not be taken lightly. The good point however is that since curriculum 2005 is actually taken from different countries, one only hopes such misgivings will not arise here. The complex set of terms and constructs could, however, make understanding of the underlying epistemology difficult (Pausen, 1997).

2.5 THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATION FRAMEWORK (NQF)

The National Qualification Framework (NQF) is a new approach to structuring education and training and awarding certification. It is based on the principles of equity, quality, redress and access to learning opportunities. The NQF thus aims to close the gap between education and training and to establish life-long learning opportunities and structures. In 1995 the South Africa Qualifications Authority (SAQA) was given the power by Parliament to set up the NQF. The NQF was established to enable clients to quickly and inexpensively:

- access information about the standards and qualifications developed in other countries which have implemented Qualifications Frameworks;
- develop the capacity to implement the NQF in their organisations; and,
• acquire or develop or adapt programmes of learning, to enable learners to achieve unit standards and qualifications in the fields of learning in their sector (HSRC: 1995).

SAQA and the NQF will be a foundation for a system of education and training which will be designed to let learners earn credits towards national qualifications through a range of providers of learning. A single qualifications system will streamline the current array of qualifications and integrate traditional secondary education, industry training and tertiary education into a seamless system. It will thus:

• bring together the variety of qualifications already in existence;
• provide a structure onto which new qualifications can be added;
• ensure that all existing and new national qualifications are based on standards which have been defined as clearly as possible, and
• ensure international education and business networks and opportunities can be developed now and in the future (HSRC: 1995).

The system will recognise competence, no matter how or where it is gained. The emphasis will be on what a learner knows and can do, rather than on how long it takes to complete a programme of learning. Competence or competency is essentially an abstract concept. It can be defined and measured only through behaviour or performance. Competency can be used in a variety of contexts, each of which suggest a different meaning or connotation. Some of the various usages of competency are:

• the core competence of the organisation in the context to strategy and organisational design
• competence-based qualifications such as the English and Scottish National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and the Australian and New Zealand Qualifications systems. Thus the South African NQF is a competency-based system
• competencies for the assessment of potential and managerial development form the basis of assessment and learning centre technology. (HSRC: 1995)
Some aspects of the NQF policy document however need to be reconsidered. For instance, it is claimed that overseas workers coming to South Africa will be able to have their qualifications assessed for equivalence against South African qualifications registered on the NQF. The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) is currently performing that task. Does it mean that South Africa will now have two different evaluation boards for expatriates and also for South Africans trained abroad?

Another issue of concern is that some learners may take longer than others to achieve credit. However, as long as the outcomes are satisfactorily met, credit should be awarded regardless of the time a learner takes to demonstrate competence. One wonders whether this will not lead to laziness on the part of some learners. Furthermore, it is claimed that traditionally the education sector has relied on the professionalism of its staff, external inspection and examinations to maintain the quality of its services. This reliance on externalised quality control is outmoded, expensive and has in any case largely broken down in south Africa. The question is, is the new system going to be any cheaper and how is it going to ‘mend’ the broken down system?

To ensure that providers of learning are maintaining the quality of registered unit standards and qualifications, SAQA will accredit Education and Training Quality Assurers (ETQAs) to oversee the implementation of the new system. The final form of ETQAs is yet to be decided but the quality assurance system implemented by providers of learning under their auspices will include a process of accreditation, a process of moderation and a radical revision of assessment systems including the registration of assessors (Phillips, 1996).

2.6 THE PROPOSED NORMS AND STANDARDS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

For the successful implementation of Curriculum 2005 to take place, a new teacher education programme has to be introduced and also serving teacher have to be retrained. Thus on the 8th of September 1995, a national policy for teacher education was declared by the Minister of Education, Professor S.M.E. Bengu. The Norms and Standards provide broad guidelines within which each teacher education institution can develop its own teacher education curriculum. The document was presented to the Committee for Teacher Education Policy (COTEP) in February
1996. It states among others that as far as competency-based teacher education is concerned, few have had experience of this approach, so teacher educators will be learning together. Thus all teacher education institutions (colleges, universities, technikons and NGOS) will co-operate with one another and learn from one another as teacher education is reconstructed in South Africa. With time, the present Norms and Standards for Teacher Education will have to be re-written in terms of the NQF when it is finalised. This will obviously take some time, so in the meantime, teacher educators will have the opportunity of workshopping the competences and deciding for themselves the nature of competences and outcomes and the form that level descriptors should take. Teacher educators must therefore see the Norms and Standards as part of a development process in which they have a vital part to play.

The most obvious shortcoming of the document is that it does not mention any plans for the re-training of teachers. The point here is that, in-coming teachers will have enough opportunity to be trained but existing teachers need urgent attention if the system is to work. As already pointed out, teachers are generally assumed not to be all that competent, so efforts have to be made to firstly bring them up to date before introducing them to the new system. The research questions posed in this investigation includes this aspect. Practising teachers can not be assumed to be capable of this fundamental change.

2.7 CONCLUSION

Outcomes-based education has not been totally accepted in those countries in which it originated and it has not proved to be an answer to the educational problems of those countries, so the educational authorities in South Africa would be unwise to think or expect Curriculum 2005 to be accepted here without some resistance. Also, it should not be seen as an answer to all educational problems inherited from the apartheid era. For instance, efforts have to be made to make sure that future matriculation examinations do not go the way of the 1996 examinations. Furthermore, the National Qualifications Framework still has a long way to go to bring equity to the society. With regards to the Norms and Standards for Teacher Education, it raises more questions that it really answers: How do ‘incompetent’ teachers train people to become ‘competent’?
CHAPTER THREE

TEACHER EDUCATION, TEACHER KNOWLEDGE AND TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The successful implementation of Curriculum 2005 in the South African school system will depend to a large extent on how readily and rapidly teachers accept and adapt to it. To do this, teachers have to be retrained in both thinking and doing, or epistemology and methodology of OBE. This chapter therefore begins with teacher education, especially in-service teacher education. Also to be considered is competency-based teacher education and aspects on how teachers acquire ‘new’ knowledge and actually develop. Attention will also be paid to aspects of Vygotsky’s work, especially his views on the relationship between language and thought and the general applications of his work to the field of education. The chapter ends with a comparison of the relationship between students and teachers in a traditional classroom and what is expected of both teachers and students in an outcomes-based classroom.

3.2 TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education or teacher development can be considered in three phases: pre-service, induction and in-service. While the education of professionals like medical doctors, engineers and agronomists, is to a great extent basically similar all over the world, the nature of teacher education, often limited to teacher training, is strongly dependent on the level of economic development and social context. Furthermore, it is deeply influenced by the local culture and history. That is why one can find in the contemporary world the full range of institutional teacher-education schemes or programmes that developed throughout the history of humankind, from no specific preparation at all to sophisticated university education (Alexander, 1979).
3.2.1 COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

Competency-based teacher education is a reaction against the shortcomings of traditional teacher education trends in which concepts were studied as theories, without sufficient focus on procedural knowledge or skills, and pragmatic or contextual knowledge. A competency-based programme specifies the competencies to be demonstrated by the student-teacher, and makes explicit the criteria to be applied in assessing the student’s competencies. At the end of such a programme, the critical success criterion is not the achievement on essay or oral examination, but mainly the students’ ability to do the job for which he or she is preparing. The obvious advantages of this approach are: functional learning, clarity of objectives, easiness of modular individualized instruction, and a more objective evaluation. However, the danger of this system is that it can be rather mechanistic, that its content and construct validity is not easy to establish. Furthermore, it can be feared that in a rapidly changing culture, the teacher could lack flexibility and transferability in new unexpected educational situations (Sandefur & Nicklas, 1981).

3.2.2 IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

The abbreviation INSET is widely used to refer to the in-service education and training of teachers. Two types of definition are in common use: official and functional. The official definition comprises all activities supported by INSET budgets. In practice, this can mislead even the officials who use it, because the budget rarely accounts for the total cost. The teaching may be conducted by teacher educators, inspectors, or teachers whose salaries are paid by other budgets. Thus, financial arrangements often reflect the somewhat marginal role allocated to INSET by educational planners and policymakers. Greenland (1983) divides INSET into the following four categories:

- INSET for unqualified teachers (mainly certification courses);
- INSET to upgrade teachers;
- INSET to prepare for new roles, such as principal or teacher educator;
- Curriculum-related INSET (mainly courses linked to planned curriculum change or ad hoc refresher courses)
The most widely used functional definition of INSET is that developed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) project which characterised INSET as:

Those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals, following their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively (Bolam, 1982:3)

This definition includes activities which are not courses and which are not officially funded, but still requires that INSET is the main intention. However, teachers also learn a great deal from participation in activities such as curriculum development which would not be classified under INSET. Participation in these activities will be accommodated under the heading "staff development", in other words, that dimension of school life which concerns the professional learning of staff.

3.2.3 THE IDENTIFICATION AND PRIORITIZATION OF INSET NEEDS

The prevailing view that INSET planning should be based on assessment of need poses more questions than it provides answers. Whose needs are to be addressed - those of a particular group of pupils, an individual teacher, a department within a school, the school itself, the district or even the nation? Moreover, who will be making the assessment? One clear finding of research is that, if INSET participants do not recognise a need as having sufficient priority for them, activities aimed at meeting that need will be judged irrelevant. Yet it would be undemocratic if teachers were to be regarded as the sole definers of INSET needs without considering the views of other members of society. This suggests two possible strategies for INSET managers: (a) considerable effort is devoted before or during INSET to convincing participants of the importance of certain needs, or (b) the needs assessment process is decentralized so that schools and teachers define their own needs, with some safeguard to ensure that views of other groups are taken into account.

