MANAGING CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS FOR

CURRICULUM CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

by

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DECLARATION

I, Thabo Andries Phorabatho, declare that MANAGING CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS FOR CURRICULUM CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

_____   _____

Signature   **Date**

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my beloved late paternal grandmother Molohlanyi MmaMoyabo wa Sehambane (1918-1991) and my late father Peter Mathekgwane Sehambane-Phorabatho (1946-2006). May their spirit live on …

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SYNOPSIS

The current rapid school curriculum reform initiatives in the South African education system require teachers to develop continuously in order to understand and implement them effectively. Conversely, most teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) activities based on curriculum change implementation are inadequate to produce their intended results. Teachers continue grappling with limited subject content knowledge, how to teach and assess in the outcomes-based way, and how to evaluate and select high quality textbooks. Extant studies suggest that most CPD approaches used thus far are typically loosely-matched to the teachers' actual CPD needs, unrelated to classroom realities, and are seldom followed-up. These limitations imply deep-rooted problems and issues concerning how the relevant management structures within the various levels of the Department of Basic Education manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

This qualitative case study examines the role of curriculum coordinators and school management teams (SMTs) in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, respectively, at the selected area offices and secondary schools in the North West Province. Through purposive sampling, this study involved the following participants: four curriculum coordinators, eight subject advisors, 24 principals, 24 Heads of Departments and 24 teachers. Empirical data were collected by means of interviews and document analysis. Data analysis followed Tesch's steps for open coding.

The findings suggest that the identified curriculum coordinators and SMTs are ineffective in discharging their role of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. They lack sound understanding of their role, and they also experience a litany of practical impediments. These barriers, *inter alia*, include limited training for CPD managers, shortage of relevant resources, difficulties of finding a suitable day and time for teachers' CPD, CPD managers' work overload and teachers' change weariness. The implications of these findings on the quality of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation are outlined. Relevant guidelines are developed to address the above challenges. It is anticipated that the findings and recommendations in this study will provide valuable and timely contributions in the fields of teacher development and curriculum change implementation.

Key Terms: curriculum reform, continuing professional development, training workshops, participative management, developmental appraisal, curriculum coordinators, school management team

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACE - Advanced Certificate in Education

ANC - African National Congress

AO - Area Office

AOs - Area Offices

C2005 - Curriculum 2005

CPD - Continuing Professional Development

CPTD - Continuing Professional Teacher Development

DSGs - Development Support Groups

EEA - Employment of Educators Act of 1998

EMGD - Education Management and Governance Division

HEIs - Higher Education Institutions

HoDs - Heads of Departments

INSET - In-Service Education and Training

IPET - Initial Professional Education and Training

IQMS - Integrated Quality Management System

NCS - National Curriculum Statement

NGOs - Non-Governmental Organisation

NPDE - National Professional Diploma in Education

NPFTED - National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development

NSE - Norms and Standards for Educators

NWED - North West Department of Education

UNW - University of North-West

OBE – Outcomes-Based Education

PDC - Professional Development Committee

RNCS - Revised National Curriculum Statement

SDTs - Staff Development Teams

SIP - School Improvement Plan

SMTs - School Management Teams

SWOT - Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

TQM - Total Quality Management

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCING THE ARGUMENT

A notion that still seems to prevail is that teaching, like all professions, encompasses complex skills that need to be continually adapted to new circumstances. Moreover, teaching today happens in a world of rapid developments. Steensen (in Guro, 2009:10), Botha (2004:239) and Villegas-Reimers (2003:7) avow that enormous educational reforms are currently underway in many corners of the world, in developing as well as in developed countries. Reform of the school curriculum is often considered as a key instrument of educational change in many different nations (Ha, Lee, Chan & Sum, 2004:421; McCulloch, in Guro, 2009:19). The transformation of the education system in the post-1994 South Africa is no exception.

In 1997, the African National Congress (ANC) - led government replaced Apartheid Education with Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) (Department of Education, 2001:2). This decision impinged directly upon pedagogical practices in the classroom. Teaching and learning experiences had to move away from rote learning, subject-bound, content-laden approach of the past apartheid education system (Department of Education, 2001a:22) to the current learner-centred and outcomes-driven curriculum. Since the OBE approach differs vastly from the previous teacher-centred and content-based practice, one would imagine the implementation of curriculum change to be accompanied by proportionately high-quality continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers. Nonetheless, this did not happen as expected.

The literature indicates that the majority of teachers' CPD strategies for curriculum change implementation in the post-apartheid South Africa were inadequate to provide teachers with the necessary subject content matter knowledge, pedagogic skills and attitude to carry out their classroom responsibilities effectively (Steyn, 2010:157; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59; Phorabatho, 2010:93). This shortfall is mainly attributable to their inherent nature. Typically, they were identified as being brief, fragmented, incoherent encounters that were decontextualised in terms of the actual professional development needs of teachers, and unrelated to real classroom situations (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:60; Masoge, 2008:181). Furthermore, they lacked follow-up through classroom-based monitoring, mentoring and support (Department of Basic Education, 2009:55). These limitations could be a manifestation of underlying systemic problems associated with the management of teachers' CPD at the various levels of the Department of Basic Education.

This study argues that the issues and problems related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be known and tackled at all levels of the education system. This can be achieved provided two compelling conditions exist: First, proper management structures and processes that aim to improve the quality of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in every level of the education system; and second, the responsible managers understand and carry out their roles effectively.

1.2   BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The euphoria of replacing Apartheid Education with OBE in the post-1994 South Africa was soon dulled by devastations involved in curriculum change implementation. Specifically, the nationwide implementation of curriculum change in schools was faced with a litany of challenges. The following were recognised as some of the major ones: policy overload, inadequate orientation, training and development of teachers, shortage of personnel and resources to implement and support the new curriculum, and limited support to schools from systems of the Provincial Education Departments (Chisholm, 2000; Ndou, 2008; Department of Basic Education, 2009).

While the abovementioned barriers militated against the implementation of curriculum change in varying ways, related literature abounds with theoretical evidence to suggest that the intense lack of adequately knowledgeable and competent professional teachers doubtlessly had a more significant influence on the difficulties of implementing curriculum change than others (Fiske & Ladd, in Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59). This problem was detected in 2000 (Chisholm, 2000:5); that is, within two years of the initial implementation of the OBE curriculum. Despite the longstanding awareness, it continues unabatedly to be felt to the present day (Kgosana; Serrao & Breytenbach, in Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:206; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59; Department of Basic Education, 2009:55).

The Department of Education, however, applied two main CPD strategies to deal with the aforementioned problem. First, it embraced the training workshop approach and tied it down to the cascade training model (Gulston, 2010:10, Saib, 2004:3; Chisholm, 2000:59). Second, the department, in collaboration with the relevant universities, deployed short courses, namely, the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) and later the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE). The aim of the above short courses was twofold: to address the plight of unqualified and under-qualified teachers [who were already in the system], and to hone teachers' skills for effective delivery of the OBE subjects in classrooms (Department of Education, 2008:16). Nonetheless, the training workshop and short courses strategies offered teachers very little help to improve their classroom practice (Department of Basic Education, 2009:56; Saib, 2004:3; Chisholm, 2000:59).

Among other limitations, scholars agree that these strategies were commonly not based on the teachers' actual needs and were also detached from the real classroom situations (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:77; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:60; Steyn, 2010:157).

Prinsloo (2008:219) contends that the issues around the adequacy or otherwise of the teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is the responsibility of the relevant management structures within the education system. In accordance with Prinsloo's contention, the Department of Education (2007:3) states that the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation hinges largely on, among others, the 'employer's' provision of sustained leadership, management and support. This suggests that the Department of Basic Education, as the employer of teachers, assumes inalienable policy responsibility for managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The principle of cooperative governance (embedded in the Constitution), however, stipulates that the national government should provide national policy framework, but administrative responsibility lies with the different provinces through their sub-systems, *viz*. districts and schools (Department of Education, 2008:2).

It is worthy to note that the nine provincial education departments in South Africa have varied levels of administration. A distinctive situation in the North West Education Department (NWED), which is a focus of this study, is the extension of its district offices' administration with the Area Offices (AOs). The AOs in the NWED are expected to function as administrative sub-systems that provide support to schools in all areas of educational need (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:216). The structure of the different AOs in the NWED comprises a subject advisory unit under the supervision of a curriculum coordinator. This unit is responsible for providing the teachers with professional training, development and support concerning curriculum reform implementation (Mosoge, 2008:177; Hoadley & Chisholm, 2005:12). In the light of the above views, it becomes discernible that the oversight on the management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at AO level rests with the respective curriculum coordinators (Employment of Educators Act in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C69). Similarly, Jones (in Somo, 2007:3) and Dean (1991:101) agree with the Employment of Educators Act (in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C64-C65) that managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation constitutes one of the primary roles and responsibilities of the school management teams (SMTs) at school level.

It was against this background that the current study fitted well into examining the roles of the curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The present researcher perceived the AOs and schools as the operational delivery points of the provision of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The term 'CPD

managers', was used in this study as a collective noun to refer to the curriculum coordinators and SMTs, against the backdrop of the uniformity of their duties and responsibilities involved in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at AO and school levels, respectively (cf. 2.5).

Having outlined the background to this study, it is now necessary to state the research problem of this study.

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

Although teachers undergo training aiming to improve the quality of curriculum change implementation, it is common to find narratives of inadequate teacher orientation, training and development as one of the leading impediments to effective curriculum change implementation in schools. Since this problem persists, in spite of the CPD strategies applied by the Department of Basic Education, the way in which relevant management structures in the AOs and schools manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation warrants investigation. This study, therefore, sought to investigate and answer the following main research question:

How do curriculum coordinators and SMTs manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, respectively, at the selected area offices and secondary schools in the North West Province?

In order to help answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were investigated:

- What does effective CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change involve?

- What constitutes the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation?

- What obstacles, if any, do the managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation encounter in discharging their tasks, and how can the obstacles be addressed? And,

- What recommendations can be made, in the form of guidelines, to enhance the effectiveness of managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum implementation at AO and school levels?

1.4   RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The overriding aim of this study was to examine how curriculum coordinators and SMTs manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, respectively, at the selected area offices and

secondary schools in the North West Province, with a view to developing guidelines that may be used to strengthen the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs, as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in schools.

The following were the specific objectives of this study:

- to explore what entails effective teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;

- to establish what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;

- to determine the nature of impediments, if any, that CPD managers encounter in performing their tasks effectively, and possible strategies to tackle them; and,

- to develop recommendations that may serve as guidelines to enhance the effectiveness of the role of CPD managers.

In addition to providing support to shape the focus of the current study, the above objectives also formed the basis from which the research design was developed. Before describing the research design and methodology to be employed, it is necessary to discuss the rationale behind this study.

1.5   THE RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The following served as motivation for the researcher to conduct this study:

Firstly, this study flowed from and expanded upon some of the findings and recommendations made in the researcher's Master of Education dissertation titled, *Managing the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement in Moretele secondary schools*. Since the completion of the above study, the researcher had been fixated on the strategies to uplift the standards of curriculum change implementation in South Africa. It was anticipated that this study might be one initiative to achieve this goal.

Secondly, as a former secondary school principal, the researcher realised that a number of activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation were poorly managed and implemented, thereby failing to develop the subject-content knowledge and pedagogical skills of teachers to enable them to discharge their classroom mandate meaningfully. This study hoped to add to the knowledge-base of how curriculum coordinators and SMTs should manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, respectively, at AO and school levels;

Thirdly, there appeared to be great paucity of studies, particularly in the North West Province, in which empirical research had been carried out to appraise the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs with regard to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation with a view to suggesting ways in which such roles could be improved. In fact, South Africa seemed to be lacking in the literature that provides guidelines for managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Rather, focus in most existing research relating to the implementation of curriculum change and CPD in South Africa is on the examination of the effectiveness of the existing CPD models, in that way, leaving a relatively sparse literature on management thereof. The current study sought to fill or at least reduce the gaps involved in the limited literature as regards the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. LeCompte and Preissle (1993:37) aver that educational research should contribute to closing gaps in knowledge, expanding knowledge, generating investigation into neglected fields, and facilitating the integration of emerging conceptual fields; and,

Finally, this study was founded on the belief that its findings and recommendations may contribute to the betterment of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at AO and school levels, with a view to positively influencing the quality of the most current and future teachers' CPD initiatives for curriculum change implementation, which in turn, might improve the quality of curriculum change implementation.

The next section focuses on the research methodology that was adopted in finding answers to the research questions of this study.

1.6   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

This study adopted the qualitative research approach. This choice emanates from manifold considerations, including the following:

- The nature of this study's main research question (Heck, 2011:204; Creswell, 2009:130). Qualitative research strategy is most suited to answer the 'how' questions (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011:289; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:75; Yin, 2009:27). To reiterate, the current study's central question was: *How do curriculum coordinators and SMTs manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at the selected area offices and secondary schools, respectively, in the North West Province*?

- Focus on understanding the phenomenon under review according to meanings assigned by its natural inhabitants, and not the preconceived meaning that the researcher brought to the

research or which other writers express about the problem (Lichtman, 2013:69; Yin, 2011:8; Creswell, 2009:175). As a result, empirical data of the current study comprised thick description of the participants' meanings – their thoughts, feelings, assumptions, beliefs and values - about the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Harwell, 2011:148; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:207);

▪ The researcher served as the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009:175; Merriam, 2009:15; Miles & Huberman, in Toma, 2011:265). This feature enabled the researcher to interact with individuals or groups, whose experiences he sought to understand, in a face-to-face situation, in their natural habitats and capture the realities that existed there (Harwell, 2011:148; Yin, 2011:8; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:207). The present researcher did not have to rely on questionnaires or instruments developed by other researchers;

▪ Qualitative approach espouses inductive logic to answer research questions. The process of inductive reasoning enabled the researcher to open new ways of understanding the phenomenon that was being investigated without any pre-empting of possible research findings. Moreover, the use of predetermined hypotheses, as McMillan and Schumacher (2010:323) note, would have otherwise limited the richness of what was collected and possibly led to bias in the study; and,

▪ A final and major distinguishing attribute of the qualitative research paradigm was that, it provided greater flexibility in both strategies and the research process than in quantitative studies where steps and procedures that guide the study are predetermined (Sowell, 2001:22).

A case study research design was followed as a means for exploring and understanding the meaning that individuals and groups ascribe to the subject under review (Creswell, 2009:4). A case study refers to an in-depth exploration, description and analysis of interactions of a particular phenomenon in a bounded (enclosed) system in its real-life situation over a period of time (Merriam, 2009:40; Creswell, 2007:73; Opie, 2004:74). Scholars agree that a case being studied can involve a single unit such as one individual, group, activity, event, programme, or even a process (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:345; Ary et al., 2006:32; Fouché, 2003:275). The 'case' for investigation in this study was the description of participants' understanding of the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD; the main aim being to establish ways in which such role could be improved.

A key strength of the case study design generally, is that it allows the researcher to study the phenomenon 'holistically' in its natural context using multiple sources and techniques in the data

collection process, such as, interviews, document analysis, observation, archival records, and physical artefacts (Yin, 2009:101; Springer, 2010:406; Ary et al., 2006:458). This study, however, employed interviews and document analysis as data collection methods.

A major limitation of the case study strategy is that it provides limited basis for scientific generalisation (Chadderton & Torrance, 2011:54; Yin, 2009:15, Robbins, 2009:92). The main point of the present study was not to generalise its findings across the population of curriculum coordinators and SMTs. Rather, the goal was to provide greater insight and understanding of the dynamics of a case under examination through the lens of the participants (Cohen et al., 2011:157; Nieuwenhuis, 2011a:76). Notwithstanding limitations of generalisation, case study findings may be transferable in other cases and contexts with similar background (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:252). In his opinion, Maila (2003:63) considers that the findings can also be useful for further research of the issues revealed in a particular study. Detailed discussion of the research methodology and design used in this study follows in chapter three of this study.

With the above brief discussion of qualitative research methodology as background information, attention now shifts to who constituted the sample of the current study, where, how, and why they were selected.

1.6.1 Sampling and sample selection

This study used purposive sampling. The explicit purpose was to obtain the richest possible sources of information to answer the research question (Silverman, 2010:141; Creswell, 2009:179; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:79). The point was not empirical generalisation (Patton, 2002:230), but to select cases that could provide "insights and articulateness" needed to attain the desired thick description of the phenomenon under study (Gay & Airasian, 2003:115).

Succinct discussion of the identification of the participants and sites, including the basis for their selection, follows in the next segment.

1.6.1.1 Participant selection

The following participants were selected:

- Four Further Education and Training (FET) curriculum coordinators: one FET curriculum coordinator per participating AO. FET curriculum coordinators are heads of the subject advisory units in the AOs, and are therefore, presumed to be responsible for managing CPD

initiatives for teachers concerning the implementation of curriculum change in their respective AOs;

- Eight FET subject advisors: two FET subject advisors were sampled from each selected AO. Only subject advisors that had been in the service (as subject advisors) in the selected AOs prior to 2006, a year in which the NCS was implemented for the first time in the FET band's Grade 10 classrooms, were selected. In the North West Province, subject advisors are responsible to train, develop and support teachers to implement curriculum change effectively in the classrooms (Hoadley & Chisholm, 2005:12);

- Twenty-four secondary school principals. From each of the four sampled AOs, six secondary school principals were selected for participation in the current study. Principals are considered to be the custodians of managing curriculum change implementation in schools. They are, therefore, responsible for managing staff training and development programmes, school-based, school-focused and externally directed (Department of Education, in Brunton, 2003:C64). Only principals that had been appointed in the position at secondary schools before 2006 were sampled in this study;

- Twenty-four Heads of Departments (HoDs). One HoD was selected from each participating secondary school. Only HoDs that had been in the position at a secondary school prior to 2006 were selected. HoDs are the integral members of SMT and therefore, are also responsible for managing programmes designed to enhance the professional competence of teachers in their respective schools. HoDs were selected on the basis of gender and experience in the position. That is, three male and three female HoDs with the highest number of years of service in that position were sampled for focus group interviews in each AO. In the event of a tie in both fields of selection, gender balance was put aside and a volunteer was accepted to participate in this study; and,

- Twenty-four secondary school teachers: one teacher was sampled from each of the six participating secondary schools in each AO. Only teachers that had been teaching in the FET band since 2006 and had at least taught in a Grade 12 classroom since 2008 were chosen as participants in this study. Again, a principle of gender sensitivity was applied by selecting three male and three female teachers per sampled AO for in-depth study.

Regardless of preset criteria, selection of teachers was not always straightforward. There was array of multiple eligible candidates from whom to choose. Consequently, assistance was sought from the participating principals for identification of suitable teachers in their different

schools who had interest in the present study to ensure that only information-rich participants were included in this study (Greeff, in Steyn, 2010:163). Volunteers were also considered. Liamputtong and Ezzy (2005:45), endorse that in a qualitative study, non-probable samples include volunteers, sometimes motivated by certain gains or special interest in the topic.

These samples were chosen not only because they would meet the purpose of the current study (Check & Schutt, 2012:104; Boeije, 2010:35), but also because of their professional roles, expertise or experience, they were likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomenon under investigation (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011:157; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:326). Purposive sampling decision in this study also included the selection of the locale from which data were sourced.

1.6.1.2   Site selection

This study was conducted in the Bojanala and Ngaka Modiri Molema Districts of the North West Province, South Africa. The above districts had distinct attributes related to and appropriate to the research problem and aim. Bojanala district was chosen simply because it allowed access (Silverman, 2010:141). The researcher was a principal in one of the secondary schools in the district, and stays within a reasonable distance to most of its AOs and schools. Therefore, conducting this study in the above district was economic in terms of money and time. On the other hand, Ngaka Modiri Molema District was sampled specifically due to its strategic and geographic position in the Province. Along with its proximity to the North-West University, one of the universities contracted to upgrade teachers in the North West Education Department (NWED) through the ACE programmes; the district has its administrative office located within reach of the NWED head office. The researcher was interested to see if the above features would have influence on the quality of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in the AOs and schools within the Ngaka Modiri Molema District.

Most importantly, the above districts were selected on the basis of representativeness in terms of this study's population of interest, namely, the area offices (AOs) and secondary schools. They were the most populous regarding the number of AOs and schools. By that means, they provided the researcher with a variety of site options from which to choose for this study. Bojanala district had 134 secondary schools spread among its six AOs; and Ngaka Modiri Molema district comprised five AOs that were responsible for 92 secondary schools.