Devolution of the needs assessment process, however, is no guarantee that it will be properly conducted. Logically, to define a need implies: (a) some view of the current situation, and (b) aspirations for or expectations of, a future situation that is different. The quality of the needs assessment will depend on both these factors. For example, a persons’s view of the current situation will comprise:
(a) Information about content, conditions, process activities, intentions and outcomes;
(b) Standards, values and criteria by which these are judged; and
(c) Frameworks and perspectives which determine how it is interpreted and understood (Eraut, 1989a).

Such a view may be constructed from existing perceptions with little further inquiry or reflection. On the other hand, there may be considerable effort to go beyond first thoughts by collecting new information and becoming more aware of the perspectives and interpretations, and reflecting more on this evidence and underpinning educational values. This process would itself be a process of staff development.

Similarly, thinking about the future must necessarily involve the following:

(a) some awareness of alternatives to current policy and practice,
(b) some assessment of the feasibility of these options, and
(c) some evaluation of the desirability of options and their anticipated outcomes (Eraut, 1989a)

Once again, such thinking is enhanced by INSET, particularly by the kind of intelligence gathering mentioned above. The dangers are that awareness of alternatives will remain rather superficial and that significant changes will be prematurely dismissed as impractical without serious study.

### 3.2.4 SCHOOL SELF-REVIEW

Bollen & Hopkins (1987) argue that school self-review is a necessary but not sufficient condition for school improvement, and that developing school’s capability for self-review should be a priority for human resource development programmes. However, this argument does not prevent schools without such capability from formulating school INSET plans in a more pragmatic, though probably less effective, way. Ongoing monitoring by teachers and awareness of innovations and practice elsewhere are capable of generating more needs than many schools are able to fulfil. Schools in the United Kingdom are becoming accustomed to producing development plans for their governors and for internal planning of change. They also are required
to produce INSET plans in order to get government funds to support their INSET programmes. These plans play an important role in determining and co-ordinating INSET activities at a time when there is an exceptionally high level of externally mandated change.

3.2.5 INDIVIDUAL TEACHER NEEDS

School INSET plans also have to take into account individual needs, which in the United Kingdom are identified through school-based systems of teacher appraisal. The central purpose of such appraisal is professional development, and targets are jointly agreed and/or reviewed on each occasion (Bradley, 1991). These targets may relate to classroom strategies, wider school roles, or career development. Part of the “bargain” is the provision of support, including if necessary the use of some of the school’s own INSET funds.

It is important that this support is not just short-term and instrumental in nature. Teachers also need encouragement to participate in external professional meetings in order to widen their horizons, stimulate their thinking, and prevent the school from becoming too insular. On the whole, the privacy of an appraisal interview appears to offer a better context for the expression of need than a more public school self-review, however, more evidence is needed to confirm this hypothesis. Whatever the system, the crucial question still remains to be answered: under what conditions and circumstances will teachers diagnose their own learning needs, engage in the collection of evidence to deepen that diagnosis, or agree with a diagnosis made by another person?

3.3 TEACHER KNOWLEDGE

One of the more critical developments in educational research during the 1980s and 1990s has been an attempt to characterize the nature of teachers’ professional knowledge to study how it gets used (Eraut, 1995). As a result, the problems facing the INSET designer can now be better understood. For any practical situation there is a large amount of potentially relevant theoretical knowledge which can contribute to its understanding; however, its relevance may not become apparent until it has become part of each teacher’s conceptual framework. In other words,
theory acquires relevance through use, and use involves thought and discussion in periods of time set aside for that purpose.

On the other hand, practical knowledge is partly tacit in nature, and is not easily articulated or explained. Some INSET goals can not be achieved by words alone, as teachers have to experience and do things for themselves. The concomitant problem is that what teachers do is unlikely to be fully understood and only partly under their critical control. Thus, if INSET is to develop new and valid practice, it will have to combine the use of theoretical and practical knowledge in some kind of dialogical relationship, involving close linkage between off-the-job reflection and ongoing classroom experience. Below are models of professional learning developed as responses to the problems discussed above:

3.3.1 JOYCE & SHOWERS’ APPROACH TO SKILL DEVELOPMENT

Joyce & Shower’s (1988) approach was designed to expand teachers’ repertoires by teaching them new teaching techniques such as inquiry teaching, higher order questioning, or groupwork. Although they identify five essential components of their model, the model’s most distinctive feature is a substantial period of off-the-job practical training (not dissimilar to that used in microteaching) followed by transfer into normal classroom supported by coaching. The contribution to learning of each component is clearly explained.

(a) An exploration of theory through discussions, readings and lectures is necessary for understanding the rationale. “Study of theory facilitates skill acquisition by increasing one’s discrimination of the demonstrations, by providing a mental image of guide practice and clarify feedback, and by promoting the attainment of executive control” (p.68).

(b) The demonstration or modelling of skills through video, or live in the training setting. There are advantages in interweaving the theory and demonstration components, as each facilitates the understanding of the other.

(c) Practice under simulated conditions, teaching either a group of peers or small groups of children. For a technique of medium complexity, this practice requires 20 to 25 trials over a period of 8 to 10 weeks in a setting which approximates the normal workplace.

(d) Feedback can be provided by peers under guidance, once the model has been understood.
Audio or video recording is desirable, and feedback should be as soon as possible after practice.

(e) Coaching provides continuing support during the difficult process of transferring acquired skills into the normal classroom setting.

Joyce & Showers refer to their final goal as not just the use of new skills in the classroom, but the acquisition of "executive control", which is defined as "the consistent and appropriate use of new skills and strategies for classroom instruction" (1988 p. 68). They expect flexibility in multiple situations, not the delivery of blueprint. Coaching must be attached to a proper training programme and should remain under its overall guidance even when most of it is provided by peers. Thus the transfer of training, supported by coaching, is seen as the experimental component of a period of continuous study. Interaction between theory and practice takes place throughout the programme.

3.3.2 REFLECTIVE MODELS

While Joyce & Showers' model can be seen as a method of introducing into techniques and approaches whose credibility derives from research, reflective models aim to build on teachers' own experience by increasing their capacity to learn from it. They are a deliberate attempt to counteract the "dailiness" of teaching by encouraging teachers to attend to different features and seek new information about the flow of classroom events, then put aside time to reflect upon it and discuss it with others. As Schulz (1967) has noted, an "act of attention" is required to distinguish an "experience" from the flow of life in order that it can be reflected upon. Furthermore, a reflective glance may penetrate more or less deeply depending on its models, therefore are highly dependent on teachers' willingness to attend, to reflect, and to take greater control over their practice.

Reflective models have received considerable impetus from research into teachers' thinking which has presented an increasingly sophisticated account of teachers' professional knowledge, much of which has been found to be tacit and intuitive. Classroom behaviour is characterized
by routines interspersed with rapid intuitive decisions which require instant interpretations of the
developing situation and almost immediate responses. The appropriateness of such decisions can
only be considered during reflection after the event, if there is the time and the will to do it. The
argument as to why teachers should engage in reflection is essentially moral, and is derived from
teachers’ responsibility for the progress and well-being of the students in their classes. This
argument is underpinned by a particular view of teachers’ professionalism and accountability.
Thus, Eraut (1995) argues that being a professional teacher implies:

(a) A moral commitment to serve the interests of students on their well-being and their
progress and deciding how best it can be fostered or promoted;

(b) A professional obligation to review periodically the nature and effectiveness of one’s
practice in order to improve the quality of one’s management, pedagogy, and decision-

(c) A professional obligation to continue to develop one’s practical knowledge both by
personal reflection and through interaction with others.

Although there is considerable debate about how these goals can best be promoted, it is possible
to describe the range of practices which have been tried in terms of their experiential and
reflective components. The experiences to be reflected upon may be based on either (1) normal
occurrences in a teacher’s own classroom, possibly enhanced by the collection of more
information than usual (e.g., recordings, children’s views, observations by a colleague, analysis
of children’s work): or (2) changes or experiments and their effects. The reflection which
follows may include (3) a discussion of the above, possibly aided by questions or issues
previously agreed; and/or, (4) action-planning for some modified practice or experiment. Finally,
the whole process may be supported by, (5) readings to illuminate (or divert?) The discussion,
and/or, (6) an internal or external consultant as a facilitator and/or resource person.

According to the context, the combination of (1) and (3) has been described as mutual
observation peer-assisted review, self-evaluation, or even needs assessment. The sequence (1),
(2), (4), (2), (3) is often described as ‘action research”, although Elliot (1991) raises the question
of whether the starting point should not be (2) rather than (1). In this, he refers to two rather
different accounts of how teachers might reflectively develop their practices:
(a) The teacher undertakes research into a practical problem and to this basis changes some aspects of his or her teaching. The development of understanding precedes the decision to change teaching strategies. In other words, reflection initiates action.

(b) The teacher changes some aspect of his or her teaching in response to a practical problem and then self-monitors its effectiveness in resolving it. Through the evaluation the teacher’s initial understanding of the problem is modified and changed. The decision to adopt a change strategy therefore precedes the development of understanding. Action initiates reflection (Elliot 1991 p. 23).