From the Bojanala District, two AOs, namely, Rustenburg and Moretele were identified for participation in this study. Likewise, this study was conducted at Mahikeng and Ditsobotla AOs in the

Ngaka Modiri Molema District. From each of the sampled AOs, six secondary schools were purposively selected. Only secondary schools that offered the Grade 12 National Senior Certificate (matric) in 2010 were sampled. In total, 24 secondary schools participated in this study: 12 secondary schools from Bojanala District and 12 from Ngaka Modiri Molema District.

The individual AO's reports on the Grade 12 National Senior Certificate (NSC) final examination results of 2010 were used as a source from which two schools from the top, median and, low performing school categories were sampled respectively. The use of the 2010 Grade 12 NSC results as a criterion for selection of participating schools was based on the following three main considerations:

Firstly, the Grade 12 NSC examinations have become an annual event which attracts significant attention from all sectors of society in South Africa. Hence, it is no surprise that these examinations and their results are quality-assured by Umalusi, a Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training;

Secondly, Grade 12 final examination does not only signify the culmination of twelve years of formal schooling but the NSC examination is one of the key barometers to indicate the state of health of the education system. The Department of Basic Education (2009:30) states that the NSC is the most standardised and regular method of systemic testing in South Africa. In this sense, the results of a Grade 12 class, can presumably be perceived as a mirror that reflects the degree of quality to which curriculum change implementation is managed in all grade levels in a particular secondary school; and,

Lastly, the year 2010 is of particular significance to this study because between 2006 and 2010 (a period of 5 years) several reform initiatives have been applied to improve the implementation of the NCS. Therefore, it was in the best interest of this study to describe and evaluate how curriculum coordinators and SMTs have been managing CPD of teachers for the implementation of the OBE-driven curriculum and its associated rapid reforms in this period.

It was assumed that the variance in learner performance could be related to the way teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was managed in the selected schools. Nonetheless, the choice of sites with variant qualities provided different perspectives concerning the subject under review. Creswell (2007:126) contends that when a researcher maximises differences among cases at the beginning of this study, it increases the likelihood that the findings will reflect differences or different perspectives. Although the findings of this study cannot be generalised, through the in-

depth study of schools and AOs, the sampled districts yielded many insights and rich information that contributed towards the realisation of the aim of this thesis (cf. 1.4).

Having outlined the sampling and sample selection, this study now turns to the instruments used to collect the data. .

1.6.2   Data collection instruments

Data collection was accomplished through interviews and examination of documents. Esterberg (2002:176) points out that if the researcher uses multiple data collection instruments, their analysis and conclusions are likely to be much sounder than if they rely on only one source of evidence. The interview and document analysis instruments are briefly discussed in the ensuing subsections.

1.6.2.1   The interview

Qualitative interviewing was used as a predominant data collection tool for the empirical study. It involves a purposeful two-way interaction between two or more people where the interviewer asks questions to collect data and learns about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions, and behaviour of the participants (Gay & Airasian, 2003:290; Babbie, 2004:300). Cohen et al. (2011:411) aver that research interview refers to a type of conversation that is initiated explicitly for the purpose of obtaining relevant data. The object of qualitative interviews in this study was to see the world of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation through the eyes of the participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:87). Interviews were, therefore, ideal for the researcher to establish participants' perceptions, experiences and expectations regarding the role of CPD managers in the selected sites (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:355; Punch, 2009:144).

Worth mentioning, the interview instrument provided the present researcher with the advantage of supplying large volumes of in-depth data rather more quickly and efficiently than other data collection methods like questionnaires and observations (Ary et al., 2006:480; Greeff, 2003:305). Similarly, Check and Schutt (2012:174) and Babbie (2004:263) concur that the response rate in interview instrument is generally higher than with any other methods such as questionnaires. The interview instrument was particularly convenient for probing, immediate follow-up and clarification on the questions of the researcher as well as on the responses of the participants.

Interviews were conducted on face-to-face basis. An audio-tape, and pen and paper were used as reliable tools to record the deliberations during the interviews. The researcher, nonetheless,

ensured that neither note-taking nor tape-recording interfered with the researcher's full attention on any response during interview sessions.

Individual and focus group forms of interviews were used, and are therefore briefly discussed in turn in the ensuing segments.

1.6.2.1.1 Unstructured individual interviews

Unstructured individual interviews were held on one-on-one basis with curriculum coordinators, subject advisors and teachers. It was believed that these individuals had special knowledge or status in the subject under investigation and were willing to share such with the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:343).

Data collection through unstructured individual interviews from the above key informants was preferred over focus group interviews due to logistical considerations which would make focus group interviews impractical. Besides the fact that each AO has one curriculum coordinator, it was considered that the participation of subject advisors and teachers in group interviews was likely to inhibit the desired openness, free flow of ideas and the desired objective responses.

1.6.2.1.2 Semi-structured focus group interviews

In total, eight focus group interviews were conducted in this study, that is, two in each of the four participating AO. In short, this study administered two separate focus group interviews; one exclusively for principals and the other for heads of departments (HoDs) in each of the sampled AOs. Johnson and Christensen (2008:210) observe that the conduct of different focus groups as part of a single research project is quite common because it is unwise to rely on the information provided by a single focus group. In a related view, Nieuwenhuis (2011:90) and Babbie (2004:303) discourage researchers from using just one focusfof group interview as it is likely to inhibit chances to gain the much sought-after alternative perspectives related to the subject under study.

The focus groups comprised homogeneous participants who were in some way unfamiliar with one another. They were, therefore, selected because they shared characteristics that were relevant to the question of this study (Check & Schutt, 2012:205; Marshall & Rossman, 2011:149; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:363). The demarcation of focus groups according to their ranks and levels of responsibility (i.e. separate focus groups exclusively for principals and HoDs) in schools in a single focus group helped increase the participants' comfort in expressing opinions (Ary et al., 2006:482)

and allowed for the free flow of ideas. It furthermore reduced the possible feeling of intimidation that might have otherwise led to the suppression of in-depth information needed in this study.

The size of each focus group in a single interview session was limited to 6 participants drawn from the 6 participating secondary schools per AO. Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Liao (2004:393) endorse that a focus group should consist of between 6 and 12 participants. In deciding the size of a focus group, the researcher was careful that it was not "... so large as to be unwieldy or to preclude adequate participation by most members nor … so small that it fails to provide substantially greater coverage than that of an interview with one individual" (Merton, Fiske & Kendall, in Ferreira, 2011:107).

Focus group interviews were chosen on the assumption that group interaction would always be productive in widening the range of much sought-after responses. Of note, the participants were able to build on each other's ideas and comments to provide in-depth views and aspects of the topic that would have otherwise not emerged from interviews with individuals (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:90; Babbie, 2004:303). In essence, the interactions among participants enhanced data quality, checks and balances on each other and easy assessment of synergy and/or differences of opinions, beliefs, and feelings about the subject of study among the participants (Greeff, 2003:307). In addition, focus group interviews were economical as they provided opportunities to gather multiple viewpoints and in-depth information about the topic under study in one sitting per session in a relatively short period of time (Heck, 2011:207; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:210).

The focus group interviews were conducted in a semi-structured manner with the help of interview guides (cf. Appendices 3 & 4). The guides were used to ensure that all pertinent issues received attention during the course of the interview encounters (Check & Schutt, 2012:203; Welman, Kruger & Mitchel, 2011:166). Semi-structured interview technique was suitable because it allowed depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the participant's responses (Hitchcock & Hughes, in Saib, 2004:71).

Criteria for the selection of participants for qualitative interviews (both individual and focus group) are expounded in section 1.7.2.2 (participant selection) of this study.

1.6.2.2 Document analysis

Document analysis was adopted as another useful data collection tool in this study. Primarily, this instrument was used to supplement data obtained through interviews. Ramroop (2004:55) and Yin (2009:103) advocate the effectiveness of document analysis to verify, corroborate and augment evidence gathered through interviews. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:361), state that document

analysis concerns the examination of written documentation of activities which represent people's experiences, knowledge, values and actions originally recorded at an earlier time, usually for a different purpose than research (Punch, 2009:158).

As Heck (2011:207) observes, documents can provide vital indications of the organisation in action. In addition to the description of the functions and values and how various participants defined their organisations in terms of the phenomenon under examination, the documents provided deep understanding of the official chain of command and provided clues about leadership styles (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:361).

The following constitute the list of documents related to the research problem that were examined:

- Government (both national and provincial) policies and reports;

- Training workshop materials;

- Invitation notices to training workshops , seminars, conferences, etc.;

- Records of developmental appraisal outcomes;

- Grade 12 examination subject-specific analytical moderators' reports (cf. 4.3.2.2.1); and,

- Budget allocations in the selected schools.

In highlighting the importance of the above documents, McMillan and Schumacher (2010:361) aver that these documents provide internal perspective on an organisation and describe its functions and values in terms of which various people define it. The documents were also helpful in the identification of the chain of command and provided clues about the organisation's leadership style and values. The leads from the analysis of document were specifically vital in assisting the researcher to prepare appropriate questions for the interviews.

The researcher took pains to ensure the authenticity and credibility of all documents submitted for examination in the research (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:83). Additionally, efforts were undertaken to always be wary of bias in the data sources. It is also worthy to note that documents would have not made sense without interviews (or *vice versa*). Taken together, these diverse sources of information and data gave the researcher a complete picture of the phenomenon under study

Having explained how data were collected, it is now appropriate to focus on data analysis procedures used in this study.

1.6.3   Data analysis

Data analysis refers to procedures and processes to bring order, structure and meaning to the mass of data collected in a study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:207). Data were analysed through the Tesch's open coding method (Creswell, 2009:186). This approach involved an inductive process of examining, selecting, categorising, comparing, synthesising and interpreting data for plausible explanations to address the principal aim of this study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:367).

According to Nieuwenhuis, (2011a:99), data analysis in qualitative research tends to be an on-going and iterative (non-linear) process, implying that data collection, processing, analysis and reporting are intertwined, and not merely a number of successive steps. In this sense, the processes of data collection, data analysis, and report writing in the current study did not happen as distinct steps – rather they were performed concurrently as overlapping cycles (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:389; Creswell, 2007:150). In this way, the researcher did not wait until all data were 'in' before beginning to analyse them (Ary et al., 2006:454). The analysis of data commenced from the outset of the first interview, and continued while working on the research.

1.7   DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study restricted its lens to the examination of the operational role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs (and not of other educational managers) in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The present study's sphere of interest and activity was on the curriculum change implementation as it concerns the secondary schools' FET band (Grades 10-12). Accordingly, this study focused on the management of teachers' CPD for the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement, as the current curriculum change being implemented in the South African secondary schools.

The setting of this study was delimited to the purposively selected 24 secondary schools drawn from the four participating AOs of Mahikeng and Ditsobotla (in Ngaka Modiri Molema District) and Moretele and Rustenburg (in Bojanala District) in the North West Province. It is, therefore, understood that because the project was circumscribed and situated in a specific context, claims to generalisability of its findings would not be feasible. Marshall and Rossman (2011:252) however, argue that although no qualitative studies may be generalised in the statistical sense, their findings may be transferable. For that reason, the findings in this study may be broadly applicable to other similar settings as they may highlight issues and understandings involved in managing teachers' CPD for the implementation of curriculum change that may be applicable in other parts of South Africa or even internationally.

1.8   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher obtained permission to conduct this study from the NWED Head of Department (cf. Appendix 2). The participants' involvement was predicated on the principle of informed consent. In this way, the participants were made aware that although their participation was valued, their role was voluntary. Therefore, they were at liberty to withdraw should they feel uneasy in the process of this study.

The principle of anonymity was also considered. Throughout the processes in the present study, anonymity was ensured by the use of pseudonyms/ code names in the places of participants' real names (Schulze, 2002:18). All information presented by the participants and data derived from examined documents was subjected to strictest confidentiality. This approach rests on the assumption that documents may take a private or confidential form because they may refer to or implicate people other than their owners or keepers (Mason, in Thwala, 2010:86).

1.9   DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Most of the key concepts in this study are widely used in related literature. Therefore, it is essential to clarify what they mean in the context of this study. This is approached in two categories, namely concepts inherent in the topic and concepts related to the topic.

1.9.1   Concepts inherent in the topic

1.9.1.1   Managing

The concept, *managing,* in the context of this study, is derived from the broader concept of management. In the context of this study, *managing* relates to the various tasks of planning, organising, leading, and controlling (Smit, Cronje, Brevis & Vrba, 2011:6; Van Deventer, 2008:75; Lussier, 2009:86; Hill & McShane, 2008:4), as attached to the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation.

1.9.1.2   Continuing

According to Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (1989:254), *continuing* is an adjective of the word 'continue' which means 'go on or more further'. This definition implies recognition of something in the form of prior knowledge and skills that need to be 'moved further'. It is understood that professional teachers have already gained elementary knowledge and skills, and basic qualification from their Initial Professional Education and Training (IPET) experiences. *Continuing* is a concept

used in this study to suggest increasing the levels of knowledge, skills and possibly qualifications of professional teachers for the implementation of curriculum change.

1.9.1.3   Professional

Professional, in this study is used as an adjectival noun, to describe the attributes of teachers as people having a substantial background of knowledge and skills acquired during initial training and thereafter (Dean, 1991:5). Bubb and Earley (2007:3) state that one of the criteria used for identifying a professional is when a person continues to learn throughout a career. The current South African education system requires teachers to play the role of a 'scholar, researcher and lifelong learner' (Department of Education, 2000:13) in order to execute their professional tasks effectively.

1.9.1.4   Development

Burke (1987:233) explains the concept, *development*, as a process of growth and maturation of knowledge and skills possessed by individuals. In a related view, Megginson et al. (in Geel, 2005:13) define d*evelopment* as a long-term process designed to improve potential and effectiveness. It essentially involves a systematic process of training and growth by which the individual acquires knowledge, skills, abilities, insight and attitude to do his/her job meaningfully (Van Rooyen et al., in Nkabinde, 2006:9). It is against the backdrop of the above definitions that the concept d*evelopment* is used in this study to refer the general goal of CPD to enhance the skills, knowledge and attitudes of professional teachers in areas including teaching methods, curriculum, lesson plans, professional confidence etc. (Day & Sachs, 2004:48; Coetzer, in Lessing & De Witt, 2007:55) for the effective implementation of curriculum change.

1.9.1.5   Continuing professional development

The literature identifies continuing professional development (CPD) as one of the many facets of professional development in education. Other such terms that fall under professional development include 'in-service education and training', 'professional growth', 'human resource development', and 'staff development' (Webb, Montello & Norton in Steyn, 1999:207). The uniqueness of CPD, however, emanates from its emphasis of improving and increasing capabilities of staff by means of access to workplace on-going education and training, usually provided by outside agents, or through others perform the job.

Several scholars understand CPD as all-encompassing formal and informal development activities engaged in by professional teachers on continual basis, following their initial professional

qualification and induction, intended mainly or exclusively at improving their professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order that they can teach children more effectively, and concluding with preparation for retirement (Bubb & Earley, 2007:3; Steyn & Van Niekerk; 2002:250; Craft, 1996:6.

Within the context of this study, CPD is used broadly to refer to formal and informal activities undertaken by teachers either individually or collectively throughout their careers to enhance their professional knowledge, understanding, competence and leadership capacity; in particular to increase their mastery of the curriculum and their teaching areas, their skill in teaching and facilitating learning, their understanding of learners and their developmental needs, and their commitment to the best interest of developing their learners and their schools (South African Council for Educators, 2008:3).

1.9.1.6   Teacher

The concepts *teacher* and 'educator' are commonly used identically and often interchangeably in most studies. In this study a distinction is made between the two, rather than to perceive them as synonymous. This effort is purposely undertaken to explicitly distinguish teachers who are at the coalface of implementing curriculum change in the classroom from other educators whose role include, providing the general support needed to improve the quality of curriculum change implementation.

The current study acknowledges that in the recent South African education legislations such as the South African Schools Act (SASA) of 1996 and the Employment of Educators Act (EEA) of 1998, the term 'educator' is preferred as opposed to *teacher*. Notwithstanding, in the South African Council for Educators Code of Conduct-The Teacher as Educator (1999:9) the word 'educator' is defined as "any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons or provides professional therapy at any school, technical, college of education or assists in rendering professional services or performs educational management services or education auxiliary services provided by, or in a department of education and any other person registered with the Council." Deriving from this definition, it can be understood that the concept 'educator' is used to cover a range of role-players in the education system (Department of Education, 2005:6) including teachers.

On the contrary, Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks and Scheerens (in Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:13) concur that the word *teacher* refers specifically to a full time classroom practitioner, whose main function is more instructional in approach than management, one who offers formal instructions to learners

and whose professional activity involves transmission of stipulated knowledge, attitude and skills to learners enrolled in a particular educational programme in a school.

In this study, the concept *teacher* refers to a school-based educator engaged in general classroom teaching in mainstream public and private schools and not necessarily teachers in adult education centres, early child development centres, special schools nor Further Education and Training colleges. It will therefore be used interchangeably with 'educator' but precluding principals, deputy principals and Heads of Departments in mainstream schools.

1.9.1.7   Implementation

This study adopted Fullan and Promfet's (1997) definition of *implementation* as "the actual use of innovation or what innovation consists of in practice" (in Connely, He & Phillion, 2008:113). Ball (in Guro, 2009:20) reminds us that the purpose of implementing new policies in education is often associated with a need to change. The current study focused on the role of the curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for the implementation of the NCS, as curriculum change. The implementation of the NCS is current in South African schools.

1.9.1.8   Curriculum change

Curriculum change is not a new concept. Neither should it be perceived as a uniquely South African phenomenon. McCulloch (in Guro, 2009:19) points out that:

> *Over the past forty years, in many different nations, reform of the school curriculum has been widely sought as a key of educational change. Reforming the content and form of what is taught has often appeared to be even more important in this respect than other familiar approaches, such as reforming the organisation of educational system.*

Scholars concur that *curriculum change* is not mere changes in syllabus content, but reappraisal of the nature of school knowledge and outcomes, since it implies a new way of representing knowledge to the students (Elliot; Tanner & Rehage in Phorabatho, 2010:16). In the South African context, and for the purposes of this study, *curriculum change* embraces the introduction and implementation of Curriculum 2005 (C2005), the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) and the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) with all its supplementary reforms which signify enormous shift from the past apartheid Christian National Education (CNE) curriculum and the interim secondary schools' curriculum known as, *A Résumé of Instructional Programmes in Schools*, Report 550 (2008/08).

Although much light is shed on the NCS as the current curriculum policy implemented in the FET band of the South African secondary schools, this study, nonetheless, reflected on the way in which CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change has been managed since the inception of C2005 to the present, in order to strengthen its arguments.

1.9.2   Concepts related to the topic

1.9.2.1   Training

In the context of this study, *training* refers to a process of changing the skills, attitudes, and knowledge of teachers with the primary purpose of improving their levels of competence and effective delivery of curriculum change in classrooms. Seifert (in Nkabinde, 2006:11) maintains that in general, *training* relates to those activities aimed at improving performance in the current post.

According to Conco (2004:15), *training* is usually a planned process that takes two main forms namely, on-the job training and off-the- job training. The former focuses on a kind of *training* whereby employees receive instruction within the place of work, usually through observing the tasks and being guided through them by experts, and practising them. And, the latter refers to *training* whereby employees are instructed away from the place of work (Edmund, in Conco, 2004:15). *Training* of teachers in the present study will be elaborately focusing on both afore-cited forms.

In this study, the concept *training* is used interchangeably with development to emphasise the interdependence and acute importance of the two terms in the present South African education system which is fraught with changes. It is assumed that while the objective of *training* involves orientating and equipping professional teachers with requisite basic skills, development seeks to sustain and advance the acquired skills and competencies of professional teachers for the effective implementation of curriculum change.

In fact, the degree to which most professional teachers lack basic skills for the implementation of OBE-driven curriculum suggests that *training* is indispensable in orientating them to acquire new goals and values, to prepare them to cope with the demands of curriculum change implementation, to train them in new teaching and learning methods, and to provide them with the knowledge and skills to teach new subjects (Conco, 2004:7). This study, therefore, limited its brief to continuing teacher training in support of the effective curriculum change implementation.

1.9.2.2   The Department of Education

In this study the *Department of Education* refers to the national Department of Education which came into existence after the newly formed democratic government dismantled the 19 racially-oriented departments of education of the past apartheid regime. The concept also involves other subsystems of the *Department of Education* from the provincial administration to districts and/ or AOs but precludes schools.

1.9.2.3   The Department of Basic Education

In 2009 the Department of Education was deliberately split of into two ministries namely, the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) –responsible for institutions of higher education and training- and the *Department of Basic Education* (DBE) –focusing on the school system. In the current study, *t*he Department of Basic Education refers to the national department responsible for basic education which includes general and further education and training, Grades R-12.