Elliot adds that the first account may constitute “a projection of academic bias into the study of teachers’ thinking,” while the second “may reflect the natural logic of practical thinking more accurately” (1991 p. 23). Another interpretation might be that the first account is more typical of a deliberately created action research group or project (Stuart 1991), the second of ongoing reflective practice by individual teachers who have developed a strong self-monitoring capability. Research on reflective models gives little guidance on the relative effectiveness of these different approaches, but consistently draws attention to the enabling or disabling effect of school management and ethos. The main personal barriers to participation appear to be the commitment of time and the loss of self-esteem which accompanies initial confrontation with new evidence from one’s own classroom. Appropriate support can help overcome these problems, where the teacher accepts the underpinning view of teacher professionalism.

Eraut (1989b) has argued that while reflection at the level of self-monitoring is an ongoing professional obligation, reflection at the level of self-review ought to be treated more as a periodic activity. It is unrealistic to expect major changes in classroom practice to arise from waves of innovation, inadequately resourced for INSET support, or an accumulation of small adjustments triggered by school-based staff development and an appraisal system. Continual disturbance may accurately lower the quality of teaching by reducing teachers’ sense of efficacy and allowing too little time for any specific change to take root. The question arises as to whether it would not be better to build periods of self-renewal into the professional life cycle of teachers, so that every 5-10 years they engage with a few colleagues in a period of reflection and action research with proper support. Such a strategy would make sense to teachers, establish
such interludes as a normal part of professional life, and focus support structures more effectively on teacher development.

### 3.3.3 PROJECT-BASED MODELS

Project-based models originated within advanced courses provided by higher education. These are best placed within the Human Resource Development approach to in-service education, since most participants are preparing to take up more senior positions at school or district level, or posts in teacher education. The types of projects used in such courses range from research into classroom events or institutional problems, though evaluations of courses, materials or policies, to design or development work. Relevant theory and research are required, and the quality of analysis is what a university would expect.

The primary goal is to develop the students' capacity to work independently and collaboratively as reflective professionals, a goal which is supported not only by their own project experience but by accompanying discussion, comparison, and contrast with accounts in the literature and the work of their fellow-students. A secondary goal is to make a positive contribution to students' own institutions, which helps to sustain their support for the course. Some far-seeing schools see it as a cheap form of consultancy! While some universities place projects at the end of courses, others construct courses around a series of projects, which are informed by and fed onto ongoing seminar discussions.

Project-work of this kind is chosen by teachers and combines a high degree of authenticity with a more rigorous analysis than is commonly found in schools. Not only does it prepare people for leadership roles but it improves the general quality of professional work (Vulliamy & Webb 1991). Experience of supporting such projects also improves the knowledge-base of the university, leading to better consultancy services and improved teaching and research.
3.3.4 DOMAINS OF TEACHER KNOWLEDGE

The teacher’s knowledge has also been examined in terms of its domains, its forms or structures and its relation to classroom practice. A number of researchers have proposed frameworks for domains of teacher knowledge (Carter, 1990; Leinhardt & Smith, 1985 and Wilson et al., 1987). Although represented as discrete domains in these frameworks, the knowledge domains are usually regarded as interwoven in practice. One possible typology of teacher knowledge includes six domains:

(a) Knowledge of content
(b) Knowledge of learners
(c) Knowledge of general pedagogy
(d) Knowledge of curriculum
(e) Knowledge of context
(f) Knowledge of self

Content knowledge includes both subject matter knowledge and more explicitly “pedagogical content knowledge”. Knowledge of learners and learning includes knowledge of learning theories; the physical, social, psychological and cognitive development of students; motivational theory and practice; and ethnic, socioeconomic and gender diversity among students. Knowledge of general pedagogy includes knowledge of classroom organisation and management, and general methods of teaching. Curricular knowledge includes knowledge both of the processes of curriculum development and of the school curriculum within and across grade levels.

Knowledge of context includes knowledge of the multiple and embedded situations and settings within which teachers work, including the school, district or area, and state or region. It also includes teachers’ knowledge of their students and their families, as well as the local community. Knowledge of self includes teachers’ knowledge of their personal values, disposition, strengths and weaknesses and their educational philosophy, goal for students and purposes for teaching.

All of these domains are important to the work of teachers, but research has however concentrated on content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of self. For instance, much research within educational psychology has focussed on topics related to learners and learning but few studies have looked at what teachers know or believe.
3.3.5 KNOWLEDGE OF CONTENT

Knowledge of subject matter seems intuitively important for good teaching but early correlational research did not find a relationship between teachers' knowledge and student achievement. Later researchers critiqued the lack of conceptual frameworks to guide this early work and turned their attention to the relationships between teachers' subject matter knowledge and the processes of planning and instruction. This suggests that teachers' knowledge of the content they teach affects both what teachers teach and how they teach it.

In developing curriculum for students, teachers are likely to emphasize those areas in which they are more knowledgeable and to avoid or de-emphasize the areas in which they have relatively less content knowledge (Carlsen 1991, Smith & Neadle, 1991). Teachers' content knowledge may also influence how they exploit the curriculum potential of a subject (Gudmundsdottir, 1990). For example, studies of secondary-school social studies teachers have demonstrated how teachers' own disciplinary backgrounds affect how they adapt a given curriculum to match their own disciplinary knowledge (Wilson & Wineburg, 1988).

Teachers' content knowledge also influences their interactive teaching. Their knowledge of subject matter affects how they represent the nature of knowing within a content area to their students. Ball (1991), for instance, demonstrated that teachers with relatively weak conceptual understanding of mathematics are likely to represent the nature of mathematical knowing as arbitrary and rule bound.

Their content knowledge also influences their ability to construct new explanations or activities for students, as well as the kinds of questions they ask students (Carlsen, 1991). In fact, teachers' pedagogical content knowledge is related to their planning and to classroom practice. Most researchers found a great deal of congruence between teachers' own conceptions of the purposes for teaching a subject and their instructional practice, especially in the case of experienced teachers (Peterson et al., 1991).
Knowledge of general pedagogy includes knowledge about classroom organisation and management, general knowledge of lesson structure, and general methods of teaching. Successful classroom managers are teachers who are more attuned to students' signals and conscious of the overall flow and purpose of classroom activity (Carter, 1990). In addition, effective teachers swiftly establish routines for classroom activities at the beginning of the school year (Leinhardt et al., 1987).

Related to work on teachers' routines is teachers' general knowledge of lesson structure, which includes the knowledge necessary to plan and teach lessons, to make smooth a transition between different components of a lesson, and to present clear explanations of content. While this kind of knowledge has been designated as general, it is possible that knowledge of lesson structure is implicitly tied to the content to be taught.

Relatively little work has investigated teachers' knowledge of various instructional strategies or methods of teaching. One line of correlational research on teaching has attempted to isolate general teaching strategies used by effective teachers (Brophy & Good, 1986). While this research has produced a set of generalizations about the correlations between particular teaching behaviours and student achievement, it did not investigate what teachers knew or believed that led them to adopt such strategies.

Some researchers have argued that teachers' knowledge of teaching methods is organised into curriculum scripts for particular topics (Putnam, 1987), with both the content and method of teaching included in these scripts. The European tradition of "Didaktik" also emphasizes the integration of curriculum and method in teacher thinking (Hopmann, 1990). Knowledge of teaching methods may be filtered through teachers' understanding of the particular content to be taught and their own goals for teaching that content, suggesting an overlap between pedagogical content knowledge and this aspect of general pedagogical knowledge.
3.3.7 KNOWLEDGE OF SELF

Knowledge of self is an important facet of teachers' practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1983). The knowledge of self includes teachers' awareness of their own values, goals, philosophies, styles, personal characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses as they relate to teaching. Lampert (1985) describes how teachers draw upon and use this personal knowledge to negotiate classroom dilemmas and to reflect upon their practice.

Knowledge of self differs in important ways from the knowledge domains discussed above as it represents neither theoretical nor abstract knowledge but a more personal and inevitably idiosyncratic domain. Work on many domains of teacher knowledge suggests that abstract or theoretical knowledge about teaching is filtered through teachers' own values, goals, and personal philosophies, leading some researchers to argue that all aspects of teacher knowledge are grounded in personal perspectives and experience (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987). This line of research suggests the importance of individual biography in the process of teaching and learning to teach.

3.3.8 TEACHER KNOWLEDGE IN RELATION TO CLASSROOM PRACTICE

Researchers have argued about the various forms of teachers' knowledge; some researchers argue for the need for generalizable knowledge of principles of teaching and learning, while others contend that teachers' knowledge is inherently situational and personal, stored in the tacit forms of metaphors or images or the more explicit forms of stories or cases. In describing different potential forms of teachers' knowledge, Bruner (1986) makes a distinction between paradigmatic and narrative ways of knowing to describe at least two general forms of teacher knowledge.

Paradigmatic ways of knowing emphasize generalizable laws and principles applicable across a wide variety of contexts. Knowledge within the natural sciences has been described as paradigmatic knowledge. In contrast, narrative ways of knowing are more contextualized and situation-specific. Research on teaching has experienced a shift from the search for paradigmatic knowledge to an interest in narrative knowledge, a shift that has affected research on teacher knowledge. (See also Swart, 1994.)
3.4 TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Teacher development is the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically. Little (1992) notes that teacher development is marked by four types of growth: growth in knowledge, growth in skill, growth in judgement (all of which are classroom related) and growth in the contributions teachers make to a professional community.

Leithwood (1992) posits six increasingly complex levels of such development:
(a) developing skills
(b) becoming competent in the basic skills of teaching
(c) expanding one's instructional flexibility
(d) acquiring instructional expertise
(e) contributing to the professional growth of colleagues
(f) exercising leadership and participating in decision-making.