There are instances in this study where the researcher uses the Department of (Basic) Education. This is deliberately intended to highlight continuity of certain policy directives, approaches and practices related to the CPD that were inherited by the Department of Basic Education from the split Department of Education.

1.9.2.4   Curriculum 2005

For purposes of this study, *Curriculum 2005* (C2005) refers to the historically first national school curriculum of the post-1994 South Africa. C2005 was approved as school curriculum policy by the government on 29 September 1997 and subsequently implemented in the grade 1 classroom nationwide in January 1998 (Department of Basic Education, 2009:11). Outcomes-based education (OBE) was adopted as one of its central tenets and mode of delivery in classrooms.

Due to unforeseen yet predictable implementation-bound challenges, C2005 could not be implemented in the Further Education and Training (FET) band (Grades 10-12) as planned. Together with its revised version, Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), C2005 remained a curriculum for the General Education and Training (GET) band-Grades R up to 9.

1.9.2.5 The National Curriculum Statement

According to the Department of Education (2003: viii), the *National Curriculum Statement* (NCS) represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African secondary schools located in the Further Education and Training Grade 10-12 band. It replaces *A Résumé of Instructional Programmes in Schools,* Report 550 (2001/08) as the document that specifies policy on curriculum and qualifications in Grades 10-12. The *NCS* was systematically phased into the FET band in secondary schools countrywide from 2006, in Grade 10; in 2007 in Grade 11, and its ultimate implementation happened in 2008 in Grade12 classes.

1.9.2.6 In-service Education and Training

Henderson (in Mailula, 2004:11) points out that *In-Service Education and Training* (*INSET*) is inclusive of everything that happens to the teacher from the day he takes up his/her first appointment to the day he retires which contributes, directly or indirectly, to the way in which he executes his duties. This view suggests INSET as a phenomenon that embraces all the experiences that a teacher may undergo for the purpose of expanding his/her professional and personal education. Conco (2004:4) observes that INSET has been reconceptualised as continuing professional development of practising teachers. The Department of Education (in Biputh, 2008:211), concurs with the above view when it states that INSET should be perceived as an on-going process of professional development. Conceived of in the light of the above definitions, INSET is then used interchangeably with CPD in this study.

1.10 CHAPTER DIVISION

This study was organised in the following way:

This chapter provided the introduction and background to this study. The aims and the research questions followed by the rationale for the current study were also presented. The research methodology, delimitations of this study, ethical considerations, and clarification of key concepts were succinctly presented in the chapter.

Chapter 2 deals with in-depth review of related literature to gather theoretical information about the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing the implementation of CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change.

Chapter 3 provides a detailed exposition of the research methodology and design adopted for the empirical investigation in this study. It indicates the sample used for the individual and focus group

interviews including the context of the interviews. This chapter also deals with data collection procedure, data analysis process, credibility and trustworthiness of this study.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the empirical investigation to provide further understanding of the problems and issues highlighted in this study.

Chapter 5 summarises the research and its main findings. Of principal importance, recommendations, in the form of a model for managing CPD of teachers, is suggested on how to improve the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change. This chapter also brings about areas to be explored in future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the introduction and background to this study, research problem statement, research questions, the aims and objectives of the present study. The rationale for this study, the research methodology, delimitations of this study, ethical considerations, clarification of key concepts, and the structure of the current thesis were also succinctly presented in the preceding chapter. This chapter examines local and international literature related to the identified research question.

The review of literature refers to the examination of previous research to the related topic, which constitutes the theoretical underpinnings of this study (Suter, 2012:104; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:66). In a related definition, Gay and Airasian (2003:16) assert that literature review involves a systematic identification, location, and analysis of documents containing information related to the research problem. Schulze, Myburg and Poggenpoel (2005:21) describe literature review as a systematic, critical analysis and summary of existing literature relevant to the current research topic. The above definitions suggest literature review as the current study of previous research documents for information related to the topic being studied. These documents can include articles, journals, books, dissertations, other research reports, monographs and electronic media (Gay & Airasian, 2003:16).

The review of related literature serves several important functions in research. Broadly stated, the literature review supports the stated research problem by illuminating the empirical, theoretical and methodological knowledge base for research (Kelley, 2011:84; Merriam, 2009:72; Robson, 2011:52). In elaborating this view, McMillan and Schumacher (2010:73) aver that it serves to relate the problem under investigation to previous research and theory. The purpose of the literature review in this study was to get more information on managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation with particular concern on the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs. By studying what other researchers have done, the researcher was enabled to gain clearer insights into the nature and meaning of problems being studied (Creswell, 2009:25; Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen, 2006:69; Gay & Airasian, 2003:16). With that information in mind, the researcher escaped accidental duplication of previous studies (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:70; Ary et al., 2006:69; Schulze et al., 2005:21), and also avoided other researchers' mistakes, yet profited from their experiences (Gay & Airasian 1992 in Phorabatho, 2010:12). Aside from providing relevant theories

and concepts which constitute the scholarly perspective that undergirded this study (Kelley, 2011:84; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:74; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:68), the review of literature was helpful in identifying research strategies, specific procedures, and measuring tools that have and have not been found to be productive in investigating a similar problem (Robson, 2011:52; Merriam, 2009:72; Ary et al., 2006:69). In short, the goal in reviewing the literature in the present study was not simply to find sources, but to find best sources to help answer the central research question.

The related literature review is structured into three interrelated parts in this chapter. The first part provides a brief overview of curriculum change in the post-1994 South Africa. The next fragment delves into the theoretical perspectives drawn from local and international literature about CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change. Here, this study zooms in on what constitutes an effective CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change. The concluding segment moves firmly into examining the operational theory about the core functions of curriculum coordinators and SMTs-as CPD managers- in managing the CPD of teachers. It includes the identification and description of theoretical impediments to the effective management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and possible remedies thereof. This section, however, closes with a summary of findings from the literature in preparation for the empirical investigation and data analysis. Of cardinal importance, it is expected to be a comprehensive rundown of literature findings to culminate in substantial contributions towards forming sound recommendations in this study.

Without embarking into detail, the next section attempts to provide a short description of what curriculum change in the democratic South Africa entails. An overview of curriculum change in the democratic South Africa is important to enable CPD managers to understand the context within which their functions of managing teacher's CPD occur.

2.2   OVERVIEW OF CURRICULUM CHANGE IN THE POST-1994 SOUTH AFRICA

Transformation of the education system became one of the apex priorities of the post-apartheid South African government. Together with structural changes, the overhauling of the education system involved significant reforms to the school curriculum. A historic national curriculum known as Curriculum 2005 (C2005) was launched in 1997 to replace apartheid curricula. Its nationwide staggered implementation began with the Grade 1 class of 1998. In theory, C2005 was designed to reach all school grade levels by the year 2005. Nonetheless, this did not happen.

Since its initial implementation, C2005 was empirically found to be too complex for schools to practise successfully. Consequently, it had to be ditched. The Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) - Grades R-9, and later the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) - Grades 10-12 were subsequently introduced and implemented in 2004 and 2006 respectively. In essence, the above curricula sought to address the inherent limitations of C2005, and accordingly improve the implementation of curriculum change in schools. The implementation of the NCS is current in the South African secondary schools.

Against the above background, this section intends to provide a brief description of curriculum change in the democratic South Africa paying special attention to: the principles underpinning its curriculum change; the general aims and purposes of the NCS as curriculum change; and the kind of teacher envisaged to implement the NCS. It is to these aspects that this study's attention now turns.

2.2.1   The rationale behind curriculum reform in South Africa after apartheid

Edwards (2006:12) asserts that all curricula are rooted within a certain social, philosophical, historical and technological context of a concerned nation. Implied here is a view that curriculum change often happens in response to changing needs in a society (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:208). School curriculum reform in the post-apartheid South Africa is no exception to this trend. Chisholm (2000:18) endorses this view when she proclaims:

> *Curriculum 2005 is probably the most significant curriculum reform in South African education of the last century. Deliberately intended to simultaneously overturn the legacy of apartheid education and catapult South Africa into the 21st century, it was an innovation both bold and revolutionary in the magnitude of its conception. As the first major curriculum statement of a democratic government, it signalled a dramatic break from the past.'*

The above quotation suggests that the rationale behind the transformation of school curriculum in South Africa was twofold. **First**, the scale of change in the world and the demands of the 21st century required learners to be exposed to different and higher level skills and knowledge than those previously offered by the apartheid curricula (Department of Education, 2007a:2). Consequently, the profound changes taking place globally during the same period as the educational reform framed South Africa's national school curriculum (Department of Education, 2001:3). Consequently, the change was imperative to keep the democratic South Africans abreast of knowledge and skills' demands required of individuals to function effectively in the global society (Vinjevold, 1999:4).

Second, South Africa had changed. As a result, the new democratic government had to provide a system of education sought to overcome the devastation of the past apartheid system through the

development of a school curriculum that does not reproduce diversities, dichotomies and contradictions in society, but one that promotes democracy, human dignity, equality and social justice (Department of Education, 2001b:3). Curricula for schools, therefore, required revision to reflect new the values, beliefs and principles of a non-racial society as espoused by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:207; Department of Education, 2007a:2).

Inferred from the above discussion is a view that not only was the post-1994 curriculum reform responsive to challenges that the society faced at the time but also sought to help develop and provide possible solutions thereof (Letsoko, 2008:5). Consistent with this opinion, Mungazi and Walker (1997:24) point out that curriculum change did not take place for its own sake but to improve prevailing conditions that promote the quality of the lives of the South Africans.

The next section examines the principles underpinning curriculum change in the post-1994 South Africa.

2.2.2   Principles underpinning curriculum change in a democratic South Africa

Wiles and Bondi (1989:3) posit that curriculum contains a set of value-laden assumptions concerning the purpose of education in a particular society. Accordingly, the school curriculum had to be revised to reflect new values and principles, especially those of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (Department of Education, 2007a:2). In short, the school curricula of the post-apartheid South Africa were undergirded by the principles of democracy, human rights, social justice, equity, integrated approach to education and training, an outcomes-based approach, lifelong learning, access to education to all, equity, redress and transforming legacies of the past, non-sexism, non-racism, and *ubuntu* (Department of Education, 2003:7; Day & Sachs, 2004:181; Mda & Mothata, 2000:6).

The founding of the OBE curriculum on democratic principles presumably implies the adoption of corresponding aims and purposes. The next section discusses the general aims and purposes of curriculum change in the democratic South Africa.

2.2.3   The general aims and purposes of the NCS as curriculum change

Department of Basic Education (2011:5) asserts that the "South African Curriculum" aims primarily to ensure that learners acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. In a nutshell, states the Department of Basic Education, (2011:6), the curriculum seeks to produce learners that are able to:

- identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;

- work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team;

- organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;

- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;

- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes;

- use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others; and,

- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

Related to the above broad aims, the Department of Basic Education (2011:5) and the Department of Education (2003:2) concur that the curriculum serves the purposes of:

- equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country;

- providing access to – and basis for continuing learning in - higher education;

- facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace; and

- providing employers with a sufficient profile of a learner's competences.

Curriculum change, including the attainment of its afore-cited goals, is underpinned by a paradigm shift in what it means to be a competent teacher in post-apartheid South Africa (Sayed, 2004:58). This concept is explored and briefly described in the next section.

2.2.4   The kind of teacher envisaged to implement the NCS

The post-1994 curriculum reform initiatives imply major consequences for the role of teachers in South Africa. The Department of Education (2003:18) points out that the implementation of curriculum change presupposes teachers who are qualified, competent, dedicated and caring. Teachers with these qualities, according to the Department of Education (2000:13-14), are required to fulfil various roles which include being,

- a learning mediator;

- an interpreter and designer of learning programmes;

- a leader, administrator and manager;

- a scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;

- a learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist; and,

- playing a community, citizenship and pastoral role, assessor.

It is worthy to note that the above 'seven roles' represent a substantial development from a narrow conception of a teacher as a 'subject content transmitter' of the past apartheid education system (Sayed, 2004:260). Be that as it may, most teachers in South Africa are still found lacking in a number of the abovementioned attributes, including skills and knowledge, to fulfil the roles of a competent teacher adequately in practice (Sayed, 2004:260; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59). This deficit brings both the role and CPD of teachers into sharp focus.

A change in the roles of teachers is, however, not uniquely a South African phenomenon. Elsewhere, teachers are required to play multiple roles. Duthilleul (2005:2) indicates that in most European countries, for instance, teachers are expected to:

- initiate and manage the learning process – the move towards outcome-oriented curricula expects teachers to organise the learning process;

- effectively address each learner's individual learning needs;

- be assessment literate and integrate results in a diagnostic manner to promote learner's learning;

- work effectively in more diverse and multicultural environments;

- integrate learners with special needs;

- address cross-curricular themes like social responsibility and citizenship;

- work and plan in teams;

- integrate ICT into their teaching;

- develop and participate in school projects, linking schools within the country or across countries;

- assume new managerial and shared leadership roles;

- work and communicate effectively with parents, involving them in school activities and in their children's learning process; and,

- build learning communities with external agencies, museums, libraries, etc.

The new roles that teacher are expected to play in the contemporary South Africa have far-reaching influence on managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. In addition to dictating shape and focus of the current and future CPD initiatives, these roles imply key criteria for the

development and recognition of teacher qualifications and learning programmes (Department of Higher Education & Training, (2011:9). For Shezi (2008:5), they suggest a specific influence on the new way in which CPD of teachers for curriculum change implementation of is expected to be managed. In this regard, CPD managers are expected to ascertain the integration of the seven roles of a competent teacher in all CPD initiatives. In other words, they have to ensure that any CPD activity is aligned, conceived of and carried out against the backdrop of the qualities of an ideal teacher in South Africa. In line with this view, Mailula (2004:60) asserts that teacher development for curriculum change implementation involves the teacher as a totality. The teacher should not only acquire new knowledge, understanding and skills (training), but also a new attitude (educative) towards learning and teaching. This view, therefore, underscores the urgent need for CPD managers to start off with familiarising and reorientating their own as well as teachers about the qualities of an ideal teacher.

Understanding of these qualities is further essential towards remodelling and establishing a shift in attitude that they should adopt so that they can manage CPD meaningfully. However, it is also essential that CPD mangers do not use the seven roles as a checklist against which they can assess whether a teacher is competent or not. This is likely to result in tremendous lowering of staff morale and self-esteem as many are yet to undergo meaningful CPD experiences sought to transform their current roles effectively.

The next episode of this chapter explores the conceptual framework of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.3 THE UNIQUE NATURE OF TEACHERS' CPD FOR CURRICULUM CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

In the education industry, the use of the concept "continuous professional development" (CPD) symbolises a significant paradigm shift. Mokhele (2011:35) points out that the magnitude of this shift has been intensely dramatic that most scholars have referred to it as the 'new image' of teacher learning; a 'new model' of teacher education; a 'revolution' in teacher education; and also a 'new paradigm' of professional development. Villegas-Reimers (2003:11) attests to the relative newness of this term when she enunciates, "for years the only forms of professional development available to teachers were 'staff development' and 'in-service education and training'… that would offer teachers new information affecting their work."

In most probable terms, the above view explains, in part, why most of the recent literature tends to use the concepts of CPD and in-service education and training (INSET) interchangeably. Craft (1996:6) endorses this inference when he notes "… both terms are used to cover a broad range of

activities designed to contribute to the learning of teachers who have completed their initial training." On the contrary, Guthrie and Reed (in Steyn, 1999:207), hold an opinion that there is logical distinction between the two terms: CPD relates to lifelong development which focuses on a wide range of skills, knowledge and attitudes, while INSET involves the acquisition of knowledge or a particular skill for a particular time and therefore could be considered a reactive endeavour.

In order to bring out a wide-ranging and in-depth understanding of what teachers' CPD for the implementation of curriculum change entails, and simultaneously contribute to the knowledge base of curriculum coordinators and SMTs on the subject, focus in the next subsections is on the nature of teachers' CPD, explained in terms of: definitions of teachers' CPD, the need for teachers' CPD, variables that determine the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, the purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and pertinent approaches to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.3.1   Definitions of continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers

The literature identifies continuing professional development (CPD) as one of the many facets of professional development in education. Other such terms that fall under professional development include 'in-service education and training', 'professional growth', 'human resource development', and 'staff development' (Webb, Montello & Norton, in Steyn, 1999:207). Regardless of its etymological association with the abovementioned concepts, the uniqueness of CPD stems from its emphasis of the notion of professional development as an on-going and systematic process.

Consistent with the above notion, scores of researchers distinguish teachers' CPD as inclusive of a whole range of activities by which practising teachers improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitude in the subject of expertise in order that they can teach children more effectively (Bubb & Earley, 2007:3; Mbunyuza, 2005:6; Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2002:250; Craft, 1996:6). A related definition comes from Smith and Desimone (2003:119), Guskey (2002:381) and Coetzer (2001:78) who concur that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation involves a systematic effort which encapsulates formal and non-formal activities aimed to improve the practices of teachers in the classroom on on-going basis.

Based on abovementioned definitions by different authors, the following definition of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was developed for this study: formal and informal activities undertaken by practising teachers either individually or collectively throughout their careers to enhance the capacity of their professional knowledge, competence and attitude for the effective implementation of curriculum change in schools.

Having defined teachers' CPD in general and as it relates to the implementation of curriculum change above, what follows in the next fragment is a look into important variables that influence success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.3.2 Variables that determine the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

This section seeks to outline the key variables that influence the effectiveness of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Although the research base seems less than conclusive, there is general agreement in the field regarding several characteristics that are critical to the effectiveness of CPD initiatives. Guskey (in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:17) refers to these features as 'guidelines for success that should be followed when planning and implementing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Such involve: design principles, relevant content, adequate time, appropriate timing, and follow-up support among other critical components (Sclafani, 2007:4; Desimone, 2009:183). Each of these core variables is briefly discussed below.

2.3.2.1 Design principles

One of the distinguishing features that determine the success of CPD is the intensity of the principles upon which it is founded. Church et al. (2010:44) and Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009:49) suggest that in order to be effective, CPD activities should reflect the following principles:

- expand teachers' knowledge of content and how to teach it to students;

- help teachers understand how learners learn specific content;

- provide opportunities for active, hands-on learning;

- enable teachers to gain new knowledge, apply it to practice, and reflect on the results with colleagues;

- form part of a school reform effort connecting curriculum, assessment, and standards to professional learning;

- be collaborative and collegial; and,

- be intensive and on-going (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009:49; Church et al., 2010:44) .

The above principles have implications for the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs. Carnell (in Bubb & Earley, 2007:14) maintains that in order to enhance their effectiveness, managers dealing with teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should ensure that such experiences:

- are linked inextricably with day to day work contexts, for example, in the classroom or working with groups of colleagues in their school;

- are challenging, developmental and take place over an extended period of time;

- are participatory, the more people are engaged in activities and the more interaction with colleagues, the more effective the activities are seen;

- are practical and relevant with opportunities for reflection, learning and change;

- happen in a trusting, non-hierarchical environment; and,

- focus explicitly on their learning.

The foregoing principles suggest a view that CPD is not likely to have a beneficial impact in less-developed communities unless it is carefully designed to meet the contextual needs of the teachers involved and contain built-in monitoring and sustainable components (Wheeler, 2001:14). As regards the notion of 'contextualisation', Steyn (2011:44) accentuates the following three major aspects for CPD managers to consider:

- programmes should be developed for teachers teaching particular grades;

- CPD has to be contextualised, sustained and appropriate for teachers' classroom practice, and,

- programmes should be "site-based so that the staff developers understand their students, their curriculum, and their school structures".

To sum up the foregoing discussion, the Department of Basic Education (2011a:75) concludes that CPD of teachers should be:

- classroom-orientated (i.e. focused on daily experiential practices);

- curriculum-driven (i.e. focused on lessons and materials presently being taught or used);

- achievement-focused (i.e. based on improving learner understanding and accomplishment); and,

- collaborative (focused on different local forms of communities of practice, both horizontal and vertical).

Aside from illuminating the various aspects for consideration when managing teachers' CPD, a discussion of the important principles guiding an effective CPD can also be helpful in designing content for teachers' CPD programmes. In pursuit of this opinion, Ganser (in Villegas-Reimers 2003:11) acclaims that when looking at managing CPD effectively, SMTs and curriculum coordinators also need to examine the content of the experiences, the processes by which CPD will occur and the contexts in which it will take place.

The next subsection looks into the appropriate content of an ideal teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.3.2.2 Relevant content

Another core feature of an ideal CPD concerns relevant content. Harwell (2003:4) declares that CPD cannot be successful without sturdy content. This view suggests content as the most determining feature in any CPD experience (Desimone, 2009:184). The content component refers to that which needs to be presented to teachers to enable them to attain the outcomes and develop the required skills, knowledge and understanding (Reitsma, in Engelbrecht, 2008:63). Embedded in the definitions is emphasis on CPD activities to firstly be aware of- and address- the specific needs of teachers (Steyn, 2010:144; Bubb & Earley, 2007:41; Lessing & de Witt, 2007:55). In this regard, an ideal teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should comprise content that is contextualised in proportion to the needs of teachers and linked with classroom realities. In practice, this does not always happen as imagined.

The majority of current CPD activities in South Africa, and elsewhere in several nations that experience curriculum reform implementation, are however loosely matched to the varied professional needs of teachers (Duthilleul, 2005:7; Bubb & Earley, 2007:22). The inherent decontextualised nature of these CPD programmes suggests their irrelevance and lack of depth in their content to address what the majority of teachers need to be able to improve upon their practice effectively. Teachers' professional development needs, and therefore CPD content, may however, vary from one education system to another as they would obviously differ from one teacher to another.

The scale of curriculum reform implementation in the present South Africa has inevitably reconfigured teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation, and irrevocably impacted on reshaping related CPD content. The Department of Education (2007:4) points out that, owing to a shift to the NCS and its OBE approach, most teachers show limited conceptual knowledge required to be effective in the classroom. For that reason, a CPD programme should encompass content that aims at strengthening teachers' subject knowledge base, pedagogical content knowledge and teaching skills to improve the quality of curriculum delivery in schools (Lessing & De Witt, 2007:55; Department of Education, 2007:17; Mundry, 2005a:11).

Although elements of the above diagnosis seem insightful (perhaps, most specifically, its emphasis on the necessity for teachers to understand teaching methodology and content in relation to the implementation of curriculum change), it has been criticised for its linear representation of what

should constitute the content of CPD programmes. A number of researchers strongly argue that the teachers' CPD needs based curriculum change implementation should not be confined to subject matter and methods of its delivery to the learners. These include Lotz, Tselane and Wagiet (in Bopape, 2006:2), and Kupier and Wilkson (in Munonde, 2007:26) who assert that CPD is a broad concept which should include more than teaching approaches, particularly in a system that experiences rapid curriculum reforms. These critics find support in Jansen (1998:328) who argues that, for OBE to succeed, it requires retrained teachers who can, among other priorities, implement innovative forms of assessment, classroom organisation and additional time for complex administrative processes.

Taking the above viewpoints into consideration, Potenza (2001:7) maintains that the contents of CPD experiences for the current teachers should focus on deepening subject content knowledge, how to teach and assess in outcomes-based way, and how to evaluate and select high quality textbooks. This proposal is within the proportions of the recommendations embodied in the Report of the Task Team for the Review of the NCS Implementation (Department of Basic Education, 2009:57). Nonetheless, it can be argued that CPD encounters bearing such content need to be complemented with adequate time to succeed. The next segment focuses on adequate time as a significant contributory variable to the effectiveness of teachers' CPD.

2.3.2.3   Adequate time

A variable of time also determines the quality of CPD, especially when it is adequate and managed properly. Practising teachers require considerable time both to make CPD as part of their work, and to see the results of their efforts (Guskey, 2002:386; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:125). This also includes time over which the CPD activity that aims to improve teachers' intellectual and pedagogical competence is spread (Desimone, 2009:184). The above views imply a need to provide teachers with adequate time during and after any development activity to consolidate thoughts into new and novel contexts (Bubb & Earley, 2007:17). Day and Sachs (2004:85) concur that CPD experiences thrive when followed by time for debate, reflection and experimentation (Day & Sachs, 2004:85). Ironically, the lack of time is numerated as one of the significant hindrances to the effectiveness of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in a variety of societies (Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:27; Guskey & Yoon, 2009:497). This seems to be common in developing countries, like South Africa, where teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation battles for space and time in schools' calendar.

CPD experiences in South Africa are typically brief and "one-shot" in nature. Chisholm (2000:60) and Conco (2004:27) note that CPD activities at district, and therefore, AO levels, are conducted as short as 3 to 5 day sessions. The practice is, however, similar with trends in most European countries where CPD days stretch to as short as 5 days per annum (Day & Sachs, 2004:80; Glover & Law, 2004:35). Yet, there are doubts as to the positive impact of the "respite" days to improving teachers' knowledge, skills and practice (Bates et al. in Day & Sachs, 2004:80).

The literature criticises the practice of CPD initiatives that last for 3-5 days in a year. Chisholm (1999:45) maintains that it is practically unrealistic to expect teachers to change a lifetime of practice after 3-day workshops. CPD activities should be long enough for effective teachers' learning to take place (Engelbrecht, 2008:42; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:125; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995:599). The above viewpoint underscores the reality that changing teachers' classroom habits and practices will not occur in one or two training sessions, and that much longer time is required on continual basis.

In recognition of the above view, the Employment of Educators Act (1998) stipulates that practising teachers have access to 80 hours per annum outside normal school time (Brunton & Associates, 2003:C63), and leave days which may not exceed 3 working days within their teaching-learning contact time also per year to participate in professional development activities (Brunton & Associates, 2003:C128). Despite widespread concerns that these provisions are not utilised optimally (Bantwini, 2009:11), it remains unclear whether the set-up was intended only for departmental training or also for teachers' personal or training offered at school level. Either way, it is by no means a guarantee that the considerable time advocated would automatically yield the desired results.

According to Guskey and Yoon (2009:497), research studies show that the time spent in professional development activities was, in fact, unrelated to improvements in teacher development outcomes. Yet the above view should not be misconstrued to imply any repudiation of a need for considerable time to be afforded to CPD programmes. Instead, it suggests that a simple provision of more time for professional development yields no benefit if that time is not used wisely. In this regard, the Department of Basic Education, (2011:76) expresses an adage that "doing ineffective things longer does not necessarily make them any better." Guskey and Yoon (2009:497) suggest that time for CPD activities must be well organised, carefully structured, purposefully directed, and focused on content or pedagogy or both. Consequently, curriculum coordinators and SMTs are expected to meaningfully schedule time for teachers' participation in CPD activities.

The literature has, however, little detailed information providing clear guidance about the "tipping point" required to determine the duration of an effective teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation experience (Desimone, 2009:184). Moreover, the process of helping practising teachers to develop the quality of their teaching through any approach is difficult and usually lengthy, particularly where the teachers have historically low levels of education (Condy, in Mulkeen, Chapman, DeJaeghere, Leu & Bryner, 2005:33). To overcome the problem of lack of adequate time and simultaneously improve the effectiveness of CPD, Steyn (2010:160) suggests that curriculum coordinators and SMTs should allow it to be a continuous process, encapsulating properly planned development activities and individual follow-up support through supportive observation and feedback, and ultimately contributing to the general improvement of education. Nonetheless, the issue of notional time frame for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation requires further investigation and amelioration.

2.3.2.4   Appropriate timing

Proper timing in a school day or year is recognised as another key variable for a successful CPD. Literature shows significant variations on this subject. Some researchers and education systems advocate the CPD activities taking place when teachers are on school holidays or even on weekends (Day & Sachs, 2004:80; Chisholm, Hoadley, Kivulu, Brookes, Prinsloo, Kgobe, Mosia, Narsee & Rule, 2005:3; Chisholm, 2000:89). Others sponsor the ideas and practices where such experiences take place within formal school hours (Mizell, 2010:7; Masoge, 2008:175). Nonetheless, either of the above approaches has unique advantages and disadvantages.

Trends to conduct CPD activities outside school hours are adopted in several countries. Day and Sachs (2004:80) inform us that in Australia, all schools have set aside six CPD days that are effectively compulsory per year; some of these days are merely taken as additional school holidays. In South Africa, the new education policies provide teachers with access to 80 hours to participate in professional development activities outside the formal school time (Brunton & Associates, 2003:C63). This implies that teacher development is expected to take place during school holidays and over the weekends (Chisholm et al., 2005:3). Teachers are, therefore, not required to sacrifice their free time after hours when they are tired of teaching to attend CPD programmes (Engelbrecht, 2008:50; Nonkonyana, 2009:70). Besides, this approach avoids interrupting the teaching and learning processes and calls for the undivided attention of teachers (Chisholm, 2000:89). Moreover, professional development in twilight sessions is hard because people are tired (Bubb & Earley, 2007:44). In spite of these expectations, the weekend training led to dissatisfaction amongst some

teachers who commented that they had sacrificed too much in time and effort compared to what they had gained (Lessing & De Witt, 2007:54).

On the other hand, scholars such as Mizell (2010:7) and Masoge (2008:175) espouse theoretical approaches sought to encourage teachers to be given time for CPD activities within regular working days. They concurrently point out that on-going professional development should be embedded in the daily activities of a teacher as this will link such development to the day-to-day demands of teaching. Therefore, normal school days should be restructured to allow for the early release of teachers on certain days to attend professional development activities. This view holds practical considerations such as transportation, responsibilities of teachers as parents, the time spent at- and access to -training venues especially for teachers who are in rural areas.

On the international front, Day and Sachs (2004:80) hold a consistent view with Glover and Law (2004:35) about the provisions of five days per year, whereby some schools suspend classes to carry out intensive CPD programmes in England and Wales, Austria, Switzerland, Germany, and Sweden. Surgrue et al. (in Day & Sachs, 2004:80) point out that school closure for the CPD days is highly disruptive to the extent that teachers are increasingly embarrassed to inform parents of yet another school closure for the sake of their participation in CPD activities. Most importantly, it is inevitable that the approach will result in the erosion of the much sought-after teaching and learning contact time (Chisholm, 2000:89).

A remarkable variation exists among the nine provinces of South Africa about the timing of conducting CPD activities. While provinces such as Gauteng and Western Cape conducted teacher development for the implementation of the new OBE-driven curriculum during weekends and holidays (Lessing & De Witt, 2007:54; Hoadley & Chisholm, 2005:12; Mailula, 2004:55), such activities were organised and enacted during formal school days in the North West Province (Engelbrecht, 2008:50). Nonetheless, the literature is bereft of evidence to suggest the effectiveness of either of the approaches above the other as means to improve the quality of teachers' CPD. What emerges, however, is a belief that the quality of follow-up support is indispensable to a successful teachers' CPD.

2.3.2.5   Follow-up support

The literature highlights follow-up support as another key aspect that influences the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Prinsloo, 2008:219; Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:28; Rebore, 2001:174). Furnham (in Holbeche, 2006:379) asserts that people are more likely to accepting change when, among other significant factors, its support from top

management is strongly evident. In this regard, Guskey and Yoon (2009:497) emphasise the importance of structured and sustained follow-up after the main professional development activities. In support of the above views, Masoge (2008:177) suggests that the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation centres on the existence of structures for consistent follow up and support. This support should be timely, consistent, and job-embedded (Guskey & Yoon, 2009:497). Beale (in Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:20) outlines the kind of professional follow-up support needed by many teachers as inclusive of obtaining practical ideas, strategies, and resources that can be applied in or outside the classroom.

The South African education system has established structures in the form of subject advisors to offer advice on the teaching of a specific subject, and are, therefore, well-positioned to discharge follow-up and in-school support. Moreover, in the North West Province, subject advisors are responsible to train, develop and support teachers to implement curriculum change effectively in the classrooms (Hoadley & Chisholm, 2005:12).

Follow-up support related to the implementation of curriculum change has not been forthcoming in many schools (Chisholm, 2000:61). Ono and Ferreira (2010:60) and the Department of Basic Education (2009:55) concur that many training workshops for teachers based on curriculum change implementation have not been accompanied by a deep and intensive follow-up through classroom-based monitoring, mentoring and support thorough evaluation to determine their strengths and weaknesses. This suggests that when teachers return to their schools after receiving orientation and training at workshops they seldom experience any follow-up, on-going support and development. In line with the above finding, Ramolefe (2004:51) reveals that in most schools, SMTs did not bother to organise school-based workshops following district teacher development sessions on OBE. This, in many respects, contradicts the recommendations contained in the Report of the Task Team for the Review of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement stated as "post-training classroom monitoring, quality assurance, support and mentorship, which in turn should inform future training needs" should be performed on on-going basis (Department of Basic Education, 2009:56).

In summary, the above discussion suggests that the overall quality of education is determined by the quality of professional training offered to teachers (Davids, 2009:1). This avowal suggests that significant strides can be made in education, when the quality of teacher training and development is addressed. This section has provided the "guidelines for success" in strengthening the quality of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

Having explored and expounded some of the critical variables that can influence the success of CPD, the current study now turns focus on the significance of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This is dealt with in the next section.

2.3.3   The need for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

The need for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation has never been as critically urgent as it is in the 21st century. With the start of the new millennium, many societies, South Africa included, are engaging is serious and purposeful educational reform (Botha, 2004:239; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:7). Most of these reforms entail enormous changes to the school curriculum, the implementation of which, among other vital aspects, requires quality teachers that are equal to the task in terms of knowledge, skills and attitude. Thus, teacher development is of topical importance in a period of intense curriculum change implementation.

With the recognition that quality teaching can make a difference in curriculum change implementation, most education systems pay increasing attention to professional development programmes that support teacher learning throughout their careers (Robinson, 2008:1). This view rests on the notion of CPD as a potent vehicle through which the quality of teachers can be enhanced (Bubb & Earley, 2007:3; Coetzer, 2001:89; Rebore, 2001:174). Implicitly, this assumption recognises CPD as the lifeblood of every educational reform implementation (Fwu & Wang in Guro, 2009:10; Bubb & Earley, 2007:1). Without doubt, the above metaphor portrays CPD as a key determinant to the success or failure of curriculum reform implementation (Borko, 2004; Fishman, Marx, Best, & Tal in Wang, 2008:3; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:24).

Current debates which pinpoint teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation as a catalyst for curriculum change implementation evoked critical commentaries of stakeholders in education. Such include Thomas Hammarberg, Commissioner for Human Rights Council of Europe, on World Teachers' Day, 5th October 2006 (in Robinson, 2008:1), who stated:

> *[I]n our fast-changing world, teachers must be engaged in life-long learning to be able to meet new challenges. It is a grave political contradiction that so much emphasis is being given to the importance of education while so little is being done to give teachers status, support and reward. . . The professional status of teachers should be recognised as one of the most important in society. . . It is the responsibility of policy-makers and school management to support and empower the teachers in this important role, and to work toward raising their professional status.*

Day and Sachs (2004:67) underpin the above viewpoint when they enunciate:

If school reform was the perceived problem, teacher professional development was increasingly becoming proprietary prescribed educational prophylactic, the panacea of choice, the Prozac of the education system.

In addition to confirming the significance of teachers' CPD, the above citations highlight its prevalence ahead of other significant elements to the implementation of curriculum change. This inference rests on the assumption that factors such as the learning and teaching support materials (LTSMs) and related resources are important only insofar as teachers have the knowledge and competence to interpret and utilise them effectively. This means that without quality teachers, all resources in education are static (Geel, 2005:17).

Along with the preceding views, Day and Sachs (2002:22), point out that the need for CPD can best be seen from the point of view of its contributions to education systems that experience curriculum change implementation. The next section, therefore, attempts to cast light on what the related literature puts forward as the purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.3.4   The purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

Studies in professional development of teachers show that various authors and researchers have varied views about the numerous purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Mizell, 2010:3; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:19; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:60). Although varied and numerous, the following appear to be the most common in related literature: strengthening the capacity of professional teachers, improving the quality of learner attainments, pursuing the principle of lifelong learning and sustaining curriculum change initiatives. These four aspects are elucidated in sequence in the next sections.

2.3.4.1   Strengthening the capacity of professional teachers

In the wake of curriculum change implementation, many teachers in South Africa were predisposed to the lack of essential professional competence and know-how to discharge their classroom mandate effectively (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59; Mischeke, in Mailula 2004:49; Jansen, 1998:312). The teachers' lack of the above requirements is likely to intensify given the rapid rate of curriculum reform initiatives in the country (Department of Basic Education, 2009:24). Most likely to further exacerbate this situation, is the precarious professional background of the majority of South African teachers who were trained under the auspices of apartheid education which is markedly different from the current OBE-based curriculum. Day and Sachs (2004:184) remind us that during the apartheid era these teachers had themselves had inferior schooling and basic teachers' training. Particularly, they have experienced recitation type of learning, which vastly contrast the OBE

approach (Lemmer & Badenhorst, 1997:296). Even more worse, some teachers are often made to teach subjects for which they neither have a qualification nor teaching experience and are therefore, outside of their areas of specialisation (Phorabatho, 2010:97; Department of Basic Education, 2009:59; Halim, Osman, Subahan & Meerah, 2002:29).

An array of scholars, including Mizell (2010:3), Mbunyuza (2005:10) and Desimone, Porter, Birman, Garet and Yoon (2002:81), is unanimous that CPD for curriculum change implementation is important to overcome the above limitations through deepening teachers' content knowledge, attitude and developing their teaching practice. Similarly, Bubb and Earley (2007:5) and Villegas-Reimers (2003:67) concur that in the period of curriculum change implementation, CPD is ideal to re-assert teachers as subject experts, as it 'retools' them in their work in the classroom on continual basis. Seen in this light, CPD for curriculum change implementation can play a phenomenal role to: re-motivate; provide practising teachers with new information and skills to change existing teaching patterns, correct personal gaps and to restore confidence in teachers (Grobler, Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2006:302; Siddons, 1997:22).

Furthermore, CPD for curriculum change implementation strengthens the capacity of the teachers as it prepares them to face change (Bubb & Earley, 2007:16; Ha et al., 2004:421). Mbunyuza (2005:10) concurs with the above view when stating that the importance of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation hinges on equipping teachers with the capacity to respond meaningfully to major changes in the education system, such as changes in teaching methodologies, assessment and school organisation and management. This point emphasises the need for CPD necessary to keep practising teachers abreast of the latest trends and developments concerning their daily functions (Rebore, 2001:180; Leclercq, 1996; Collins, in Engelbrecht, 2008:13). In this manner, teachers are equipped to successfully overcome new demands attached to their day-to-day classroom responsibilities which are common to the process of curriculum change implementation (Guskey, 2002:382; Ornstein & Behar-Horenstein, 1999:305). Thus, CPD empowers teachers to be receptacle to any change initiatives (Msila & Mtshali, 2011:2).

Most related researchers, however, believe that the profits that accrue to teachers as a result of successful CPD initiatives are likely to impact positively on students' learning, thereby increasing the latter's opportunities to perform optimally (Mizell, 2010:3; Wang, 2008:3; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:21). This assumption suggests that CPD for curriculum change implementation is critical to both teachers' and students' success. The next section elucidates improving the quality of students' learning and performance as another important purpose of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.3.4.2   Improving the quality of students' learning and performance

The concern for improving the quality of learner performance is probably the most important task facing many societies that undergo the implementation of curriculum reforms, especially during its initial stages (Fullan, 2001:40). The current South African nation experiences a downward spiral in learners' performance. Its secondary schools have been riddled with massive learner failure rate following the initial implementation of the NCS (Kgosana; Serrao & Breytenbach, in Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:202).

Several studies point to teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation as one of the potent avenues to maximise the quality of pupils' learning and performance (Church et al., 2010:44; Bubb & Early, 2007:1; Mulkeen et al., 2005:23; Steyn, 2005:259; Duthilleul, 2005:2). In accordance with the above view, Mundry (2005a:9), Desimone (2009:181) and Villegas-Reimers (2003:21) argue that better-developed teachers, with up-to-date knowledge and skills, are more likely to help learners to meet the desired academic achievement standards. Put differently, Villegas-Reimers (2003:29) posits that CPD works best when teachers' engagement in such activities has a visible positive impact on learner achievement. Day and Sachs (2004:71) corroborate with the above view when they point out that most modern day teachers tend to define their success in terms of their pupils' learning achievements, rather than in terms of themselves or other criteria. Aside from highlighting the interrelated nature of the relationship between teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and learner attainment, this view suggests for the vast majority of teachers, becoming a better teacher should mean enhancing student learning outcomes (Guskey, 2002:382).

The next segment outlines pursuing the principle of lifelong learning as another role of CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change.

2.4.3.3   Pursuing the principle of lifelong learning

Another purpose of CPD for curriculum change implementation is to engender lifelong learning of teachers in response to the radical changes related to their core functions (Lessing & De Witt, 2007:55). Dean (1991:1) avers that the speed of change and the explosion of knowledge in education require teachers to learn afresh at intervals throughout their lives. Similarly, Knight (2002:230) notes that knowledge has dwindling half-life, and therefore practising teachers need lifelong learning to circumvent the likelihood of being enfolded by 'professional obsolescence'. Hence, Mailula (2004:49) declares that due to this rapid development, existing knowledge becomes obsolete very quickly necessitating re-training and development of teachers.