Obviously there is a value judgement implicit in Leithwood's analysis, namely, that professional development finds its highest expression in the exercise of leadership. Not all teachers share that value, since many expert teachers seem satisfied to devote all their energies to teaching. There are three factors which seem to influence teacher development, namely those involving the teacher as a person, those relating to the content in which the teacher lives and works, and those involving specific interventions to foster teacher development.

3.4.1 PERSONAL FACTORS

Most researchers who have examined the personal factors influencing teacher development have taken a developmental perspective. They have examined chronological age, ego development, moral development, interpersonal development, cognitive development, career development and motivational development (Burden, 1990). Of these factors, the ones that seem to play the most significant role are the teachers' cognitive development, career development, and motivational development.
3.4.2 COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

The teacher's cognitive development is usually equated with the extent to which the teacher can reason conceptually. Glickman (1981) posited three levels of abstract thinking: low, moderate and high. Teachers at the low level think more concretely, differentiate fewer concepts and tend to see problems simplistically; those at a high level can reason abstractly, see connections between disparate elements, and enjoy complexity.

3.4.3 CAREER DEVELOPMENT

This denotes the growth experienced as teachers move through the stages of their professional careers. Huberman (1989) posits five stages of the professional career, demarcated in terms of years of teaching experience. "Career entry" from the first to the third year, is a time of both survival and discovery. Teachers having four to six years of teaching experience seem to move into a "stabilization" period. Teachers having seven to eighteen years of experience enter a "divergent" period. Divergence also occurs for teachers with nineteen to thirty years of experience. The final period from thirty one to forty years of teaching experience, is a stage of "disengagement", a gradual withdrawal as the end of the career looms. For some, it is a time of serenity, for others, a time of bitterness.

3.4.4 MOTIVATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

"Motivation" refers to the strength of the inner drive to achieve professional goals. Glathorn (1990) has identified several factors that influence a teacher's motivational level. The first is a supportive environment consisting of five features:

- positive relationship with students and parents
- the presence of effective leadership
- adequate physical conditions
- positive school climate and
- a manageable teaching assignment
The second factor is meaningful work. The teacher has an appropriate degree of autonomy and believes in the significance of his or her work. The third factor is the teacher’s belief system. The following beliefs are essential for a high level of motivation. “I can perform successfully”. “The actions I take will achieve the results I want”. “The results I achieve will be recognised by rewards that I value”.

Rewards are particularly important. In the USA, teachers are more motivated by such intrinsic rewards as satisfaction of improving student learning than they are by extrinsic ones such as merit pay (Dilworth, 1991). However, the opposite has been found to be true of teachers in France and the United Kingdom (Broadfoot & Osborn, 1987).

Most of the literature on teacher beliefs and belief systems suffers from three basic problems. First, it is ethnocentric; much of it comes from Western, developed nations, especially the United States. Second, the literature rarely gets past teachers’ inferential beliefs to their descriptive ones; too much of it, to use the language of ethnographers, is outsider or “etic” and not enough is insider of “emic”. A third problem is that the literature tends to focus on teacher beliefs and belief systems about a small portion of their job. Fortunately, work is beginning to appear that addresses each of these problems. On the ethnocentric front, writing has emerged that supplements the Western, industrialised belief literature. Thomas (1992) for example has accompanied his volume on comparative theories of Western child development with one on theories of Eastern child development.

The fourth factor is the teacher’s goals. The teacher’s level of motivation is more likely to be high when the teacher’s goals are shared by peers, when the goal-setting process is a collaborative one, when the goals are specific, and when the goals are challenging but attainable.

The final factor in teacher motivation is the type and frequency of feedback. Several studies suggest that the teacher’s level of motivation is more likely to increase when the teacher makes continuing assessments of students learning and uses positive results as reinforcement. Frequent and positive feedback from administrators and supervisors can also increase the level of teacher motivation.
3.4.5 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS

These include all those elements of the environment that impact upon teacher development. McLaughlin and Talbert (1990) have identified five embedded contextual layers: Society and the community, the school system, the school, the teaching team or department and the classroom. The most remote (but not necessarily the least influential) layer is the community and society. Increasing proximal layers are the school system or school district, the school, the teaching team or department and the classroom.

Extrapolating from trends in the larger society and the profession, several trends in teacher development are likely in the near 1990's. First, there will be increased co-ordination between the pre-service and in-service education of teachers. Second, the use of technology as the central means for delivering staff development programmes will increase. Finally, there should be increased contact and collaboration with professionals from other human service organisations.

3.4.6 CONDITIONS FOR EFFECTIVE INSET AND TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Fullan (1987) identifies four factors as crucial for successful staff development:

(a) redefining staff development as a process of learning,
(b) the role of leadership at the school level,
(c) organizational culture at the school level,
(d) the role of external agencies especially at the local or regional level.

To understand the significance of these factors it is useful to distinguish between three facets of INSET/teacher development:

(a) its management (that is, decisions about what to do, for what purpose and with what support; the provision of support; and the evaluation of INSET programmes and policies);
(b) its design and conduct; and
(c) its on-going interaction with the life of schools and the behaviour and intentions of individual teachers.
All those involved need to have some understanding of each of these factors if the process of professional learning is to be understood and if the purposes of programme are to have a positive rather than negative influence on development.

INSET/teacher development is an integral part of that development. However, rather than regarding effective leadership and a positive organizational culture as preconditions for successful INSET/teacher development, it is perhaps more constructive to ask how INSET/teacher development can help to create the necessary leadership and culture. There is a strong argument that, while the role of principal will always be the most important, the function of leadership should be quite widely distributed for a school to be effectively run. Thus management development programmes should be an important component of INSET planning. In addition, the staff development role is important at every level of management. The person best placed to support a teacher’s development is usually the senior teacher in his or her subject or grade-level group. Many schools have also evolved roles such as mentor, professional tutor, appraiser, or INSET co-ordinator whose raison d’etre is teacher development. All these people need training to strengthen their roles.

At a practical level, schools have to create time for INSET and teacher development, while still preserving continuity of teaching (Hewton & Jolley 1991). In many countries teacher development days are set aside for this purpose, though schools do not always have the expertise to make good use of them (Ekholm 1988). However, time is still needed for functional groups to meet in schools and teachers to attend courses and meetings outside school. The former can be time tabled and teachers can be replaced when away, both require careful advance planning by a capable and committed principal.

3.4.7 CONDITIONS FOR EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF INSET

As indicated elsewhere in this study, INSET is geared to update and improve the knowledge, skills and attitudes of teachers and in so doing contribute to the improvement of education. Thus INSET should promote and develop a positive culture of on-going, self-motivated professional development amongst the body of teachers (Gray 1991). To achieve this, the four basic
questions which need to be addressed are: what, how, when and where.

What: refers not only to subject content and methodology, but also to level. With the vast majority of language teachers being undertrained and underqualified, one might assume that further content is required, but to what level? Alternatively, another approach would place emphasis on the existing school syllabus and how to deliver it more effectively.

Van Maarseveen (1995) provides a useful summary of current thinking on effective INSET which helps answer the questions how and where:

- the one day-workshop away from school is totally inadequate and ineffective;
- there is an increasing trend towards school-based INSET;
- there is now general agreement with the model proposed by Joyce & Showers (1988) that theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and coaching are essential elements in any INSET course. Despite this, they too often have the traditional 'chalk and talk' lecture mode of delivery which is known to be ineffective. (See 3.3.1);
- even the best designed INSET will fail unless the teachers, their departments and the school administrations are receptive to the initiative - indeed the importance of teachers in designing their own programmes in stressed (Kahn, 1993);
- the trend is away from individual teacher in-service to departmental or even whole school development - the rational here is that the whole work environment itself needs developing as well as the individuals themselves;
- regular 'modest' in-service activities over a number of years - a cycle of workshops - may achieve more than intense and shorter programmes (progressive innovation - Verspoor, 1987). This is in line with the 'life-long learning' concept which Curriculum 2005 is all about - our education does not stop at say, degree level but continues throughout life with in-service or re-training courses.

Inevitably, the how question also relates to numbers and the logistics of reaching the many language teachers in South Africa. This problem is exacerbated by the fact that South Africa has 11 official languages. Since experienced INSET trainers are in short supply, a cascade model where, for instance, trainers would teach school advisers who then carry out the in-service activities, is often the only solution. Such an approach has been tried and adopted in Namibia
When the last question should be answered "as soon as possible, but not too soon" - despite political pressures, since a poorly planned programme achieves nothing and may alienate the teaching force. The best time most teacher trainers agree is when a new curriculum is introduced and teachers are seeking ways of implementing this.

3.5 VYGOTSKY’S WORK

Vygotsky, is a relatively unknown personality on the South African educational scene. The researcher first came across his work during the course of his language teaching methodology class. It became evident to the researcher that Vygotsky was the key to unlocking some of the mysteries surrounding the role of the teacher in the advert of Curriculum 2005. To this end, aspects of his work which the researcher deem relevant to this section of the study and the study in general are presented below.

In one of his major works, Vygotsky wrote that: “to devise successful methods of instructing the school child in a systematic knowledge it is necessary to understand the development of scientific concepts in the child’s mind” (Vygotsky, 1985:146). He used the term “scientific concepts” in a broad sense, encompassing concepts in the social sciences, language and mathematics as well as the natural sciences and associated scientific concepts with systematic, hierarchical knowledge as opposed to the non-systematic, unorganised, and context-bound knowledge gained from everyday experience. Thus the crucial difference between the two categories of concepts is the presence or absence of a system.