The above views suggest that with time, the knowledge and skills that teachers gained from their Initial Professional Education and Training (IPET) and induction experiences become out-dated and, accordingly, the need to pursue lifelong learning through CPD comes into play. Two main inferences can, thus, be drawn from the above perception around IPET

First, no IPET programme, no matter how inclusive and wide-ranging, can prepare a teacher for a life span vocation without further educational renewal (Simjee, 2006:2; Mulkeen et al., 2005:27; Steyn, 1999:256). The demand for lifelong learning is presumably high in an education system that is inclined to rapid changes. **Second**, no teacher – qualified, under-qualified or unqualified – can deal with the rapid changes during their professional career without equipping themselves continuously with further education and training. As principal of a secondary school in rural areas, the researcher has observed that teachers, whether with a college diploma or university degree, find it difficult to accept these new roles with only baseline education and training, which the majority attained under the auspices of apartheid education. Taking the above perspectives into consideration, scholars describe IPET as the first building block to be followed by lifelong learning opportunities throughout teachers' careers (Duthilleul, 2005:4; Thomas, 1991:183). The next section looks into sustaining the innovation as another factor that necessitates CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change.

2.3.4.4   Sustaining curriculum change initiatives

Continuing professional development of teachers for curriculum change implementation is also recognised as the central pillar of sustaining and meeting the demands of change (Morrison, 1998:56). Mafora and Phorabatho (2012:208) contend that to sustain and improve the quality of curriculum change, people at the coalface of its implementation need to be equipped with a working knowledge and skills of what it entails. In line with the above contention, Ornstein and Hunkins (1998:292) aver that the literature in developing countries is replete with narratives of failure because those in charge of curriculum change implementation have little or distorted understanding of innovative programmes at hand.

Implied in the above observations is an assumption that education systems that tend to overlook the significance of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation are likely to place their curriculum reforms at a risk of failure, compromise and/or repeated reviews. The post-1994 South African education system had already suffered the same fate. Its recent curriculum history is overwhelmed by radical changes within a relatively short period (Department of Basic Education,

2009:24) owing to the inadequate attention given to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation among other significant factors.

The foregoing discussion has been clear about the significance of teachers' CPD in a world of curriculum change implementation. The discussion highlighted a view that reforms that promote teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation are likely to be successful in transforming even national education systems (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:26). In elaborating this view, Mokhele (2011:15) concludes that due to its effectiveness in enhancing the important goals of most education reforms, teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation will for the foreseeable future, continue to feature distinctively in the larger education reform landscape.

It can be assumed that the plurality of the purposes, as discussed above, suffices to indicate that managing CPD for curriculum change implementation assumes thorough knowledge and skills from those in charge. Moreover, CPD managers are expected to be *au fait* with the various models that may be used to provide teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The next section sheds light on the different approaches involved in teachers' CPD realm that could be used to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.3.5 Pertinent approaches to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

Teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation can take many forms, ranging from the formal to the non-formal learning experiences (Gulston, 2010:22; Bubb & Earley, 2007:3; Craft, 1996:13). Each of the two CPD categories above comprises several models through which teachers' CPD can be delivered. This section attempts to provide insightful description of each method according to their respective categories and –whenever possible- also highlight the experiences of countries where the model has been implemented.

Before delving too deeply into detail, it is critical at this juncture to indicate the various concepts that are often used in the literature to describe specific processes and opportunities that are planned to provide teachers' CPD. These include reference to professional development models, methods, types, systems, approaches, and strategies. Dreyer (2011:385) elaborates this view by using the cascade training as a good example, where it is often referred to as a model (Wedell), a method, (McDevitt), a system (Knamiller), an approach (Herbert), and a strategy (Peackock). To avoid possible confusion, the terms are used interchangeably in this study to refer to the delivery mode of teachers' CPD programmes. The perennial question here is about which model can best be used to facilitate CPD activities related to the implementation of curriculum change implementation.

2.3.5.1   Formal CPD approaches

Formal CPD approaches, according to Villegas-Reimers (2003:11), refer to 'structured training activities' that are intended to increase the skills and knowledge of practising teachers on a particular aspect related to their work. This category involves development methods which require teachers to come together for varying lengths of time, away from their schools for training activities (Craft, 1996:14). Typically, they constitute the delivery of CPD through outsourcing external expertise (Mizell, 2010:5; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:60; Sparks & Hirsh, in Church et al., 2010:44). Several CPD forms falling within the formal category can be distinguished: training workshops, courses or distance learning, conferences and seminars. It is to the illumination of these models that this study's focus now turns.

2.3.5.1.1   Training workshops

Hişmanoğlu and Hişmanoğlu (2010:16) observe that the training workshop approach is widely used in the majority of professional development programmes. Masoge (2008:180) observes that this approach is used as mainstay model of teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation in all the provincial education departments in South Africa. In spite of its increasing popularity, the training workshop approach is constantly criticised as the epitome of ineffective CPD practices. Major criticisms stems from its 'one-shot' nature which is often brief, unrelated to the needs of teachers, and provides no follow-up (Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:28; Department of Basic Education, 2009:55; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:93). Specifically, most teacher development workshops for curriculum change implementation have been conducted for as short as 3 to 5-day sessions (Chisholm, 2000:60), often by incompetent district trainers (Department of Basic Education, 2009:56). Furthermore, they are criticised for their virtual lack of on-going support and development opportunities, especially when teachers return to schools after receiving development workshops (Chisholm, 2000:61). As a result, the large-scale workshops often failed to make noticeable impact in the betterment or 'renewal' of teachers' practice (Steyn, 2011:49; Mulkeen et al., 2005:26).

In stark contrast, Guskey and Yoon (2009: 496) argue that teacher development workshops are not always "the poster child of ineffective practice that they are often made out to be". The authors claim that most of the studies that they conducted showed a positive relationship between professional development experiences which involved well organised and focused workshops and improvements in teachers. Lessing and De Witt (2007: 54) conclude that the workshops need to be improved if they are to realise CPD objectives. This point emphasises a view that workshops if well

managed or when accompanied by other types of professional development like courses can be successful.

In the next section, the present study looks into courses as another 'bureaucratic' CPD method.

2.3.5.1.2   Courses/ Distance learning

This model involves the offering of 'courses' by recognised universities usually subsidised by government, often through distance education to develop practising teachers (Gulston, 2010:39; Tulder & Veenman, in Simjee, 2006:23). Thus, in the context of the study, courses could be understood as referring to a qualification-based method of teachers' CPD. According to Bell and Day (1991:7), CPD courses usually fall into three groups according to their respective purpose:

▪ to improve existing qualifications of practising teachers so that non-graduates can become graduates;

▪ top-up courses which are intended to further develop existing professional knowledge and skills; and,

▪ remedial courses to assist teachers in areas where they experience difficulties concerning the implementation of curriculum change implementation.

As stated in section 1.2 of this study, the Department of Education, in partnership with relevant universities, designed and introduced the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) and later, the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) programmes in addressing the predicament of unqualified and under-qualified teachers, who are already in the system, and to hone teachers' skills for effective delivery of OBE subjects' content in classrooms (South African Council for Educators, 2008:16).

Unlike workshops which are popular for their brevity, the duration of the courses can range from one to two school years (Department of Higher Education & Training, 2011:29). In addition to this strength, the offering of courses through distance education contains other advantages. Mulkeen et al. (2005:26) and Robinson (2008:7) believe that this approach has potential to provide the benefits of cost saving and reaching geographically separated beneficiaries as it has the potential to distribute opportunities for learning more widely and equitably across the teaching force. Ware (in Mulkeen et al., 2005:26) notes that distance learning is usually a less expensive alternative than study leave, as it allows the teachers to work rather than taking them out of the classroom.

Conceiving of it as an effective formal option for teachers' CPD delivery could, however, be misplaced. The courses approach has unique gaps which render it ineffective. Simjee (2006:23)

points out that courses are also sometimes outsourced and do not address problems that teachers experience in the classroom. Therefore, to be effective, distance learning requires considerable follow-through and support by means of in school-based workshops, seminars, and other means of sharing experiential knowledge and mutual support (Mulkeen _et al._, 2005:26). Moreover, the Department of Education (2007:17) indicates that despite monetary rewards to teachers upon completion and improved qualification level, short courses also proved to be ineffective in addressing teachers' incapacity to implement curriculum change successfully.

The last method in the category of formal CPD approaches in this study involves conferences and seminars. These traditional approaches are explored concurrently in the section that follows.

2.3.5.1.3   Conferences and seminars

According to Masoge (2008:181), the conferences and seminars formal CPD methods are usually organised or conducted by the provincial education departments and/or district offices whereby a large number of teachers is expected to attend. During these formal CPD methods, the audience is characteristically passive and listens to presentations being made until the end when questions and discussions are permitted (Church _et al.,_ 2010:45).

Conferences and seminars are frequently short of the ideal. In addition to reducing teachers to passive spectators' status, these efforts are often criticised as being brief, fragmented, incoherent encounters that are decontextualised and unrelated to real classroom situations (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:60; Masoge, 2008:181). This has created great discontent among teachers who felt frustrated by lack of improvement in their classroom practice despite attending conferences and seminars. This assumption is echoed in the following quotation from Fullan (2001:315):

Nothing has promised so much and has been so frustratingly wasteful as the thousands of workshops and conferences that led to no significant change in practice when the teachers returned to their classrooms.

A similar disappointment by teachers is recorded in McCarthy (2006:45):

This staff development program was a waste of time. Those people in the central office have no idea what I really need. I had to leave my students and travel across the country for something that has no value for me. I'd rather be back in my classroom with my kids. They need me.

Aside from highlighting the inadequacies involved in the conference and seminar approaches, the above quotations reflect the development of negative attitudes in teachers who attended such [conferences] against attending future CPD initiatives. Steyn (2011:49) validates this interpretation

when she maintains that it is understandable of teachers to consider some official CPD programmes to be a waste of time, and be reluctant to attend future official "PD" programmes because most CPD programmes did not address or consider their specific development needs or those of the schools.

In summary, the foregoing discussion indicates that the formal CPD methods are not always ideal to promote sustained professional development in teachers, especially who face the implementation of OBE curriculum. The use of outside experts, which inarguably is the core of formal CPD approaches, emerges as a perennial source of much criticism (Church et al., 2010:44). To show a gap in this practice, Nkabinde (2006:48) has captured complaints such as this one from teachers that underwent OBE training: "*an outsider will only present a workshop for a day or two then when one needs help, the facilitator is not there; developmental programmes should reside in the school.*"

There are, however, cases to suggest that when accompanied by other models, workshops, conferences, seminars and courses can be quite effective (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:93). In view of the above, Lessing and De Witt (2007:55) agree with Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995:597) that for CPD to be successful, the formal approaches can either be replaced or complemented by opportunities for skills and knowledge sharing in less formal settings and spontaneous collaborations. On the contrary, Perkins (in Steyn, 1999:206), firmly declares that the rapidly changing demand of- and circumstance in- schools have created a pressing need to approach CPD differently from the workshops, seminars, conferences etc. Nieto (2009:10), accordingly, claims that the traditional workshops, conferences and suchlike are steadily substituted with team-oriented CPD approaches in most parts of the world.

2.3.5.2   Non-formal CPD approaches

In the literature, several concepts are used to describe the classification CPD methods that are consider to be not formal. Guskey and Yoon (2009:496) identify them as 'school-based or site-based professional learning', some label them as 'informal CPD processes' (Engelbrecht, 2008:14; Desimone, 2009:182), while Villegas-Reimers, (2003:76) categorises them as the 'less-formal activities'. Regardless of the diverse classification titles, this format refers to those CPD activities that happen during the normal life of a school and usually within a school context (Engelbrecht, 2008:14; Craft, 1996:15). For Desimone (2009:182), informal CPD experience refers to "hallway" discussions of a teacher with other teachers about instruction techniques, embedded in teachers' everyday work lives. From a divergent array of models that constitute the non-formal CPD approaches, the present study focuses on coaching/ mentoring, observation of best practices, clusters and cascade

models. A description of these models and their possible impact to improve the delivery teachers' CPD follow in the next segments.

2.3.5.2.1   Coaching/mentoring

Bubb and Earley (2007:22) explain that the coaching/mentoring model entails CPD arrangements where teachers work one-on-one with equally or more experienced teachers. The above view suggests that in this model the matching process between mentor and mentee is critical to its effectiveness. Hence, the literature indicates that the approach constitutes the pairing of novice teachers or teachers new to teaching a particular subject with accomplished experienced teachers who provide coaching/mentoring on standards and research-based teaching of the content (Gulston, 2010:41; Mundry, 2005a:10; Rebore, 2001:155). In such a case, highly seasoned teachers play a leadership role in guiding the activities of other teachers.

In the light of the interactions involved, Blandford (2000:181) stresses that mentoring is a process through which pedagogical knowledge and understanding, skills and abilities may be passed-on to less experienced practitioners. Mundry (2005a:10) enunciates that the 'mentor' and the 'mentee' specifically work on lessons together, observe one another teach and study the local, state and national standards in their subject area. Together, they get to know the research on how children learn the content and the alternative conceptions that learners bring to their learning. Thus, the focus of the work between the mentor and mentee is on teaching the content and ensuring student understanding of important subject content matter.

The primary advantage of this model is that it offers a highly individualised approach to professional development that benefits both parties involved (Msila & Mtshali, 2011:9; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:116). It also encourages teachers to build more collegial relationships, share their experiences and assume more responsibility for the quality of teaching (Mundry, 2005a:10). With this result, experienced teachers get opportunities to collaborate with others, reflect on practice, learn from data and results and see what does and does not work in their classrooms, recognizing that strategies that work one year with one class may need to be adjusted for new learners. In this sense, the coaches and mentors also benefit as they develop lifelong attributes worth fostering and experience satisfaction with their roles as mentors (Heirdsfield et al., in Gulston, 2010:42).

Implied in the above discussion, is an understanding that coaching/mentoring can take a vertical or horizontal approach. In this case, the latter involves a veteran teacher taking the lead; and the former encouraging the involved parties to operate as peers, with either teacher serving as coach and mentor to the other (Huston & Weaver, 2007:6). This seems to be a valuable approach, provided

the mentors have the requisite skills, appropriate experience and information and time to develop their candidates. Holloway (in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:116), justly advises that since coaching/mentoring is a learned skill, coaches/mentors need to be trained.

2.3.5.2.2   Observation of best practices

Another non-formal CPD strategy involves observation of best practices. This model offers teachers the opportunity to observe excellent practices or demonstrations by colleagues who have been recognised for their expertise and excellence in teaching (Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2002:266). In this way, teachers have the opportunity to learn and reflect on the knowledge, skills and attitudes that excellent teachers implement in the classroom (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:101).

There are documented cases in the literature to testify to the effectiveness of this model in teachers' CPD. Villegas-Reimers (2003:101) mentions the Teachers International Professional Development Programme implemented by the British Council, the United Kingdom/Australia Fellowship Scheme for Teachers of Science, and the Chilean Government initiatives as suitable examples. In the abovementioned examples, the author states that teachers from the concerned countries spent significant amount of time in foreign countries observing first-hand aspects involved in teaching and teachers' work, so that they could share their experiences with other teachers in their schools and communities.

The model was applied in South Africa as well. The Mpumalanga Secondary Science Initiative (MSSI) 1999–2006,which was a research and development project funded by the Japanese International Cooperation Agency, sought to improve the quality of mathematics and science education by enhancing the teaching skills of practising teachers (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:65). The project aimed to institutionalise lesson study wherein a teacher conducted a study lesson, which was observed by other teachers. The observers listened attentively to all contributions made by the learners and documented any important remarks and behaviours of the teacher and learners that were related to achieving the lesson outcomes (Mokhele, 2011:51).

Ono and Ferreira (2010:68) observe that although the MSSI was not necessarily successful in its attempt to institutionalise "lesson study" for teachers during the project period, it had a positive impact on teaching practices, although the degree of impact varied from one teacher to another.

2.3.5.2.3   Clusters

As described by Secada and Adajian (in Jita & Ndlalane, 2009:59), the clusters model represents a form of professional community that provides a context within which a group of professionals can

come together, discuss and understand their practices. This means, through clusters, teachers are brought together to identify and collectively attempt to address the problems which they experience in their work (Gulston, 2010:44). In this way, they promote their own professional development as individuals and as groups (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:80). Characteristically, the group in a cluster would engage in common activities, such as sharing content knowledge, reflecting on their teaching experiences, giving feedback, collaboration and general cross-pollination of ideas and views regarding their classroom practice (Conco, 2004:84). This view suggests a notion that teacher development is more likely to occur in context that promote learning as a communal activity. Harwell (2003:4) avows that when teachers have the opportunity to interact, study together, talk about teaching, and assist one another into applying new skills and strategies, they stand a better chance to grow and their students' performance improves dramatically. This is because social persuasions have power to change beliefs.

The clusters approach offers a number of potential advantages. Firstly, teachers who work together are more likely to discuss the concepts, skills, and problems that they encounter during their professional development experiences. Secondly, teachers who are from the same school, department, or grade are likely to share common curriculum materials, course offerings, and assessment requirements. By engaging in professional development together, they may be able to integrate what they learn with other aspects of their instructional context. Thirdly, teachers who teach the same learners can discuss learners' needs with regard to specific classes or grades. And finally, by focusing on a group of teachers from the same school (in which some teachers may be new), professional development may help sustain changes in practice.

Additional benefits include its cost-effectiveness. Conco (2004:84) mentions that clusters can be regarded as another solution to transport problems experienced by rural teachers because of poor road conditions in the outlying areas. Moreover, most teacher clusters existing in the world today do not depend on state funding (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:81).

There are several examples of successful teacher clusters in various parts of the world. Villegas-Reimers (2003:81) cites the creation of teacher groups within Finnish schools, Colombian networks and the cross-national networks in Spain as impressive examples. She stresses that each of these teacher clusters is active and successful in developing teachers effectively in its own country. Jita and Ndlalane (2009: 59) also investigated and reported extensively about the use of clusters as CPD approach. They claim that the use of the cluster method was successful in a development project funded by the Japanese International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in Mpumalanga Province. The success of the teacher clusters depends entirely on teachers' strong sense of commitment to their

collaborative learning and support in the cluster meetings as peers (Jita & Ndlalane, 2009:66).This commitment is based on trust, giving teachers the confidence to share what happens in the classroom, with the aim of improving and changing their classroom practices.

The next session focuses on the cascade model as another kind of CPD approach.

2.3.5.2.4 The cascade model

According to Craft (1996:17), the cascade training model involves the training of selected teachers from schools at off-site courses and charges them with responsibility of replicating the training for colleagues back in school, in ways that are appropriate there. In this model, teacher development is done at three levels, that is, a first generation of teachers is trained or educated on a particular topic, aspects of teaching or subject content matter, and once capable, become the trainers of the second generation (Griffin, in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:115).

Ono and Ferreira (2010:61) claim that the cascade model entails "training-the trainer" approach as it ensures that the message "flows down" from experts and specialists, and finally, to the teachers. Specifically, teacher development by means of this model flows from the training of education development officers, who train lead teachers from schools or clusters of schools, and in turn, the trained teachers have to conduct in-school training to their peers (Chisholm, 2000:61).

The advantages of this model are located in its ability to permeate teacher development in stages so that progress can be monitored and information can be spread quickly and to a large number of teachers as ever more of them receive training. In addition, many developing countries prefer the cascade approach for reaching many participants in a short period of time (Leu, in Mokhele: 2011:56). The cascade training method is theoretically cost-effective as those who have been trained can then train others, thereby limiting expenses (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:61).

Conceiving of it as a cheap delivery option for teacher training delivery is misplaced considering the output it failed to deliver in the post-apartheid South African education system. This model has been adopted as primary means (though tight to the workshop method) to deliver nationwide teacher development for curriculum change implementation. The results proved dismal.

The cascade model showed significant flaws which were to describe it as an inadequate model for delivering effective CPD for curriculum change implementation. One of the generally recognised weaknesses of the cascade model is that, often, when transmitted to the next level, chances of quality information being diluted, distorted or misinterpreted are high (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:61; Phorabatho, 2010:50). Quite often, this is ascribed to the poor level of training of trainers and their

narrow understanding of curriculum change (Department of Basic Education, 2009:56; Chisholm, 2000:52). The above views suggest that the cascade model failed to prepare either officials or teachers for the complexity of curriculum change implementation in South Africa.

The foregoing discussion provides a variety of options from which CPD managers can choose a suitable model or combination thereof to deliver teachers' CPD for the implementation of curriculum change. This task may not always be straightforward. In attestation to this point, Easton (in Guskey & Yoon, 2009:497) indicates that there are intense debates in the literature as to what particular approaches or designs are most effective and work best. This above question is yet to be answered conclusively in the literature. Desimone (2009:181) notes that for years the field of teacher development has acknowledged a need for more empirically valid methods of implementing successful CPD of teachers with limited success. Jita and Ndlalane (2009:58) also point out that the answer to the question of what it takes to change teachers' classroom practices remains abstract for South Africa regardless of all of the effort and enthusiasm for teacher professional development.

The gravity of lack of answers concerning effective CPD model is likely to place the role of CPD managers in a quandary. Their challenge can largely be to choose which one of the models or a combination thereof, is most likely to lead to the desired CPD goal. Nonetheless, Ono and Ferreira (2010:60) and Steyn (2008:24) discourage CPD managers from using one model when they contend the "one size fits all" approach to teacher development for curriculum change implementation is not always effective. In furtherance of the above contention, Steyn (2008:24) suggests that the methods of training teachers for curriculum change implementation should be differentiated to meet the learning styles of different teachers. To this end, it is important for CPD managers to be knowledgeable about the different CPD models of CPD. This can enable them to determine a suitable type of CPD model, since not all types of CPD forms would be equally effective to address the varied teachers' professional development needs for curriculum change implementation. It is further assumed that CPD managers that are *au fait* with different models involved in teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation have the urge to be effective in their role.

The present researcher contends that CPD managers are unlikely to be effective without adequate knowledge of pertinent policies that guide teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and support their role. In corroborating the above contention, Steyn (2011:51) suggests that CPD managers also need to be up-to-date and well- versed in current trends and issues relating to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. In this regard, the next section delves into exploring some of the important policies that guide the provision of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in South Africa.

2.4   IMPORTANT POLICIES THAT GUIDE TEACHERS' CPD FOR CURRICULUM CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

The literature suggests that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and the role of CPD managers are guided by a number of policies in South Africa. The following can be identified as some of the relevant policy documents:

- The Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE), 2000;
- The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED), 2006;
- The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), 2003; and,
- The Personnel Administration Measures as embedded in the Employment of Educators Act, 1998.

The ensuing sections focus on the elucidation of the above documents, in turn, as well as their individual implications for managing teachers' CPD related to curriculum change implementation.

2.4.1.   The Norms and Standards for Educators 2000

The Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE) (2000) can be considered the first formal policy that attempted to provide guidance in the field of teacher education. Its prime focus was on "educator development" as referring to on-going learning of teachers as a continuum, which includes both pre-service and in-service education and training (Department of Education, 2000:9). In terms of this policy, teacher education curricula, and therefore CPD activities, must ensure that theory and practice are integrated, and that teachers demonstrate not only foundational competence, that is, knowledge of the subject and ways of teaching it, and practical teaching ability, but also reflexive competence (Centre for Education Policy Development, Centre for Evaluation and Assessment - University of Pretoria, Human Sciences Research Council & South African Institute for Distance Education, 2005:4).

Most importantly, the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) reconceptualised what it means to be a teacher in democratic South Africa. Consequently, the Department of Education (2000:13-14) indicates that a competent teacher in the country is expected to be:

- learning mediator;
- interpreter and designer of learning programmed and materials;
- leader, administrator and manager;
- scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;
- community, citizenship and pastoral role;

- assessor; and,
- learning area, subject, discipline/phase specialist.

The reconfiguration of the roles of a teacher has implications for the managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. It provides guidelines for the CPD managers to ascertain norms and standards among all who offer teacher development programmes. In support of this assumption, the Department of Education (2000:11) notes that the new roles of teachers should feature centrally in all teacher development experiences. According to Sayed (2004:248), the stipulation of the teachers' roles suggests thresholds for CPD providers to develop quality assured programmes and qualifications for teachers that are recognised by the Department of Education.

2.4.2   The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED)

A need for focused attention to be accorded to the professional development of practising teachers was emphasised in the Report of the Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education (2005). This report culminated in the development of the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) in 2006. The NFTED constitutes an overarching framework which attempts to map out a long-term vision of a seamless, coordinated and coherent system of initial and continuing professional education of teachers and focuses on the systemic role that teacher education has in the overall transformation of education (Department of Education, 2005:3).

According to the Department of Education (2007:1), the NAPFTED policy suggests the means to properly equip teachers to undertake their essential and demanding tasks and to enable them to continually improve their professional competence and performance in order for them to meet the demands of a democratic South Africa in the 21st century. It, therefore, can be assumed that the NAPFTED seeks to place teachers firmly at the centre of all efforts to improve themselves professionally. By this means, it suggests that teachers should be enabled to take substantial responsibility for their own development under the guidance of the South African Council for Educators (SACE), as their professional body. To this end, the NPFTED encourages teachers to identify the areas in which they wish to grow professionally, and to use all opportunities made available to them as provided for in the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS).

The NPFTED further introduced the new Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) system. Amongst other objectives, the CPTD system intends to provide teachers with guidance about Professional Development (PD) activities that will contribute to their professional growth. As a result of undertaking a variety of PD activities endorsed by SACE, teachers are expected to earn 150 PD points in each 'rolling' three-year cycle (South African Council for Educators, 2008:16). As

such, the NAPFTED makes provision for teachers to be accountable to the SACE if they fail to attain the minimum number of Professional Development (PD) points over two successive cycles of three years (Department of Education, 2007:20).

The above view suggests explicit obligation on teachers to engage in CPD activities. This is in line with Craft's (1996:5) assertion that it is no longer appropriate for teachers and educational managers to treat CPD as a matter of voluntary commitment or even perceive it as just an activity for those with career ambitions. Thus, teachers' participation in CPD initiatives would soon become a condition of service and, therefore, compulsory. In endorsing this assumption, the Department of Education (2007:19) declares that teachers "who do not achieve the minimum number of PD points over two successive cycles of three years will be required to apply to SACE for re-registration". By implication, this view suggests that teachers' retention of a professional practice license will depend on earning a required number of PD points in each three-year cycle (Department of Education, 2005:15). Nonetheless, there has been little sign of the effective implementation of the CPTD system yet. Much of the related literature tends to be descriptive but often lacks solid evidence to suggest the implementation of the PD points.

Although not yet put into practice, there are existing concerns, doubts and dissatisfaction among teachers about the PD point system. In her recent study, Steyn (2011:49) reveals that "some teachers were adamant that they would leave the profession if this system were put into practice. Other teachers shared their concerns and doubts about the system, in particular the unnecessary costs of the system and its administration…while others believed the system will not work".

Furthermore, Steyn (2011:50) highlights some significant gaps in the NPFTED policy. She intimates that the principles of the Policy Framework refer to "sustained leadership and support" but does not explicitly encourage or explain school-based programmes for teachers' development or the role of school principals in teacher development.

2.4.3   The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS)

Related to the NPFTED, the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) has been developed as another policy sought to promote teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in South Africa. The IQMS is an agreement reached in the Education Labour Relations Council in 2003 (Resolution 8 of 2003). It incorporates the Developmental Appraisal System (DAS) which came into being in 1998 (Resolution 4 of 1998), the Performance Measurement System (PMS) (Resolution 1 of 2003) and the Whole School Evaluation (WSE) (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:3).

Although integrated, each of the programmes that constitute the IQMS has their respective distinct focus and purpose. It is for this advantage that the current study focuses on the Developmental Appraisal. The Education Labour Relations Council (2003:3) explicitly states that the purpose of the Developmental Appraisal is to assess individual teachers in a transparent manner to establish areas of strength and weakness, and to draw up a programme for their respective development. This statement suggests that the Developmental Appraisal has two major implications for the role of CPD managers. First, the guiding principles of the Developmental Appraisal are plainly developmental in nature and promote a transparent process unlike the teacher evaluation methods of the apartheid era which involved judgmental assessment cloaked in secrecy (Biputh, 2008:24). This policy has been designed to ensure that teacher evaluation is carried out according to an agreed upon national model which allows teachers control to identify for themselves those areas for which they are most in need of development. And, second, it accentuates the outcomes of the Developmental Appraisal as the basis for the assessment of teachers' needs when drawing for actions and processes to produce teacher development.

The Developmental Appraisal sets out Performance Standards and criteria against which rating scale and scores are allocated and recorded on the standard evaluation instrument. Of note, the first four Performance Standards of the Developmental Appraisal evaluation instrument are for observation of teachers in practice (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:3). These four performance standards are:

- Performance Standard 1: The creation of a positive learning environment;

- Performance Standard 2: Knowledge of curriculum and the learning programmes;

- Performance Standard 3: Lesson planning, preparation and presentation; and,

- Performance Standard 4: Learner assessment

A close examination of the above Performance Standards suggests that their focus is on the evaluation of individual teacher's proficiency to deliver curriculum in a classroom. The results of the Developmental Appraisal derived from the above Performance Standards are consolidated in the form of Personal Growth Plan (PGP) of individual teachers, which inform the School Improvement Plan, which in turn will be sent to the area office for external development intervention (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:13-14).

In the light of the above discussion, it is discernible that, by virtue of involving the teachers in their own performance evaluation and by being attached to the real classroom business, Developmental Appraisal becomes the most significant teachers' CPD needs assessment tool. The literature further

indicates that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is also guided by legal imperatives. The next subsection deals with Personnel Administration Measures (PAM), as determined by the then Minister of Education in terms of section 4 of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998.

2.4.4   The Employment of Educators Act (EEA) of 1998

By means of the Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM), the Employment of Educators Act (EEA) becomes relevant to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation for several grounds. First, it grants practising teachers 80 hours to participate in professional development activities outside normal teaching time (Employment of Educators Act, in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C63). This provision suggests that CPD managers may organise activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation outside the formal school day or during weekends and school holidays. The goal is to avoid interrupting the teaching and learning processes and also to promote undivided attention of teachers (Chisholm, 2000:89). In terms of this approach, teachers are not required to sacrifice their free time after hours when they are tired of teaching to attend CPD lessons (Engelbrecht, 2008:50; Nonkonyana, 2009:70).

Second, the EEA (1998) allows professional teachers a number of leave days not exceeding three working days per annum to engage in activities aimed at their professional development (Brunton & Associates, 2003:C128). This, in short, means CPD managers may allow teachers to attend CPD activities during regular school days. In this regard, CPD managers should structure a regular school day per term to allow for the release of a certain portion of teachers to attend CPD activities on certain days. Since a part of teachers will be attending well-organised CPD activities, it is assumed that such interventions may not cause unwarranted disruptions in schools. Masoge (2008:175) emphasises that for this approach to be effective, CPD managers should inform the school governing bodies (SGBs), parents, district officials, teacher unions and community groups of the necessity for rescheduling.

In the last instance, the EEA (1998) provides the core duties and responsibilities of the curriculum coordinators and SMTs pertaining to their role as CPD managers. These are presented in detail in the next section.

From the above discussion, it can be deduced that the national policies and legislation that underlie CPD activities bear significant implications for the tasks of CPD managers. Davids (2009:3) notes that although the above policies have not achieved the required standard of CPD for teachers, they benefited teacher education by leading to a redesign of courses, improved access and improved

assessment practices. It is also worthy to note that none of the above documents provides guidelines to follow when managing CPD and often most of them present unattainable ideals of how CPD could be managed. The above views should, however, not be seen to override the importance of considering the above documents when managing CPD for curriculum change implementation.

The next section deals with the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs pertaining to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.5   MANAGING TEACHERS' CPD FOR CURRICULUM CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

The management of change in education has become a topic of perennial interest in the recent past. Both management and change command huge attention in education in their own right. Put them together and it is hardly surprising that they occupy a centre stage in the professional development of educationists at all levels (Morrison, 1998: xi).

This section presents the perspectives drawn from the literature concerning what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The presentation starts with the outline of what the Employment of Educators Act (1998) specifies as the distinct duties and responsibilities of the SMTs and curriculum coordinators pertaining to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.4.4); followed with the elucidation basic management functions of CPD managers; and concludes with what the literature in general suggests as the role of the above CPD managers.

2.5.1   The core duties and responsibilities of the curriculum coordinators as CPD managers

The Employment of Educators Act (in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C69) stipulates the following as the tasks assigned to the role of the curriculum coordinators in relation to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation:

- to assess professional development needs of teachers though questionnaires, developmental appraisal and other acceptable methods;

- to plan and support CPD activities based on teachers and or schools' needs, which are consistent with curriculum policy framework;

- to contribute, to implement and to participate in CPD;

- to assist in capacity building programmes for SMTs that concern managing the implementation of school curriculum;

- to participate in the IQMS in order to review teachers' professional performance on a regular basis; and,

- to provide support for professional growth of teachers within and outside the IQMS scope

Likewise, the role of the SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is outlined in the Employment of Educators Act of 1998.

2.5.2   The core duties and responsibilities of the SMT as CPD managers

The Employment of Educators Act (in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C64-C65) aptly outlines the following as the duties and responsibilities of the SMT pertaining to their role as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation:

- to be responsible for the professional management of a school;

- to provide professional leadership within a school;

- to determine the appropriateness of CPD programmes;

- promote and ensure that effective high quality CPD programmes are planned and implemented, including orientation and induction programmes for new teachers;

- support and analyse the implementation of externally organised in-service education and training;

- oversee the mentoring, coaching and general support of novice and underperforming teachers;

- to participate in agreed school/teacher appraisal processes in order to regularly review their professional practice with the aim of improving teaching, learning and management;

- to ensure that all evaluation/forms of assessment conducted in the school are properly and efficiently organised; and,

- to co-operate with relevant universities and other agencies in relation to CPD and management development programmes of teachers.

The above outline of the respective core duties and responsibilities of the curriculum coordinators and SMTs has been clear, but not without limitations. A distinct limitation that relates to this study is that the enumerated tasks are generic and do not provide significant guidelines for the structures and people responsible for managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Nonetheless, this study is designed to minimise that gap. To reiterate, one of the objectives of the

current study is to develop recommendations that can serve as guidelines for managing teachers' CPD related to curriculum change implementation (cf. 1.4).

In spite of the identified limitation, a close scrutiny of the abovementioned core duties and responsibilities suggests that both the curriculum coordinators and SMTs have a common role, namely, to manage all activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Further examination reveals that the said tasks of the curriculum coordinators and SMTs somewhat overlap, and thereby, complementing each other for the common purpose of managing teachers' professional development. In corroboration of the above analysis, Desimone et al, (2002:107) suggests that similar processes of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at school level should occur at district hierarchy and vice versa. The above understanding provides convenient grounds for this study to examine and discuss in unison the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This role is discussed within the multimodal conception of management. For the purpose of this study, this conception is restricted to Total Quality Management, systems theory, contingency theory and behavioural management theory. These four theories are discussed in detail below and will be used to ground the discussion of the findings.

2.5.3   Total Quality Management

The concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) was first introduced and historically practised by the business world. Currently, it has been modified and applied in the education sector (Chua, 2004; Goldberg & Cole, 2002:9). This integrative management philosophy, theory or approach centres on enhancing organisational performance through emphasis on quality values throughout every aspect within the organisation (Agarwal, Kumar, Swati & Tyagi, 2011:18; Nigam, 2005:66). To this end, the TQM approach is based on numerous principles (Prinsloo, 2001:17; Goldberg & Cole, 2002:11; Irani, Beskese & Love, 2002:643), the most fundamental of which are customer focus, teamwork and continuous improvement (Daft & Marcic, 2004:40; Prinsloo, 2001:17; Bowen & Dean, 1994:394).

The above principles are compatible with the goal of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation; that is, to improve the quality thereof on continuous basis. The principle of customer focus, to start with, suggests that organisations should place customers at the centre of every organisational process. According to Irani et al. (2002:644) and Bowen and Dean (1994:394), the premise for this tenet is the belief that customer satisfaction is the most important requirement for continuous success. It might, however, seem difficult to relate 'customer' to educational context. Understandably, the customer simply refers to anyone to whom a product or a service is provided.

Applying the 'customer' concept in the context of this study, teachers are the most obvious customers. They should therefore be provided with the best quality CPD initiatives. To achieve this and simultaneously meet their satisfaction, it is required that all processes concerning the management of teachers' CPD should be driven by their actual needs related to curriculum change implementation. Against this background, customer focus becomes most imperative to managing teachers' CPD, not least because the teachers frequently indicated dissatisfaction with most CPD programmes and activities they received owing to the mismatch between such initiatives and their actual CPD needs (Steyn, 2011:49; Lessing & de Witt, 2007:54; Fullan, 2001:315).

The principle of teamwork refers to the involvement of role-players (Prinsloo, 2001:17; Dale, 1994:12). It is based on the notion that the organisation's systems are most likely to be effective if they embrace the participation of all their members in pursuit of quality realisation of the organisational goals (Bowen & Dean, 1994:394). This means, CPD managers are expected to adopt collaborative relationships with role-players, relationships that promote high level of involvement and decision sharing in their organisations. To this end, they need to establish organisational environment that fosters teamwork to flourish by eliminating authoritarian obstacles. Teamwork has advantages. Pool (2000:374) and Bowen and Dean (1994:394) note that it has the prospect of maximising benefits in terms of synergy, cooperation and loyalty. Dale (1994:12) underscores this by stating that without teamwork it is difficult to gain commitment and participation of the people throughout the organisation.

As the third and last principle of TQM discussed in this study, continuous improvement is recognised as the driving principle of TQM (Daft & Marcic, 2004:40; Irani et al., 2002:643; Bowen & Dean, 1994:394). Daft and Marcic (2004:40) postulate that this principle concerns the implementation of small, incremental improvements in all areas of the organisation on an on-going basis. By improving these areas the organisations are given the leverage to meet the expectation of their customers (Bowen & Dean, 1994:394). The literature suggests three main ways to continuous improvement of customer satisfaction. First, the managers should turn-around organisational culture to embrace the concept of continuous improvement as its constituent feature (Irani et al., 2002:645). Second, there should be continuous measurement of the results in the organisation (Goldberg & Cole, 2002:20). As a third strategy, all employees (including the managers) should continuously undergo training to obtain new skills, knowledge, values and attitude (Oakland & Oakland, 2001:778).

The foregoing exposition suggests that the three principles of TQM are interrelated and influence each other. Bowen and Dean (1994:396) highlight the interconnectedness of the above when they state that continuous improvement is carried out to achieve customer satisfaction, and it is most

effective when driven by customer needs and through teamwork. Pheng and Teo (2004:11) proffer the opinion that management should support the TQM approach through planning for change at the beginning of implementation, considerably resourcing and providing methods of monitoring progress thereof. Implied in the above, is the idea that CPD managers are expected to visibly demonstrate their commitment to implementing the TQM approach. If the management is visibly committed to implementing the TQM approach, the cooperation and ownership of subordinates would naturally follow suit. The next section focuses on systems theory.

2.5.4   Systems theory

The idea of systems theory finds its conceptualisation in the organismic views of biologists (Weideman, 2009:67). It soon branched out into most of the humanities, which include the field of education (Laszlo & Krippner, 1998:53). According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1972:452), the definition and scope of this theory was abstracted from concepts which assume a social organisation as an organism, although not in the natural sense of a living organism. In a relative illustration of this perspective, Ansari (2004:1) enunciates, "Rather than reducing an entity such as the human body into its parts or elements (e.g. organs or cells), systems theory focuses on the arrangement of and relations between the parts how they work together as a whole." This viewpoint suggests that systems theory is grounded firmly in the notion that "everything in a system is related to everything else" (Jackson, Morgan & Paolillo, 1986:16; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972:459). In corroboration of this, Senge (1990:68) avows that the adoption of systems theory provides a context for seeing the system as a whole rather than focusing on individual components thereof. Implicit here, is the opinion that the way in which the different components of a system are organised and how they interact with each other determine the quality of that system in realising its goals (Ansari, 2004:1; Laszlo & Krippner, 1998:58).

Critical to the above views is the general tenor of building relationships as the cornerstone of systems theory of management (Grönroos, 1994:9). Therefore, looking for quality management of teachers' CPD from the lenses of systems theory requires focus to be devoted to a wide-ranging reinforcement of the relationships between or among the various components or units of the Provincial education system located at the districts, AOs as well as within schools.

The implementation of systems theory is guided by a set of principles (Evans, 2011:50; Jackson et al., 1986:16). The six tenets that are particularly noteworthy for their potential to improve the quality of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation are enumerated and discussed briefly below (Ansari, 2004:5).

The first principle of systems theory is open to environment. In terms of this tenet, systems theory emphasises an interactive relationship between a system and its environment. In this sense, the role of the CPD managers is expected to reflect much as an organic entity which exists in its own environment. The implication is that, managing teachers' CPD should commence with thorough consideration of the context and environment that has influence on its existence.

The second principle implies that behaviour in systems is teleological or purposeful. This principle emphasises the importance of outcomes-based management practices as a means to eliminate unintended results.