At the core of all Vygotsky’s work is his belief in the primacy of culture in shaping development. His view that instruction, conceived as interaction with adults or more advanced peers, is necessary for development is a consequence of this core belief. He rejected the view that instruction and development are independent processes, that is, that instruction does not influence development but must wait on it or as Piaget put it “development explains leaving” (Piaget, 1967:171). He also rejected the view that instruction and development are interdependent with development dependent on both internal factors and teaching, such that
instruction influences development only within narrowly defined limits and mental development will continue without instruction. Vygotsky took a third and more radical view, the view that teaching and nurture move ahead of development and are essential for it. While maintaining this view, he recognised a ‘zone of proximal development’ and ‘sensitive periods’ within which instruction is most feasible and productive but his emphasis was always on the idea that development comes about through social interaction between children and adults and among children themselves. This view permeates Vygotsky’s work and has been emphasised by Davydov, a prominent Vygotsky scholar, in an address to an American audience in which he said that instruction, which is one form of social interaction, was not for Vygotsky a one-way activity but a true collaboration between teacher and child in which the teacher guides, directs and encourages the child’s activity. Instruction is neither didactic nor left up to the children’s ability to discover for themselves; it is based on active involvement of all participants (Davydov, 1993). He continued as follows:

In other words, according to Vygotsky, the teacher can intentionally nurture and teach children on in continual collaboration with them --- and with their desires and readiness to act together with the teacher ---. Psychological laws state that first all you want to call the child to some kind of activity and interest in it. To be concerned --- that the child is ready for this activity and --- that the child himself will act. (What remains for the teacher is ) only the task to guide and direct the child’s activity (Davydov, 1993).

Vygotsky sought to find evidence to support his theory by directing a series of school-based empirical studies on the development of concepts in such basic subjects as writing, social studies and mathematics. From these studies, he concluded that there is continuous interaction between instruction and development. In this process “the instruction in basic subjects does not precede instruction but unfolds in a continuous interaction with the contributions of instruction” (Vygotsky, 1986:184).

### 3.5.1 VYGOTSKY ON THE INTERDEPENDENCE OF LANGUAGE AND THOUGHT

A central theme in Vygotsky’s thought is the importance of language in mediating thought. For him, language was basic to the development of thought; words are the means through which
thought is formed and refined. Since words are dynamic rather than static, the relationship of thought to word constantly changes, undergoing a continual process from thought to word and word to thought. “The relation between thought and word is a living process; thought is born through words. A word devoid of thought is a dead thing and thought unembedded in words remain a shadow” (Vygotsky, 1986:255).

Luria and Yudovich (1959) note that Vygotsky was “one of the first to express the view that speech plays a decisive role in the formation of mental process” and that the reorganisation of mental processes takes place under the influence of speech (25-26). Vygotsky’s translator (Rieber and Carton, 1987) tell us that the word usually translated as ‘language” is more accurately translated “speech” with emphasis on the uses of “inner speech”, that is, the unspoken speech that is part of a dialogue one carries with oneself as well as the verbal interaction that was, for Vygotsky, a necessary element in concept development.

As language and thinking develop throughout childhood, the semantic components of words change and new meanings are attached to words that adults use in speaking of observations, phenomena, or ideas, but the words do not carry the full meaning for the child that they carry for the adult. To apply Vygotsky’s thinking to a concrete example we can take the word “brother” as a case in point. "Brother" has a narrower meaning for the child than for the adult; the meaning of the word will change as the child interacts with adults and older children and gradually acquires the larger meaning held by adults. The child will thus learn that an uncle is a parent's brother and that a brotherhood includes many people who are not actual family members. The change in the understanding of the meaning of the word is therefore inseparable from conceptual development.

In seeking to explain how concepts are formed, Vygotsky specifically rejected associationism, a popular theory in his time, as an explanation for concept formation. This theory holds that a concept arises from perceptions and reinforcement of connections between objects based on features that are common to several of the objects. Vygotsky recognised that a child may have a non-conscious understanding of a concept before being able to express it in language but associations alone will not lead to concept formation; a concept can not be fully developed into conscious form without language concepts being formed, he believed, not by an interplay of associations or by repeated experience but by an intellectual operation in which such mental functions as memory, attention, and influence participate, and in which language is the guide;
putting things into words, centres attention, clarifies thinking, provides a means of symbolizing thought, and in an integral part of the process of concept formation. The development of conscious awareness through the use of language propels thinking forward toward conceptual understanding.

3.5.2 APPLICATIONS OF VYGOTSKY’S WORK TO THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

Application of Vygotsky’s work to problems in education has been an active research area for two decades in the United States where it has been extended, enlarged and developed. Much of this effort has focussed on the "zone of proximal development" and as empiricist, didactic approach to teaching in which the content to be taught was predetermined by the teacher or experimenter and transmitted to students, often in a laboratory setting.

This view is also held by Moll & Whitmore (1993) who argue that definitions and assumptions about the "zone of proximal development", as well as about learning goal and outcome and that a broader sociocultural view is more keeping with the trust of Vygotsky’s work. A broader view has now, in fact, emerged and is represented by the work of Moll & Whitmore (1993) and by that of Palincsar et al (1993), Cobb et al (1993), and others. These researchers treat the classroom as a sociocultural system and study classroom discourse as a means of understanding the development of knowledge. They conduct their studies in classrooms where teachers use interactive teaching practices. Scaffolding knowledge for students, supporting students’ involvement in their own learning, and helping them learn to work together to create new knowledge and meaning.

An example of the sociocultural approach to children’s knowledge development is the Moll & Whitmore (1993:20) study in a third-grade classroom in which the teacher acted as a guide and mediator and children worked individually and collectively to set and accomplish academic goals. The sociocultural system of the classroom is described by as having been “mutually and actively created by teachers and students”, and the role of the teacher is described as that of guide and supervisor, participant in learning, evaluators and facilitator. This work seems consistent with their interpretation of Vygotsky’s beliefs and expressed as follows:

Vygotsky considered social interaction, the collective activity of the child and adult among children themselves (to be) the genetically fundamental forms of their individual psychic functions and in particular (the fundamental form)
of the functions of assimilation ---. This is active collective activity of a group of people and not the one sided activity of one adult and one child. --- Teachers do not impose their ideas on children; true learning is created through collaboration (Davydov, 1993).

3.6 CONCLUSION

In the past, students in a language class were expected to sit quietly, follow mundane directions or read assigned texts, fill out work sheets and take tests, but with Curriculum 2005, there will be the creation of authentic social contexts in which students use, try out and manipulate language as they make sense and create meaning. The role of the teacher is thus to mediate these social contexts, in a Vygotskykian sense, so that through their own efforts students assume full control of diverse purposes and use oral and written language effectively. The process of social mediation will lead to the creation of collective interrelated zones of proximal development as part of a transactive teaching system and not individual "zones of proximal development". The knowledge about the subject matter is to be learnt through different types of social relationships facilitated by the teachers. Thus the teacher strategically engages students in different aspects of language study and also creates future contexts in which students can consciously apply in new ways what they have learnt.
CHAPTER FOUR

THE DESIGN AND PROCESS OF THE INQUIRY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the design and process of the investigation which have been determined by the research questions. Thus the research format followed in this study is deliberated on at length, with specific reference to methods of data collection, relevant data processing techniques and the route followed during the interpretation of the consolidated data.

4.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design has its origins in the nature of the research problem which is systematically investigated and reflects a series of major decisions made by the researcher in an attempt to discover the best approach to the research questions posed. Research design involves "...putting things together, bringing to consciousness - and to the notebook - as many aspects as possible of the research's planning and preparation for inquiry" (Le Compte & Preissle, 1993:55).

According to Merriam (1991:6) "a research design is similar to an architectural blueprint. It is a plan for assembling, organising and integrating information (data), and it results in a specific end product (research findings). The selection of a design is determined by how the problem is shaped, by the questions it raises, and by the type of end product desired". Thus it is vital that a researcher should have a thorough knowledge of the methodological and analytical tools available, as well as an awareness of their uses and their shortcomings. The research design of this study can be described as qualitative, descriptive and exploratory.

4.2.1 QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

Researchers use qualitative methods to understand phenomena and situations as a whole and in context. The task of qualitative research therefore is to provide an interpretation or understanding of events (Keeves, 1988:7). Miles & Huberman (1994:6) maintain that the
qualitative researcher “attempts to capture data on the perceptions of local actors ‘from the inside’, through a process of deep attentiveness of empathetic understanding, and of suspending or “bracketing” preconceptions about the topics under discussion”. Qualitative research is in fact concerned with the meaning of human behaviour and experience and the function of social action: - how people make sense of their lives, what they experience, how they interpret these experiences, how they structure their social worlds (Silverman, 1993:24; Merriam, 1991:16). Thus when OBE (Curriculum 2005) is implemented in South Africa, teachers need to demonstrate their understanding of the system and the researcher endeavours to contribute to this understanding and the concomitant activities by means of systematic investigation.

A further emphasis in qualitative research is on the ways people in particular settings come to understand and take action in their everyday, and in real life situations (Silverman, 1993:25; Miles & Huberman, 1994:7) Marshall & Rossman (1989:11) assert that qualitative research "entails immersion in the everyday life of the setting chosen for study, values participants’ perspective on their worlds and seeks to discover those perspectives --- is primarily descriptive and relies on people’s worlds as the primary data”.

A frequently noted attribute of qualitative data is their “richness and holism, with strong potential for revealing complexity” (Miles & Huberman, 1994:10). To achieve this, the qualitative approach to research design makes use of a range of sources for data collection to gather data on any number of aspects of the setting under study, in order to put together a complete picture of the social dynamics of a particular situation or programme.

Qualitative research can therefore “provide a broader version of theory than simply a relationship between variables” (Silverman, 1993:27). While this study has a specific focus, the strategies employed by the researcher allow for the management of unplanned themes. By developing a focus for data collection, the research is not approached with narrow questions or hypotheses. Thus this study is both inductive in nature and also deductive at times. Hypotheses could be addressed in an interrelated, explanatory manner when one question’s answers will explain the answers to the other questions, whereby the research acquires a deductive character. Miles & Huberman (1994:10) state that qualitative data serve not only as a good strategy for discovery
and developing hypotheses, but also possesses a strong potential for testing hypotheses.

### 4.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH

As the aim of this research is an accurate and careful description of teacher re-training (INSET), teacher knowledge and teacher development, the design of this research is strongly descriptive. Le Compte & Preissle (1993:39) state that the aim of a descriptive research is to "examine events or phenomena --- characterise something as it is --- There is no manipulation of treatments or subjects; the researcher takes things as they are. Descriptive means that the end product is "a rich thick description of the phenomenon under study" (Merriam, 1991:11). By means of a thick description the researcher attempts to capture the meaning, actions and feelings that are present in an interactional experience.

### 4.2.3 EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

The research design of this study is also exploratory in nature, as the purpose of the study is to investigate, and subsequently gain new insight and better understanding of the research phenomenon (re-training of teachers for Curriculum 2005 as well as teachers' perceptions about OBE). The exploratory nature of this study is emphasised by the fact that one of the aims of this inquiry is to describe the salient themes, patterns and categories in participants' meaning structures so as to identify and discover important variables and propositions for further scrutiny. It does not allow for the formulation of hypotheses prior to the investigation, but adopts a flexible approach and a hypothesis develops as a result of the research.

### 4.3 SAMPLING

Qualitative researchers usually work with small samples of people, situated in their context and studied in-depth (Miles & Huberman, 1994:27). A non-probable method of sampling, namely purposive or purposeful sampling, is used in this study. Purposive sampling is based on assumption that "one wants to discover, understand, gain insight; therefore one needs to select a sample from which one can learn the most" (Merriam, 1991:48).
Purposive sampling is akin to what Le Compte & Preissle (1993:69) call “Criterion-based selection”, although they note that selection refers to a more general process of focussing and choosing what to study, while sampling is a more restricted and specialised form. Criterion-based selection requires that one establish the criteria, bases or standards necessary for units to be included in the investigation; one then searches for exemplars that match the specified array of characteristics.

The sample population of this study consists of four language teachers, teaching in a rural Bushbuckridge high school. Two are female teachers and the other two are men. Two are English language teachers whilst the other two teach Afrikaans. Besides this, they teach other subjects such as Bible studies, Economics, Geography and General Science. Their teaching experience range from eighteen years for the most experienced to five years for the least experienced. Two are university trained teachers, one is a college trained teacher with university education and the last is a college trained teacher. Only one is engaged in further studies and he has also undergone an INSET course in Britain through a British Council scholarship.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION

The paradigm and the format of the study determine the nature of the data collection methods and how this is implemented. Qualitative data collection is eclectic in nature, and therefore utilises rich and diverse data to answer questions about the complexity and variability of human life (Le Compte & Preissle, 1993: 158) Merriam (1991:67/8) quotes Patton (1980), who describes qualitative data as consisting of “detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviours; direct quotations from people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs and thoughts; and excerpts or entire passages from documents, correspondence, records and case histories”. Qualitative data are characterised by a substantial amount of verbal data Merriam (1991:67), Miles & Huberman (1994:9). The words of which the (verbal) data consist are derived from observation fieldnotes, interview transcriptions and documents as new data.

In this inquiry, the methods of data collection and analysis focus mostly on iconic and verbal data. The methods of data collection chosen to address the research questions are of micro
genetic nature and were directly influenced by the nature of the research question(s). They include video recordings of the participants at work in the classroom, capturing the minutiae of the development of their knowledge and skills, individual interviews and observation of a workshop. Data are analysed from the original iconic or language format, within the total context, so as to provide "thick descriptions" (Miles & Huberman, 1994:10) that are vivid, and situated within a real context. The use of multiple methods of collecting data is in one form what of Denzin (1988) refers to as triangulation, a research mechanism that serves to enhance the validity of the inquiry by using different data sources, different collection methods and often also different analysis methods, all focussing on the research problem at hand.

4.4.1 OBSERVATION

This method of data collection is fundamental to much qualitative research. It has as its aim to "gather first-hand information about social processes in a 'naturally occurring' context" (Silverman, 1993:11). Through observation, the researcher learns about behaviours and the meaning attached to those behaviours. An assumption is made that behaviour is purposive and expressive of deeper values and beliefs (Marshall & Rossman, 1989:79).

Merriam (1991:87) refers to collecting data by means of observing phenomena of interest in natural settings, as participant observation, because the researcher is not merely a passive observer (Yin, 1989:92). Fieldwork, or participant observation, involves "going to the site, program, institution, setting - the field - to observe the phenomenon under study" (Merriam, 1991:102). The observer can take on a variety of roles within a case study situation. The relationship between observer and observed in this study is called observer as participant (Merriam, 1991). The researcher's observer activities are known to the observed, but the researcher's participation is secondary to the role of information gatherer. Although this method facilitates access to a wide range of information, the level of the information revealed is controlled by the person being observed.

According to Johnson (1992:86), naturalistic observation is one of the most common and important methods of data collection, particularly where natural communication (oral or written
interactions) among students and between students and teachers is the focus of the observation. Video recordings, which are supplemented with field notes, are the methods used to record observations in this study.

a. Video Recorded Lessons

Video-recording provides the most comprehensive method of collecting observational data, and as such, was chosen as the main methods of observational recording in this study. In contrast to live observation with fieldnotes, video recording may repeatedly be analysed in a variety of ways. Although video recordings may be intrusive and make people uncomfortable, they are useful in recording even the most minor details:

Video technology allows researchers to capture the nature of the physical setting, the identity of participants in interactions, and many aspects of nonverbal communication such as gesture, bows, and eye-contact. Grouping patterns can be captured as well, particularly if the person recording is an informed member of the research team (Johnson, 1992:86).

Video recordings extend the range and precision of the observations which can be made and are particularly valuable for discovery and validation. It preserves activity and change in its original form and can be used in the future to take advantage of new methods of seeing, analysing and understanding the process of change (Marshall & Rossman, 1989:86).

The problem of discomfort resulting from the presence of the video camera was partly overcome in this study by informing the participants of the purpose of the recordings as well as exposing them to regular recordings over an extended period of time (Leinhardt, 1988:494). The video recordings took place at a rural Bushbuckridge High School. The duration of each recording was approximately 30 minutes, the normal period of a class. The researcher was present at the recordings in order to get first hand information and also to supplement video data with field notes.
The purpose of the video recordings was to observe and describe teacher's performance in the classroom. Information gained from this method of data collection is first to be transcribed, coded and analysed before rendering the material useable (Le Compte & Preissle, 1993:228). (See Addendum "A" for examples of transcribed video data).

b. Field Notes

Le Compte & Preissle (1993:224) describe field notes as "written accounts made on the spot or as soon as possible after their occurrence, that represent the interaction and activities of the researcher and the people studied". For field notes to be of value to the researcher, Merriam (1991:98) suggests that they include the following amongst others:

- verbal descriptions of the settings, the people, the activities
- direct quotations or at least the substance of what people said
- observer's comments - put in the margins or in the running narrative. Observer's comments can include the researcher's questions, feelings, initial interpretations, reactions, hunches and working hypotheses.

In this study, field notes were made during contact with the participants and related to that which was observed. Thus, the field notes are a supportive source of data, and as such were not analysed in detail, but they were useful for later data interpretation. (See Addendum "B" for examples of fieldnotes).

4.4.2 RESEARCHER'S REPORT ON CLASS OBSERVATION

The classes observed were Standards 7 and 10 (English) and Standards 9 and 10 (Afrikaans). The researcher's comments are limited to language related issues as this is the concern of this study. The English language teachers taught in English but from time to time they switched codes and used the mother tongue of the students. In the case of the Afrikaans teachers they usually switched to English and then into the mother tongue.

On the whole they displayed poor control of the languages they professed to be teaching and even used non-standard forms, for example "I beg yours" instead of "I beg your pardon". The
Afrikaans teachers kept repeating the word 'neh' throughout their lessons and this created the impression that they were using the word as a gap-filler, whenever they run out of idea or vocabulary.

The students on their part, hardly asked any questions. They also did not attempt to answer questions posed to them. Those who attempted to answer questions did so either in the mother tongue or in halting English. This happened even in the Afrikaans classes. Very few students attempted to speak Afrikaans and those who did were laughed at by their colleagues. (See Addendum "C" for examples of class observation notes).

4.4.3 INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW

An interview with the teachers of the observed classes is the second main method of data collection employed in this inquiry. In qualitative research, interviewing is considered a major source of data needed for understanding the phenomenon under study (Merriam, 1991:86; Yin, 1989:88). Combined with observation, interviews allow the researcher to check description against fact (Marshall & Rossman, 1989:82).