The third principle is interrelated subsystems. This is a describing concept of systems theory. It succinctly captures the notion that the behaviour of the whole (system) is more significant than the sum of its components. By implication, this principle requires the various units of the Provincial education system involved in teachers' CPD to synergise their behavioural and cultural components so that they work together as a whole. As Kerzner (2001:77) suggests, CPD managers are likely to achieve synergy if the different units in a system, either 'human or non-human', are organised and focused on the same goal, thereby creating a whole rather than a disjointed approach to quality management. Similarly, Evans (2011:50) posits that to create synergy, managers need to do two main things: firstly, to provide requisite systems and resources, and secondly, to lead by example.

The fourth tenet of systems theory is the notion of input-transformation-output. This tenet considers a system as a constant process of taking inputs and transforming them into outputs. Essentially, this principle stresses that the view that system should gather inputs from the environment and likewise, it should send the relevant outputs back into the environment in a continuous interchange. In line with this principle, CPD managers are expected to ensure that pertinent CPD programmes are based on the teachers' actual needs.

The fifth tenet is feedback. Feedback is essential to allow a system to accomplish its desired condition. In relation to the phenomenon under review, this principle calls for CPD managers to continuously control the quality of the CPD programmes. The CPD managers must have proper control measures that inform the system whether the CPD programmes provided to teachers were worthwhile, need some improvements or should be discarded altogether.

The last principle involves the concept of equifinality. Put in plain terms, this tenet recognises that there are many different ways to doing things. It discourages CPD managers from looking for a single best way of doing things, thereby sensitising them to look for solutions anywhere in the system and effecting change where it has the potential to improve goal attainment in the most efficient and

effective ways. This is in accordance with contingency theory of management. Details about contingency theory follow in the next section.

2.5.5 Contingency approach

Contingency theory, also known as the situational approach of management, emphasises that there is no one best way or universal set of principles which serves as a panacea for all organisational situations (Cohen & Sims, 2007:4; Zeithaml, Varadarajan & Zeithaml, 1988:37; Petzall, Sevarajah & Willis, 1991:16). Instead, it claims that the ideal course of action to improve organisational issues is contingent, that is, dependent upon the internal and external circumstances (Jackson, Morgan & Paolillo, 1986:16). This view takes into account the fact that change in most organisations is not a fully predictable process. Daft and Marcic (2004:19) aptly note that in the face of turbulent and unpredictable organisational contexts, managers must continually rethink the approach to organising, leading and motivating subordinates. This view suggests that contingency theory is inherently grounded on the notion that organisational effectiveness can be achieved in more than one way (Zeithaml et al., 1988:39).

The above description of contingency theory has implications for the role of CPD managers. Clearly, adopting contingency theory to managing teachers' CPD would indicate that emerging issues need to be conceptualised and addressed according to ways that depend on the context and environment in which they unfold. Implied in the above views is an inference that the planning, organising, leading, and controlling processes of management must be context-based, that is, they should be tailored according to the particular circumstances faced by any organisation.

From the preceding discussion, it becomes evident that the management theories of TQM, systems theory and contingency theory have a common shortfall. They ignore or lay less emphasis on employee motivation and will as key factors to enhance goal achievement. The next section discusses behavioural management theory which focuses on the above aspects.

2.5.6 Behavioural management theory

Behavioural management theory is often called the human relations movement because it directs attention to the human dimension of the organisation (Hall, 2003). A number of scholars concur that this theory incorporates the Thorndike's theory of Law of effect, Skinner's theory of operant conditioning (Mouton, 2007:80-81) as well as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor's theory of X and Y and Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation (Swanepoel, 2009a:102; Prinsloo, 2008a:150-151, Lethoko, 2002:74-75). This viewpoint suggests that the adoption of behavioural management theory may enable CPD managers focus on the teachers' sense of belonging, self-esteem and self-

actualisation needs. These needs, according to Huber (1967:276) and Quinn (in Mouton, 2007:80), are key sources of motivation, which inadvertently have major influence on the behaviour of the employees. In a consistent view, Raes, Bruch and De Jong (2013:171), Hall (2003) and Huber (1967:275) agree that behavioural management theory emphasises the view that increasing human motivation, satisfaction, expectation, and group dynamics have a concurrent role in increasing organisational productivity.

Hall (2003) suggests that for behavioural management theories to become most relevant to organisational management, a manager must first see himself or herself as a leader. This view should not be misconstrued to imply that the behavioural management approach is restricted to the leading phase of the management process. Rather, it encourages CPD managers to assume the role of leadership throughout the management processes.

The foregoing exposition of the four theories that constitute the multimodal conception of management followed in this study was clear. The next section focuses on the fundamental management functions of CPD managers.

2.5.7   The basic management functions of CPD managers

A review of the related literature suggests that all managers perform four fundamental functions in order to realise the organisation's goals: planning, organising, leading, and controlling (Smit et al., 2011:6; Van Deventer, 2008:75; Lussier, 2009:86; Hill & McShane, 2008:4). The above scholars also indicate that each of these functions comprises specific additional activities to provide necessary support when it is carried out. Romesh (in Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:19) illustrates the above notion as follows:

- **Planning Phase**

Assessing needs

Formulating objectives

Determining a plan of action

Formulating policy

- **Organising Phase**

Delegating

Coordinating

Resource allocating

- **Leading Phase**

Communicating

Motivating

- **Controlling Phase**

Establishing standards for measuring performance

Recording of the actual performance

Measuring and evaluating the actual performance

Applying corrective measures

This section discusses the role of the CPD managers in terms of the above basic functions of management and related activities. Before delving into further discussion of the role of the CPD manager in the context of the above management phases, this researcher considers it profitable to the aim of this study, to highlight the significance of creating a positive organisational climate prior to the illumination of the management functions. This is discussed in the next section.

2.5.7.1 Creating a positive organisational climate for the implementation of teachers' CPD

According to Miles (in Morrison, 1998:166), an organisation has to be healthy if it is to be able to cope with change. This metaphor suggests that if managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change is to be successful, there should be certain enabling conditions present at the beginning. Schmuck (in Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:293) declares that the implementation of many educational reforms have failed mainly because those responsible for managing the related processes paid limited attention to the organisational contexts in which the implementation of the reforms have been attempted. This view implicitly acknowledges that any attempt sought to manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation independent of changing some basic organisational features runs the risk of partial or complete failure (Tanner & Rehage, 1988:24).

As leaders, CPD managers are responsible for creating an organisational climate that engenders, rather than militates against teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:206; Bipath, 2008:67; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995:598). Holbeche (2006:184) describes organisational climate as the psychological atmosphere that represents the "feel of the place" at a given moment in time.

Bitzer (in Munonde, 2007:48) suggests that managing CPD of teachers for curriculum change implementation is likely to be successful in a context typified by management focus on, among other aspects, facilitating change, promoting teamwork, fostering the development of a community of learners and engaging people in setting academic achievement goals and participating in democratic

governing. In line with the above attributes, Kruger (2002:20) avers that a positive organisational climate should reflect, among other significant attributes, goal focus, synergised systems, communication adequacy, decentralised power, effective resources utilisation, cohesiveness, adaptation and sound morale. Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995:598) also corroborate with the above views when they mention collaborative and collegial relationships as some of the key features of a healthy organisational climate. Creating a positive organisational climate, which embodies most of the above attributes, involves, *inter alia*, undertaking the following activities: transforming organisational culture, promoting teachers' access to CPD and adopt participative management approach.

2.5.7.1.1   Transforming organisational culture

Organisational culture is perceived as another critical variable determining the suitability or otherwise of the context within which managing CPD is expected to happen. CPD managers are, therefore, expected to transform the organisational culture in order to facilitate the establishment of a positive organisational climate. Smit et al. (2011:438) and Sallis (2008:25) contend that quality management of the implementation of the various changes require transformation of the organisational culture to improve the quality of their implementation. In simplistic terms, an organisational culture refers to *the way things are done around here* (Kruger, 2008:6; Holbeche, 2006:175; Dean & Kennedy, in Coleman, 2005a:63). For improved CPD management to happen there has to be a commitment to changing *the way we do things here* for the better (Bipath, 2008:67). Implied in this view, is the leadership responsibility of CPD managers to inculcate within their staff, a culture of working together for the betterment of the organisation.

A well-modified organisational culture, if sustained, can bring about several advantages to the processes of building a healthy climate in an organisation, including the following:

- Producing rules that have a determining influence on all aspects of organisational life, including what teachers think and how they act or react towards CPD initiatives and management thereof (Kruger, 2008:14);

- Providing a basis for cohesion among all members (English, 2005:102);

- Exerting pressure on teachers to conform to the standards and validate their high expectations as outlined in the relevant CPD policy (Kruger, 2008:6). In this regard, it positions their expectations of what is required of them, and it influences their perceptions of how they contribute to the organisation; and

- Facilitating the process of acculturation of novice teachers as they become integrated into the organisation's way of doing things. Holbeche (2006:175) and Robbins and Barnwell (2002:377) agree that the culture prevailing in a particular organisation is often easily "sensed" and assimilated most markedly by new members as they enter an organisation.

The literature presents several ways for CPD managers to consider when shaping the cultures of their respective organisations. Moon (2007:7) and Mulkeen <u>at al</u>. (2005:34), for instance, agree on the following as some of the strategies:

- involving teachers in decision-making;

- providing relevant resources;

- protecting CPD time; and,

- facilitating the provision of adequate incentives such as bursaries and study leave.

In addition to the above, Knight (2002:237) suggests the following techniques:

- setting appropriate examples that demonstrate that CPD managers value professional development; and,

- demonstrating a commitment to professional development plans.

Briefly, the above strategies suggest that the conditions under which teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation occurs need to be institutionalised. CPD managers should also promote teachers' access to CPD for curriculum change implementation. This strategy is examined in the next section.

2.5.7.1.2   Promoting teachers' access to relevant CPD opportunities

The promotion of teachers' access to CPD activities pertaining to the implementation of curriculum change implementation provides another means to establish a positive context within which managing such activities can be executed. Howe (in Castleman, 2007:7) concurs with the above postulation by stating that a learning environment that offers a variety of lifelong learning activities for teachers supports a quest for effective management of such opportunities. In a corroborative view, Ha, Lee, Chan and Sum (2004:423) maintain that if teachers are enabled to access professional development opportunities, they are likely to be receptive to change, and thus improve the quality of curriculum change delivery in schools.

CPD managers that promote teachers' access to CPD conform to TQM's tenet of continuous improvement (cf. 2.5.3). Steyn (2001:47) suggests the following as ways worthy to be considered to maximise teachers' access to CPD initiatives:

- providing opportunities for staff to discuss case studies and good teaching practices;

- creating consensus on the vision of the school and review annual school objectives;

- providing professional development programmes that are purposeful and research-based;

- modelling a commitment to professional growth; and,

- actively involving staff in professional development programming as well as working for change by means of school-wide projects.

The above suggestions are somehow related to the notion of turning schools into learning-centred communities (Munonde, 2008:33; Bubb & Earley, 2007:5; Knight, 2002:237). Bubb and Earley (2007:5) assert that learning communities encourage teachers and learners to put teachers [continuous] learning at the centre of their daily businesses. Another advantage of the learning communities, according Holbeche (2006:208), is that they foster enquiry and dialogue and encourage experimentation among teachers as they share best practices. Consequently, by means of learning communities, teachers could be enabled to assimilate and respond to new areas of knowledge and to develop skills required to address issues as they emerge (Blandford, 2000:8).

In addition to the above strategies, CPD managers can promote teachers CPD related to curriculum change implementation through facilitating the provision of adequate incentives such as bursaries and study leave (Moon, 2007:7; Mulkeen at al., 2005:34). This method will require them to be well informed at all times about what is going on both outside and within their respective organisational units concerning teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The teachers who are allowed access to CPD activities are likely to support the processes of managing such CPD activities. The next section presents the transformation of organisational culture as another activity to enhance the establishment of a positive organisational climate for managing teachers' CPD related to curriculum change implementation.

2.5.7.1.3   Adopting participative management approach

Total Quality management and systems theory espouse the notion of teamwork (cf. 2.5.3 & 2.5.4). Clearly, this principle promotes the involvement of role-players in all management processes (Bowen & Dean, 1994:394). Participative management approach, according to Geel (2005:27), involves a process where a manager makes decisions only after discussions and participation by members of

staff, whose feelings and reactions are given full consideration. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (in Guro, 2009:10) argue that most people are unlikely to develop new understanding until they are involved in a process. The Department of Education (2000a:2) explicitly declares that education managers should adopt democratic and participative management systems to build relationships with stakeholders in order to elicit smooth implementation of current policies. The above views suggest that managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be a collaborative task which interactively places teachers firmly at the heart of all processes (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:13; Rathokgwa, in Munonde, 2007:46). Moreover, adherents of participative management approach such as Mafora (2012:99) and Coleman (2005:18) maintain that it creates a platform where managers and subordinates bring valuable information to the process, and the end result is more likely to be supported by everyone involved. This view implies that staff is most likely to feel as members of the organisation if they are given the freedom of expression of opinion about CPD issues and when their inputs are recognised by CPD managers.

Participative management systems may yield several advantages that enhance a positive organisational climate. Mafora and Phorabatho (2011:206) note that it encourages a feeling of organisation citizenship among staff. Implied in this notion is a view that teachers who feel that their inputs are recognised are likely to feel appreciated in their jobs, and such inclusion can lead to heightened teacher morale. By the same token, Smit et al. (2011:257) concur with Morrison (1998:123) that participative systems are necessary to circumvent possible resistance to CPD as well as in bringing together those affected to help in its implementation. In this sense, teacher-participation in the management processes is likely to bring about the element of trust among stakeholders (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:293). Consequently, if teachers feel recognised in CPD management processes and understand why the processes are important, they can develop positive attitude and pride as its owners, and ultimately cooperate and contribute positively towards its sustainability and success in an accountable manner (Nkabinde, 2006:16; Coleman, 2005:18; Erasmus & Van der Westhuizen, 2002:246). Fossum (in Mampane, 2001:11) warns that change which happens without the workers' support often results in half-hearted and inefficient operations.

The most economical way to achieve collective ownership, through participative management systems, is by establishing committees responsible for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at AO and school levels (Bubb & Earley, 2007:29; Blandford, 2000:14). In order to inspire and sustain a sense of ownership, the above structures or committees should be democratically established, comprising the curriculum coordinator (at AO level), principal (at school level) and elected staff members. Dean (1991:33) suggests that representatives from bodies or

associations of principals and teacher unions, respectively, subject advisors, circuit managers, curriculum coordinator and the AO managers should constitute the a structure to run the affairs of teachers' CPD for curriculum change at AO level.

The next sections focus on the basic management functions as they relate to the role of CPD managers, starting with the planning process.

2.5.7.2 Providing sound planning

The literature suggests that the actual management process starts with planning. According to Lourens (2012:19), planning is the management function that involves forward thinking as it determines where the organisation wants to be in future. In accordance with this view, Smit et al. (2011:9), Van Deventer (2008a:80) and Steyn (1999:211) suggest that when planning for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, CPD managers should seek to determine the following in advance:

- What are the needs? (the needs of the individual teachers, schools and department concerning curriculum change implementation)
- How are the identified needs going to be realised? (the nature of professional development activities to meet the CPD needs)
- When and where will the needs be addressed? (determine the dates and venues for the delivery of the CPD activities)
- Who will do it and what is needed? (the necessary resources: the teachers to be involved, the facilitators, financial and material resources required to complete the delivery of the CPD activities); and,
- How is the plan going to be implemented? (establish and adopt a plan of action to make sure that the CPD goal are reached as efficiently and effective as possible).

The nature of the above questions underline the notion embedded in the TQM theory that quality depends on a vision of excellence and that vision can become a reality through excellent and compelling planning (Nigam, 2005:66). Furthermore, the questions suggest that when planning for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, CPD managers should contexualise the process and ensure that the anticipated activities help address the unique circumstances of their individual organisations (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2013:118). The following activities can be identified as prerequisites for sound planning regarding teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation:

- assessing teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation;

- formulating pertinent objectives;

- determining the implementation plan; and,

- formulating policy relating to teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation.

These activities are explained in the next sections.

2.5.7.2.1   Assessing teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation

The first step in planning is to assess the organisational needs in accordance with the vision, mission and goals of an organisation (Van Deventer, 2008a:80; Swanepoel & Erasmus, 2000:236). This constitutes the essence of the customer satisfaction in the TQM approach (cf. 2.5.3). Lourens (2012:19) and Van Deventer (2008a:80) suggest that sound planning for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation hinges on the ability of CPD managers to diagnose the exact nature of the problem that needs to be addressed. In support of the above view, Schmuck (in Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:293) contend that needs assessment pertaining to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be determined and managed with organisational constraints and opportunities in mind. In accordance with Schmuck' contention, Mathekga (2004:27) emphasises that for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation to succeed, it must be based on careful assessment of the real and perceived needs of the teachers.

According to Dunlap (1995:156), "needs" represent a felt gap between the existing and desired condition. Deriving from the above definition, the concept of teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation can be described as the measurable discrepancy between the current conditions that impede effective implementation of curriculum change and the desired state of affairs (Bubb & Earley, 2007:41). This means, the process of assessing teachers' teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation is essentially the process of determining the discrepancy between existing and needed competencies of the teachers (Rebore, 2001:176). Steyn (2009:207) states that the needs stem from a current problem, or arise from the introduction of a new system, process, a new curriculum or a need that will occur in future. Nonetheless, the task of assessing the teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation may not be carried without difficulties. The next section briefly highlights some of the complexities that may be involved in the process.

2.5.7.2.1.1   Difficulties involved in teachers' CPD needs assessment concerning curriculum change implementation

Performing the needs assessment activity may not be a straightforward task. Bush and West-Burnham (1994:293) concur that the analysis and assessment of CPD needs seem particularly complex inasmuch as they relate to both the priorities of the education system and to the particular needs of the individual teachers. As likely as not, the said sources of complexity can be increased by the varied and divergent CPD needs from one school to another, and likewise, from one teacher to another. Teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation affects three strands, namely, the needs of the school (as reflected in school improvement plan), the needs of latest government or local initiatives and the needs of individual teachers (Bubb & Earley, 2007:42; Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994:115). Bubb and Earley (2007:42) confirm that prioritising the teachers' CPD needs based on the above entities often creates tension in most educational organisations. A major problem stems from prioritisation of the identified needs (Steyn, 1999:208).

To deal with the problem of prioritisation in CPD needs assessment, Steyn (1999:209) suggests that CPD managers have to assume the role of a broker to mediate among the disparate needs. They should guide the planning of CPD to display awareness of the different types of development needs (Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:293). This approach can enable CPD managers to provide guidance necessary for the establishment of a coherent balance through integration of government and individual teachers' development needs into CPD plans that relate to school development priorities (Desimone, 2009:184; Bubb & Earley, 2007: 41). In this way, they can build coherent and consistent relationships between teachers' individual development needs and school development priorities. It can be concluded that because CPD for curriculum change is basically job-embedded, and primarily concerned with school improvement (Gough & James, 1990:14), CPD managers should prioritise the overall CPD activities that benefit the whole school and not teachers as individuals *per se*. The focus on development needs, however, assumes the requirement of appropriate tools for their identification and assessment implicitly.

2.5.7.2.1.2   CPD needs identification tools

The literature provides numerous suitable tools through which data concerning teachers' CPD needs can be collected. The most common of these include, questionnaires, observation, personal growth plan (PGP), critical incidents, SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis and developmental appraisal system (Bubb & Earley, 2007:45; Coetzee, 2007:102; Grobler et al., 2006:306; Sallis, 2008:126). The effectiveness of some of the above tools seems to have not been

proven, if not widely reported in the related literature. Bubb and Earley (2007:45) are particularly critical about the interviews and questionnaires as CPD needs identification tools. They maintain that they are unlikely to give accurate results as "some people do not know what they need". The SWOT analysis and developmental appraisal system, however, appear to be the mostly preferred of the above CPD needs identification tools.

A number of scholars, including Glover and Law (2004:40), Blandford (2000:122) and Craft (1996:62), observe that teacher appraisal system, which embraces 'lesson observation', is increasingly adopted in most education systems as a useful tool in securing a better match between the needs of an individual with the planned CPD programmes and activities. The current South African education system requires schools to implement the Developmental Appraisal, as part of the IQMS policy (cf. 2.4.3). According to the Education Labour Relations Council (2003:3), the Developmental Appraisal is intended to assess the teachers in an objective and participative manner with a view to determining their individual areas of strength and weakness, and to draw up programmes for their professional development.

In spite of the above plausible attributes, the implementation of the Developmental Appraisal is not without limitations (Van Deventer, 2008a:81; Blandford, 2000:122). Predominantly, the implementation of the Developmental Appraisal is debilitated by elements of subjectivity such as bias, favouritism and the lack of honesty on the parts of the appraisees and appraisers (Letlhoo, 2011:62; Biputh, 2008:205; Blandford, 2000:122). CPD managers, should, however, take heed of - and deal with - the above limitations in order to make the Developmental Appraisal worthwhile.