The interview is most often described as “a conversation with a purpose” (Marshall & Rossman 1989:82). Kvale (1983:174) suggests that the purpose of the qualitative research interview is to “gather descriptions of the life-word of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena”. The main aim of the interview in this study is to describe and understand the central themes the interviewees experience and live towards in the classroom situation. Insight into the teacher’s understanding and philosophy of learning and teaching with regard to OBE and Curriculum 2005 was gained as they articulated their tacit knowledge. In fact, the individual interview served as a rich source of data, as it provided access to the teacher’s declarative or static knowledge about facts and principles that apply within a certain domain (De Jong & Ferguson-Hessler, 1993:4). However, the mere learning of facts and principles does not guarantee the spontaneous use thereof in new situations, as transformation into procedural knowledge has not yet taken place. Thus, in conjunction with the other methods of data collection used in this study, the interview serves to verify, establish and expand upon the information obtained from the respondents of the study.
Johnson (1992:87) differentiates three forms of interviews according to their degree of structure; i.e. structured, semi-structured and unstructured. The semi-structured interview was used in this study. The format allows the researcher to respond to each situation as it arises, to the emerging world of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic (Merriam 1991:74). (See Addendum "D" for examples of transcribed interview data).

4.4.4 WORKSHOP PROCESS OBSERVATION

To further investigate the participants readiness to accept and embark of the implementation of Curriculum 2005, an OBE INSET workshop was held in the house of one of the participants. The workshop was held outside the high school where the participants teach because as a result of the Bushbuckridge border crisis all schools in the area were closed. It took place on the 30th of March, 1997.

The workshop was presented by two female teachers who are currently studying towards a Master of Education degree in Community Education at the Rand Afrikaans University. The researcher was mainly an observer but supplemented the efforts of the facilitators when the need arose. The rationale behind the workshop being presented by these two teachers was to give the researcher an opportunity to see how teachers who have been exposed to OBE can effectively and competently share their knowledge with their colleagues in "cascade" mode.

The workshop began with an introduction to the OBE concept and this led to a discussion on the role of the teacher. It was pointed out to the participants that for the successful implementation of Curriculum 2005, certain radical changes have to take place with regard to the nature of the classroom and the role of the teacher. The participants were told that they will have to assume different roles but all are contingent on their knowledge of human development and learning, understanding of language and literacy learning, training and practice as an observer of children. The participants were further told that their new role as mediators and facilitators will require the learners to do the work and they follow the learners lead instead of imposing things on the learners.
The envisaged outcome of the workshop is that the participants should be able to understand what Curriculum 2005 is all about. Thus they should be able to teach in an acceptable manner and also design OBE lessons. (See Addendum "E" for examples of workshop observation notes).

4.4.5 RESEARCHER'S COMMENTS ON WORKSHOP

The workshop went well because the presenters were willing and eager to share their newly gained knowledge with their colleagues. On their part, the participants were also very keen to know what Curriculum 2005 is all about. They asked a lot of questions and also raised some concerns. For instance, they complained about the lack of adequate literature and also the lack of exposure as they were based in a rural area. They were ‘alarmed’ about their new role. They felt that they were going to lose control as corporal punishment was a thing of the past and their students had erroneously taken this as a license to misbehave. They were particularly perturbed by the fact that they might have to change the sitting arrangement of their classroom. They felt that if the class atmosphere was too relaxed, their students would no longer be serious as they would think it is part of their playground. Another major concern raised was how did the government and the authorities in charge of education expect parents who are predominantly illiterate to help in designing school curriculum and actually have a positive say in the smooth running of a school.

The researcher had to ‘intervene’ in the proceedings because he felt it had turned into a forum for the participants to voice their misgivings about Curriculum 2005 and thus not ‘see’ the positive sides of it. Also the presenters were having problems as they could not answer questions posed to them decisively or deal effectively with the numerous terminologies which come along with Curriculum 2005. The researcher further pointed out that the Curriculum 2005 was not all that ‘new’ as what has really changed is terminology. For instance, he pointed out that ‘outcomes’ in the new curriculum will be equivalent to ‘pupil-centred objectives’ in the old curriculum. He also pointed out that the major point of departure is that whereas the old curriculum was too theoretical and thus abstract, Curriculum 2005 was an attempt to blend theory and practical so as to concretize things for the students and ultimately make them
competent. The researcher went on to indicate that when this is achieved there would be no need for courses like ‘Academic support programmes’ at the tertiary level and school leavers will be able to speak, read and write intelligibly. To achieve this, language teachers will have to go beyond telling students that a ‘noun’ is a naming word but actually show students why they are called nouns, what they are used for, how they should be used and when they should be used.

4.5 DATA PROCESSING

This is described as the “process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data” (Marshall & Rossman, 1989:112). It usually involves a continual process of looking for meaning by sorting reiteratively through the data (Johnson, 1992:90). Qualitative data analysis “... is a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data” (Marshall & Rossman, 1989:112) and according to Johnson (1992:90) should comply with the following criteria:

- important issues, variables or themes should be identified.
- discoveries ought to be made about how these variables, issues, or theme pattern interrelate in the bounded system.
- explanations need to be given about how these interrelationships influence the phenomena under study.
- fresh new insights need to be advanced.

In this study, the approach to data analysis which will be followed is based on the suggestions of Miles & Huberman (1994). They define qualitative data analysis as a process consisting of three phases: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing or verification and are interwoven before, during and after data collection in parallel form. In this view, qualitative data analysis is “... a continuous iterative enterprise” (Miles & Huberman, 1994:12) of selecting, focussing, simplifying, abstracting and integrating the data, and data collection and analysis is a simultaneous activity in qualitative research (Merriam, 1991:119). Data analysis occurs even before the data are actually collected, as the researcher decides which conceptual framework, which cases, which research questions, and which data collection methods to use. (See Addendum "F" for an example of data processing).
4.6 DATA CONSOLIDATION

The large amount of data from the various collection techniques needs to be consolidated. The categories identified during data analysis were finally clustered in order to condense the categories and to reveal the underlying final products patterns contained in the data. These final categories are representative of the general findings of the inquiry. (See Chapter 5).

4.7 CONCLUSION

The main tenets of the research in which this inquiry was conducted, were discussed in this chapter, illuminating the format of the study, methods of data collection and data processing. Understanding the various components of research and their interrelated nature is vital to the conduction of valid research. Integrated within this theoretical framework, this chapter has aimed to explicate the systematic process the data followed, from its initial collection, through its analysis, to the consolidation of the final empirical findings. The findings made will be discussed in the final chapter. It must however be pointed out that due to the Bushbuckridge border crisis which has led to the closure of schools in the area, a planned class observation after the workshop had to be abandoned.
CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this study attempts were made to answer the research question(s) posed in chapter one. This
Chapter aims therefore to present the findings of the research. The consolidated data are
interpreted against the background of the existing theoretical framework, as well as against new
literature which is referred to as a result of the findings. This is proceeded by a discussion of the
conclusions drawn from the findings. Implications for practice, policy and the way forward for
the smooth re-training of teacher for curriculum 2005 is also discussed. The study is concluded
with some recommendations for both policy makers and teachers.

5.2 FINDINGS

The main empirical findings of this study are discussed here with a view of establishing their
credibility from a research point of view.

♦ The participants in the research do not appear to have the proper training required of
second language teachers as none of them have undergone any specialised training in this
regard. The college trained teachers seemed better trained than their university trained
counter-parts.

♦ Added to this is the fact that their competency in the languages they profess to teach is
highly questionable. For instance, they use sub-standard forms and they do not seem to
be aware of this.

♦ The department of education has not done much in the past to help teachers improve the
standard of their teaching. The participants did not even know their subject advisers. On
the question of INSET, they hardly attended such courses. When the courses are
conducted, it is held at the wrong time, namely at the end of the year. They did not have
confidence in the course presenters. In fact to many of them such courses where a sheer
waste of time as they ostensibly gained no new knowledge.

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The participants did not see the need to further their studies and thus develop professionally because they have been demotivated by the department, as there are no financial rewards for such efforts. They feel that the department should rather take the courses into consideration, in other words if a teacher goes attends a course which is relevant to the department, that teacher should be paid accordingly.

The teachers felt the OBE concept is good but they also felt that if the department does not change its lackadaisical attitude to INSET activities, nothing positive would be achieved.

With regard to evaluation and assessment, they felt that the 1996 matric fiasco should be a lesson for the future or else matriculants from one province are likely to be rejected by another province. Besides, they did not know what can be done to stop lazy teachers from giving falsified reports to hide their shortcomings. The participants also felt that there is no effective modality in place to assess teachers and thus know who is working well and who is not.

5.3 VALIDITY OF THE STUDY

The aim of the validity criterion is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in such a manner as to ensure that the subject was accurately identified and described (Marshall & Rossman, 1989:145). However, unlike experimental designs, where validity and reliability are accounted for before the investigation, “---rigour in a qualitative case study derives from the researcher’s presence, the nature of the interaction between researcher and participants, the triangulation of data, the interpretation of perceptions and rich, thick description” (Merrian, 1991:120). The strength of the qualitative study is it’s validity. Thus Henning (1995:32) posits that ‘validity is generally regarded as credibility of procedures which are articulated succinctly’. It is impossible to evaluate procedures if they are not explicitly stated. One of the main aspects of this study’s validity, lies in the detailed account and rich description of how data was collected and how decisions were made throughout the inquiry. Due to the limited length of this dissertation, these had to be presented in summarised version. Furthermore, the validity of this study will be assessed by indicating the validation tactics suggested by Miles & Huberman (199:262:277), Le Compte & Preissle 1993:325-329) amongst others, that are also employed to verify
the conclusions reached in this study. Such validation tactics include:

Checking for representativeness, checking for researcher effects, discovering a research philosophy, weighting the evidence, outliers, looking for negative evidence, replicating a finding, checking out rival explanations, getting feedback from informants (participants) and triangulating (for the limitations of this study see 1.7). These activities were conducted before the research report was compiled.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

There is no denying the fact that INSET is an essential activity for the improvement of teaching. It seems likely and indeed preferable that a number of non-government organisations and government initiates will continue for some time - the important thing is to co-ordinate them and use their collective experiences in creating solutions (Kahn 1993). Most NGO programmes have advantage over the Department of Education in that they have been refined and developed through a process of regular external evaluation. In creating a new structure it will be important to use the expertise and ideas of those programmes (often NGO’s) which have been able to deliver in the past (Gray 1991). Also INSET activities can be networked through Teachers Newsletters and other news media.

Below are further recommendations:

♦ learn from the experience of other countries, especially other African countries which have been through a massive overhaul of their educational systems;

♦ involve the various constituencies - at each planning stage (in INSET this includes the teachers themselves). A top-down approach is unlikely to be effective (Kahn 1993, van Maarseveen 1995);

♦ set management targets - these should achievable milestones which can be evaluated later;

♦ develop the capacity of the teacher training institutions to help deliver INSET. This would allow better cohesion between pre- and in-service and a resource to cater better for the needs of the teacher/students, particularly if cascade models of INSET are to be
used;  
♦ provide incentives - there should be some rewards in the form of accreditation and salary notches.

5.6 CONCLUSION

Curriculum 2005 has come to stay in South Africa. Its success or failure depends not only on teachers but also on the authorities who are charged with the unenviable task of seeing to its successful implementation and on the students for whom it is intended. With proper planning this will be achieved. This study is not an attempt to answer all the numerous questions which have and/or would be posed. It is however an attempt to look at INSET and show how it has been done elsewhere and thus serve as a pointer to how it should be done in South Africa. Clearly the task is enormous and Fallan (1985) has these words for all concerned:

Change will occur when certain elements are in combination: attention to the development of clear and validated materials; active administrative support and leadership at district and especially the school level; focussed, on-going in-service or staff development activities; the development of collegiality and other interaction-based conditions at the school level; the selective use of external resources, both people and materials.
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Belmont, California.


Addendum A

Examples of transcribed individual interview data.

TRANSCRIPTION GUIDE:
I........................................ INTERVIEWER
R........................................ RESPONDENT

(Mr Mashona, not real name)

I: Where did you train as a teacher?
R: At the University of the North and I also attended a three month in-service in Britain.
I: Did you undergo any special training in the teaching of a second language or languages?
R: Not really. You see, at the university we concentrated more on literature than on language. But when I was in Britain, I got a little exposure on how it is done.
I: What is the difference between what you learnt at the university and in Britain?
R: The one at the university was focussed on the teacher, em on how to be able to teach the children. The one in Britain is focussed on the child.
I: What is your view on the current approach to language teaching in South Africa?
R: I don't think it's much good because it just produces eh, eh, --- tools.
I: What should be done?
R: I think there is a serious need for a change in approach to make our students to communicate effectively amongst themselves and also the world outside.
I: Any ideas on how this can be done?
R: I think the communicative approach, if used properly can achieved some results. I mean if it is started from the primary school to the high school level. Also the textbook approach should be discouraged. Any material used in our daily lives like newspapers, magazines etc can be used.
R: I have heard a little about it through the newspapers and on the radio.
I: What do you think about it?
R: ---- mh, it looks quite interesting and I think it may succeed if ..... well it all depends on the availability of materials and resources. You know the formulation of the outcomes is not going to be easy. — I fear that it might lead to different standards. Yea, you may find that in one school or area their outcome maybe to foster co-operative learning whilst the other maybe to get results to impress or satisfy the authorities or the parents.
Ms Moabi, not real name.

I: How long have you been teaching?
R: For six years.
I: Where did you receive your training as a teacher?
R: I went to a college before proceeding to the university.
I: Did you receive any special training as a language teacher?
R: Not exactly. I question the students and they answer. Sometimes, I narrate. I just tell them a story and expect them to follow the lesson.
I: Do you think the methods you are using are effective?
R: No, I don't think so. If possible we have to change our approach to language teaching, but I have no idea how this can be done.
I: Why don’t you go for further training?
R: [laughs] I would have but now that the department is not going to reward us for our efforts I am not ready to waste my little money.
I: What then do you think about Curriculum 2005, as it will require some re-training.
R: I didn’t know a lot but the workshop enlightened me.
I: Did the workshop benefit you in any way?
R: I think so, but you see one of the presenters was too passive. Actually, that's what happens when we go for courses. It's like the presenters don't know their work or they are just there because they have to be there. Sometimes courses are held when the academic year is almost over and no-one benefits. Also, it's like we those in the rural areas are unimportant because only schools in urban areas are thought of.
I: How then should the re-training of teachers be carried out?
R: Previously, teachers were attending courses during school hours and Principals were complaining so now I think teachers should be rotated so that the child would not be neglected. Also, serious efforts should be made to appointed only knowledgeable people as facilitators and not just anybody. The courses should be held early in the year and teachers must be rewarded if they further their studies.
I: Do you think Curriculum 2005 will bring improvements into the school system?
R: It all depends on how smoothly and properly the implementation is carried out. Besides I am not yet convinced that illiterates can actually decide on a curriculum for a school. I also do not think our children can cope too well with some of these changes.
Addendum B

Example of class observation notes.

Teacher: Good morning class. Today we are going to continue our lessons on tenses by looking at the past continuous tense and how to form negative questions. Now I want one of you to give an example of a sentence.

Student: Mary was going to school.

T: Why did she use the auxiliary verb was?
S: Because she is single.

T: Which auxiliary verb do we use for the plural?
S: She. [inaudibly]
T: I beg yours.
S: She.

T: She for plural? [laughter in the class].
S: Were.

T: I said we have pronouns and nouns. Between a noun and a pronoun which one replaces a noun?
S: A pronoun.

T: Which auxiliary verb are we going to use to fill the space here [points to a sentence on the chalkboard] Now as there is no question, we are through with this part. Let’s continue with the negative form under the past continuous tense. We use not to form a negative sentence [explains in mother tongue]. Give an example from this: Mary was going to school.

S: Mary was not going to school.

T: Any questions? [None.] Okay, form the negative sentence of Bongani and Helen are going to school.

S: Bongani and Helen not going to school. [Not too loud].

T: Repeat again. What’s wrong with the sentence?
S: There’s no auxiliary verb.

T: Correct it.
S: Bongani and Helen are not going to school.

T: Now let’s move on to the question form. Which auxiliary verb are we going to use to form a question in the past continuous tense?
Addendum C

Example of workshop observation notes.

Thank you for the welcome Mr. Klu. As language teachers today we are coming to conduct a workshop to assist Mr. Klu in his research. I think he has already told you, so I like you people to participate freely. You have been trained as teachers so you know what to do. So in life we have got different types of knowledge, some we receive right at home. Tell me if I'm lost, Mr. Klu.

So the first kind I am going to talk about is conceptual knowledge. If I may ask you as teachers, what is conceptual knowledge?

~~~ I have to learn

This is the knowledge that you have inside you. How do we take out this knowledge to become procedural knowledge. Can you try?

~~~ The question seems not to be clear.

Can you tell me something you feel you know so that we can move to the next step.

~~~ I know that I am a woman.

This is inside you but how can you proceed and take it out that you are a woman.

~~~ I can tell someone else that I am a woman and that person will know that this person is a woman. Good one, anyone with another example?

~~~ We know that cars are manufactured but we don't know how this is done so this can be procedural if we know how.

Yes Mr Mashona [not real name].

~~~ Let's take fire. If you play with fire and it burns you, you know that fire burns so tomorrow you don't play with fire.

That's also good. You have it in mind neh! Procedural knowledge is [changes to the mother tongue].

Okay, so if we want to talk about procedural knowledge [mother tongue] we have to take it out, that is procedural knowledge [mother tongue].

RESEARCHER: Why don't you concentrate on language related issues.

It's good but let's talk about cognitive knowledge. As teachers you know about cognitive neh! From there we talk about reflective and meta-cognitive knowledge. As language teachers how then do conceptualize your knowledge? We also have pragmatic knowledge, that is we have to practicalize things and that's all the Curriculum 2005 is about. As language teachers how then can we take our procedural knowledge of parts of speech and conceptualize it for our students to know.

~~~ In my case, I normally tell them — if it is a verb I give them examples and tell them to get their own examples and this sticks in their minds.
Addendum D

Example of fieldnotes.
The participants are trained teachers but their competency leaves much to be desired. They openly accept their short-comings but they are not too keen on improving through further studies. * Find out why. The teaching methods they use are not only outmoded but also totally out of place in the environment in which they ply their trade. * Find out the differences between the college training system and that of the university. To hide their deficiency in the languages they are teaching they usually switch code to the mother tongue whenever the are hard up. * Do they know any thing about mother tongue interference and it’s possible effect on their teaching.

The workshop was an eye-opener to the participants. They participated freely as there was no restriction on which language(s) to use. The presenters had a though time explaining the concepts they were discussing. This may be due either to the lack of proper understanding of the concepts they were trying to explain or language problems. * The correct use of the English tenses was a major problem. Another problem area was the logical presentation of ideas and adequate examples to back them up. They also switch to the mother tongue easily and they make frequent use of ‘neh’. Participants used the workshop as an opportunity to voice out their grievances and also their concerns about curriculum 2005. * Both parties are agreed on the usefulness of the workshop. * Concern was however raised on who should hold such workshops and when. * The number of times was also an issue.