Alongside or as a subsidiary to the Development Appraisal, the SWOT analysis appears to be a commonplace tool to identify the potential of an organisation or areas on which the organisation requires development (Sallis, 2008:126; Blandford, 2000:122). In relation to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, the SWOT analysis as a tool can be of immediate help to audit how effectively or otherwise the teachers implement curriculum change, focusing on their strengths and weaknesses as well as on the opportunities and possible threats. The SWOT analysis tool, according to Sallis (2008:126) seeks to maximise the strengths, and minimise the weaknesses, reduce the threats and improve on the opportunities for improving the quality of the teachers, in the context of this study. It is a considered view of the present researcher that regardless of the needs identification tool used, CPD managers should ensure that the teachers' CPD needs assessment aims to address both the teachers' CPD needs and the expectations of the schools in order to improve the quality of curriculum change implementation.

2.5.7.2.1.3   Advantages of successful CPD needs assessment

Successful analysis of teachers' CPD needs provides extensive benefits to the planning phase of CPD management. Among the most important, the Department of Basic Education (2011a:76) outlines that if appropriately identified and defined, needs assessment helps to clarify teachers' medium- and long-term needs, provides a framework for assessment of the results of the training, and further assists in the identification of existing appropriate development programmes while informing service providers of those programmes that have to be improved or replaced.

It also encourages education policy-makers and providers at all levels to reflect on and, where necessary revise, practices and programmes for the benefit of all role-players and the system itself. In this sense, effective needs assessment also helps to contextualise CPD planning and actual management thereof (Education Labour Relations Council, 2009:27). Moreover, this can culminate in the formulation of a set of objectives which outline the purpose of the training and the outcomes or competencies expected of the trainees once they have completed the training programme (Bubb & Early, 2007:41; Swanepoel & Erasmus, 2000:236).

In pursuit of the above view, Grobler et al. (2006:309) and Desimone et al. (2002a:1272) agree that subsequent to an assessment of training needs, appropriate CPD objectives should be formulated and written to reflect what teachers should be able to do on completion of the development experience. This view implies that effective CPD needs assessment underpins the process of formulating CPD objectives. For this reason, the next section focuses on formulating CPD objectives as another important activity involved in the planning phase.

2.5.7.2.2   Formulating pertinent objectives

Following the needs assessment is the formulation of objectives. Rebore (2001:175) suggests that the genesis of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation originates from its objectives and goals. In line with the above view, Smit et al. (2011:316) agree with Lussier (2009:12) that the objectives specifying the expected results should indicate what needs to be done in order to reach the set goals.

From the above views, it can be deduced that the formulation of CPD objectives should be predicated on the relevant needs of teachers. Implicitly, CPD objectives should reflect the kinds and levels of skills, knowledge, and attitudes that the teachers should possess and possibly demonstrate after the programme has been completed (Grobler et al., 2006:309).

2.5.7.2.2.1   Guidelines of formulating CPD objectives

DuBrin (in Swanepoel, <u>2009</u>:114), suggests the following guidelines for CPD managers to consider when formulating CPD objectives:

- formulate clear, concise and unambiguous objectives;

- the goal must be consistent with the general aim;

- set interesting and challenging objectives whenever possible;

- specify what is going to be accomplished, when it is going to be accomplished, and how it is going to be accomplished; and,

- review the objectives from time to time.

The above standards seem to emphasise a useful key concept that CPD objectives should be SMART. Van Deventer (2008:84) breaks down this acronym as:

S-Specific: the objective should be concise and clearly understood by all participants;

M-Measurable: the envisaged results of the objective should be measurable;

A-Acceptable: those in charge of carrying out the objective should be able to identify with it;

R-Realistic: the objective should be realistically achievable and time-bound; and

T-Trackable: the written objective should serve as a yardstick to measure progress.

Like other planning-related activities, setting CPD objectives is a task that is best performed through extensive consultation and inclusion of the people one is aiming to develop (Department of Education, 2000:15). In the light of this view, teachers and their needs should be placed firmly at the centre of all efforts.

2.5.7.2.2.2   Profits of well-formulated CPD objectives

The benefits of purposefully established objectives to planning and overall management processes of CPD are well-documented in the literature. These include, inter alia:

- they serve as reference points;

- they provide direction for management actions;

- they are essential for coordination;

- they serve as a yardstick for measuring progress; and,

- they are essential prerequisites for the determination of effective policy, procedures, methods, strategies, and rules (Van Deventer, 2008:83; Swanepoel, 2009:113).

Additionally, Grobler et al. (2006:309) draw attention to the following advantages of formulating CPD objectives:

- they help determine suitable methods;

- they clarify what is to be expected of both CPD facilitators and teachers; and,

- they provide a basis for evaluating the programme after it has been completed.

Van der Westhuizen (2004:144) points out that without objectives, CPD management in schools and AOs is likely to face a state of entropy (lack of order in a system). Hence, Bell and Day (1991:19) conclude that well-formulated CPD objectives maintain the unity of purpose of the organisation and management thereof. After assessing the needs and formulating the objectives, the best course of action should be selected. This is the point at which a plan of action should be determined.

2.5.7.2.3   Determining the implementation plan

The last phase of the planning process involves the formulation of a detailed implementation plan according to which predetermined CPD outcomes and standards can be met (Bell & Day, 1991:19; Badenhorst, 2003:47). Mafora and Phorabatho (2013:118) suggest that the implementation plans related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should match the specific context of the individual organisation, otherwise the aims of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation may not be achieved. In this regard, Van der Westhuizen (2004:141) suggests that the determination of a plan of action involves consideration of the various alternatives and variables that may operationalise the objectives in the most effective way. This view suggests that the process of determining the implementation plan involves certain subsidiary aspects such as allocation of funds and time-scheduling. These aspects are looked into next.

2.5.7.2.3.1   Allocation of funds

Dean (1991:72) states that in planning CPD for curriculum change implementation, CPD managers should know what resources are available. This view suggests that the management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation involves some financial implications (Bubb & Early, 2007:42; Dean, 1991:86). The significance and magnitude of the exercise predominantly require panoply of resources to succeed. These include both material and human resources of which training material and equipment, travel, food, accommodation and facilitators are key (Blandford, 2000:124; Welton, 2000:123; Dean, 1991:86).

In addition to provisioning, CPD managers have a considerable task to cost the process of managing teachers' CPD. Clearly, costing and allocation of funds constitute budgetary processes. Bisschoff (1997:66) describes budget as a planning instrument and a statement in financial terms of the education institution priorities. In this regard, the primary purpose of a budget is to translate educational priorities into programmatic and financial terms (Thompson, Woods & Honeyman, in English, 2005:565). Budgeting therefore can be referred to as a management process reflecting the revenues and expenditures of various programmes in the education institution, which is related to the financial planning of the concerned programme (Kruger, 2008a:237).

CPD managers have influence on relevant budgeting processes according to the institutions to which they are attached. In this regard, curriculum coordinators facilitate budget allocation for CPD activities to be accommodated at AO level, while SMTs need to guide the SGBs to establish a tight budget that is dedicated to CPD programmes, and which cannot be used to fund other activities (Bubb &Earley, 2007:35; Department of Education, 1997:5).

Budgeting provides a number of advantages and operational substance for managing CPD, including:

- facilitating the organisation and subparts in achieving planned objectives;

- creating a framework within which individuals, departments and schools can function;

- coordinating and focusing the work and activities of the organisation;

- providing a means for evaluating organisation's success; and,

- measuring results and costs and monitoring performance against needs (English, 2005:565).

Regardless of the vitality of adequate funding for resources in teachers' CPD, studies show that financial resources all around the world are often quite low to for the task (Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010: 27; Bubb & Earley, 2007:35; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:126).

2.5.7.2.3.2   Proper time-scheduling

Proper time scheduling is an essential element in planning (Swanepoel, 2009:137; Dean, 1991:33). This view is implied in Quible's (2005:355) notion that the extent to which CPD managers manage time is a significant determinant of their productivity level. Swanepoel (2009:137) attests to this conception when they indicate that the rationale behind effective utilisation of time is to become more efficient and productive.

Guskey and Yoon (2009:497) give emphasis to the importance of well-organised, carefully structured, purposefully directed, and focused time-scheduling in enhancing the quality of CPD

management. Therefore, proper time scheduling for CPD should entail specific dates, time and timescale (Quible, 2005:355).

Mizell (2010:14) suggests several strategies to improve time scheduling for CPD. These, in his view, include the following:

- schools and districts can 'bank' time - allowing teachers shorter workdays and combining the extra minutes for a block of professional development;

- schools and districts can identify specific days within the school calendar when students are released and teachers spend time learning; and,

- districts may hire substitute teachers to allow teachers to participate in intensive CPD activities.

Regardless of the option adopted, CPD managers are expected to apply a forward planning strategy as a means to managing scheduled CPD time profitably (Phorabatho, 2010:41). This strategy involves proper planning that can enable effective CPD to take place at the right time of the day and of the school year (Steyl, in Engelbrecht, 2008:15). Of significance, decisions about the time and duration of CPD sessions should be clear to all that it affects (Dean, 1991:86). This view implies that the time set aside for CPD should be communicated to all stakeholders in advance. Even most importantly, time for CPD should form an integral part of the AO and school year programmes. Ideally, this approach can be effective in the reduction of the presumed clashes concerning the respective CPD agendas of AOs, schools, and individual teachers, as alluded to in section 2.5.7.2.1.1 of this study.

Research, however, overflows with the enumeration of time constraint as one of the significant impediments to the effectiveness of most CPD programmes (Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:27; Guskey & Yoon, 2009:497; Chisholm, 2000:60). The persistence of this hindrance reflects that the implementation of most CPD programmes was founded on poor planning processes. Clarke (2008:16) concludes that inefficient use of time is a possible symptom of ineffective planning. CPD managers should, however, have a policy in place to guide the smooth implementation of what was planned.

2.5.7.2.4 Formulating policy relating to teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation

Dean (1991:103) states that CPD managers have a task to draw up a policy that serves as a guideline for the facilitation of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Ideally, policy formulation should be embraced in the planning phase (Welton, 2000:136). Ornstein and Hunkins (1998:293) aptly indicate that policy entails some salient management, administrative and functional guidelines as to how the planned action should be governed to achieve a particular goal. The above

description recognises policy as a resource by means of which the set objectives are interpreted and certain broad guidelines are laid down to serve as the basis for decision-making (Van der Westhuizen, 2004:150). In this sense, an ideal policy pertinent to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should spell out how in practice the school or AO works with individual teachers and other role-players to achieve the pre-set objectives, the kind of support teachers might expect and receive, and also clearly outline corrective measures to be taken when deviations are noted.

In affirmation of the above interpretation, Clerk (2007:281) posits that CPD policy is, in actual fact, a regulatory procedure which determines:

- how CPD is conducted (by who, where, and when);
- internal checks and controls that need to be put in place;
- the delegation of functions; and,
- the system authorisation.

To be maximally effective, the processes leading to the development of CPD policy need to be consultative and inclusive of the people one is aiming to develop (Munonde, 2007:57; Department of Education, 2000:15). This approach is likely to result in a feeling of collective ownership of the policy (Horne & Brown, 1997:42). In addition, Grobler et al. (2006:13) suggest the following additional points to improving the effectiveness of CPD policy:

- it should be in writing and adjustable;
- it should be explicated to avoid any misunderstanding;
- it should be communicated to all stakeholders;
- all role-players, particularly teachers, each should receive a copy and keep such in their files; and,
- it should be applied uniformly and consistently.

Grobler et al. (2006:13) stress that a well-written and well-used policy manual can be a valuable aid not only in orientating new teachers to the school but also in settling possible differences between CPD managers and their subordinates. Clearly, it helps to define acceptable and unacceptable behaviour and establish the organisations' position on CPD. In this sense, it enables various people involved in the management of CPD to make purposeful decisions (Van der Westhuizen, 2004:152).

From the foregoing discussion, it becomes evident that aside from being a multi-faceted phase, which widely embraces other tasks involved in educational management, planning is so important that it alone can determine the failure or success of the envisaged teacher development activity

(Van Deventer, 2008:78). In concurrence, Van der Merwe (2002:32) draws attention to the point that besides the role of deciding the success rate, planning also determines the acceptability of CPD in teachers.

Once planning is done, CPD managers should translate those abstract ideas into action (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Straude, Amos, Klopper, Louw & Oosthuizen, 2008:13). Sound organisation is vital to this effort (Lussier, 2009:11; Van der Westhuizen, 2004:161). The next section focuses on organising as a function of CPD managers.

2.5.7.3   Organising CPD facilitating structures

Systems theory assumes that the different components of a system should interrelate for a common organisational purpose (cf. 2.5.4). The interrelation thereof presupposes the management function of organising. Organising involves the establishment of structures or work units in the organisation that enable people to work together effectively towards achieving the organisation's planned objectives through the best utilisation of resources (Lourens, 2012:20; Smit et al., 2011:217; Lussier, 2009:11; Swanepoel, 2009a:96). Van Deventer (2008b:117) contends that without organising properly, CPD managers are most likely to experience difficulties with the successful implementation of the plans. When performing the function of organising, CPD managers should, among others, create steering committees, form CPD organisational structure, delegate certain functions and coordinate relevant activities in order to effectively put the programme into action (Van Deventer, 2008:75; Steyn, 1999:212). A discussion of each of these processes follows next.

2.5.7.3.1   Forming steering committees

A host of scholars refer to the activity of forming steering committees that deal with teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation as "departmentation" (Swanepoel, 2009a:97; Hellriegel et al., 2008:8) or "departmentalisation" (Smit et al., 2011:215; Van Deventer, 2008b:109). The execution of this activity may not be difficult for SMTs as compared to the curriculum coordinators. It is assumed that all schools have the School Development Teams (SDTs), comprising the principal and elected staff members (Education Labour Relations Council, in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C68). Similarly, the curriculum coordinators should ensure that departmentalisation at AO includes the involvement of all role-players (cf. 2.5.7.1.3). For purposes of this study, an ideal structure at the AO has been termed the Professional Development Committee (PDC).

Swanepoel (2009a:97) points out that departmentation is not only used to the advantages of division of labour, but also to improve communication and control, as well as efficient decision-making. In accordance with the above assertion, Nkabinde (2006:16), Blandford (2000:7) and Bush

and Burnham (1994:298) collectively agree on the essential responsibilities of the above structures which may be defined as:

- to formulate CPD policies;
- to plan and coordinate CPD activities;
- to ensure appropriate needs analysis;
- to ensure appropriate match between CPD needs and CPD activities;
- to facilitate provision of resources for the agreed CPD activities; and,
- to monitor the effectiveness of the teachers' learning experience.

Additionally, the above structures, according to Bubb and Earley (2007:34), have the responsibility to decide annual professional development targets, which fit in with the school and AO improvement plans. This view suggests the PDC and the SDT are responsible for the assessment of the teachers' CPD needs related to the implementation of curriculum change implementation of change (Dean, 1991:66).

The Education Labour Relations Council (2003:12) lucidly states the following as the role and responsibilities of the SDT concerning Developmental Appraisal:

- ensuring that all teachers are trained on the procedures and processes of Developmental Appraisal;
- coordinating activities pertaining to teachers' professional development;
- facilitating and providing guidance on how Development Support Groups (DSGs) have to be established;
- linking Developmental Appraisal to the School Improvement Plan (SIP);
- ensuring that all records on Developmental Appraisal are maintained;
- coordinating on-going support provided during the two developmental cycles each year;
- liaising with the department, through the SMT, concerning high priority needs such as INSET, short courses, skills development programmes and others;
- handling differences between appraises and their DSGs; and,
- providing all necessary documentations (e.g. SIPs) to the Principal for submission to the Area Manager in good time;

The above tasks, in short, imply that the SDTs should plan, oversee, coordinate and monitor Developmental Appraisal matters.

2.5.7.3.2   Developing a CPD organisational structure

Once the structure or committee is in place, CPD managers should form organisational structures related to teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation. An organisational structure seeks to define how tasks are to be allocated, areas of responsibility and authority, who reports to whom, and the formal coordinating mechanisms and interaction patterns that will be followed (Robbins & Barnwell, 2002:7). Van Deventer (2008b:110) reminds us that an organisational structure is usually represented schematically as an organogram. When creating an organisational structure, CPD managers should clearly delineate and communicate areas of responsibility to all that the organisational structure affects.

2.5.7.3.3   Delegating certain tasks, responsibilities and authority

Delegation is the process by which the managers assign a portion of their tasks and authority to subordinates who assume responsibility of performing them (Smit et al., 2011:236; Swanepoel, 2009:100; Bisschoff, 1997:93). The above definition suggests that delegation is management task by which means the managers ensure that the work gets done through the efforts of others (Smit et al., 2011:236; Keuning, 1998:9).

The literature abounds with the benefits of delegation, which may help the process of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Among the most significant advantages, Van der Westhuizen (2004:163) enumerates the following:

- it ensures that activities are clearly defined and therefore people know what their responsibilities are, and those of others;
- it minimises unnecessary misunderstandings and areas of conflict when plans are implemented
- it promotes team spirit;
- it prevents overlapping and collision of activities;
- it enhances chances to achieve goals easily; and,
- it permeates guiding or leading.

In addition to the above, effective delegation can imply some form of professional development as the delegated staff members are guided to assume additional responsibility and work independently (Smit et al., 2011:236; Tranter, 2006:23; Van der Westhuizen, 2004:173).

Delegation, however, requires effective communication. In order to be effective, it is helpful for the delegation to be spelt out in an explicit and integrated way (Coleman, Graham-Jolly & Middlewood, 2003:54; Dean, 1991:102). In corroboration with the above view, Lussier (2009:187) adds that the

employee or structure to whom a task is delegated should also be told why they were selected to make them feel valued. Smit <u>et al.</u> (2011:239) and Dean (1991:112), however, stress the importance of providing delegated subordinates or structures with sufficient human, financial, physical and information resources to carry out the delegated task. Without the required resources, the delegated person(s) may find it extremely difficult to operate effectively.

Van Deventer (2008b:118) reminds CPD managers that although authority and responsibility can be delegated, accountability cannot. The person who delegates a task is ultimately accountable for its success. CPD managers are, therefore, accountable for meeting the goals and objectives of the task. Hence, the work that has been delegated needs rigorous coordination, monitoring and support to ensure that the delegated groups do not drift apart completely to an extent that they are no longer collectively directed to the same overall objective of CPD.

2.5.7.3.4   Coordinating relevant activities

Since behaviour in systems is teleological or purposeful, according to systems theory, the parts thereof are expected to behave in a particular manner that supports the attainment of the predetermined goals (Ansari, 2004:6). The behaviour and activities, however, require being coordinated. Smit <u>et al.</u> (2011:221) state that coordination focuses on ensuring that the delegated staff and committees fit together as units for the effective realisation of the set goals. It is a process of achieving unity of effort among various people to accomplish the organisations' objectives. Buchel (in Van Deventer, 2008b:123) agrees with the above inference when stating that coordinating entails a process through which CPD managers should relate to people, tasks, resources, time schedules, and others in such a manner that they are supplementary, complementary and supportive to one another to enhance the achievement of the predetermined CPD outcomes. In the context of this study, more often than not, CPD managers will be expected to coordinate the activities of a structure that deals with teachers' CPD affairs (cf. 2.5.7.1) and other role-players. Such coordination may include provision of resources, time-schedules, convening meetings and other forms of communication.

The next section elucidates the leading phase of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. .

2.5.7.4   Leading the implementation process

Glover and Law (2004:85) assert that leading is a management function that is concerned with the ways in which intended plans are operationalised. This requires the ability of CPD managers to inspire people to work together to ensure that what has been planned comes to fruition. In this

sense, effective leading requires the ability of CPD managers to influence, inspire, motivate and direct others in such a way that they willingly contribute to the achievement of the goals and objectives set during the planning phase (Lourens, 2012:25; Smit et al., 2011:310; Masoge, 2008:22). Consistent with behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6), Prinsloo (2008:156) suggests that in order to elicit the above behavioural responses from their subordinates, CPD managers should be able to communicate and motivate their subordinates effectively.

In the light of the above discussion, the following two important activities of leading are looked into in the next sections: communicating with staff and other role-players and motivating the subordinates. The following can be identified as the activities leading-related, which CPD managers should perform.

2.5.7.4.1 Communicating with staff and other role-players

Communication is an integral element of all management functions (Smit et al., 2011:410). In other words, all management processes, particularly, leading, would be impossible without effective communication. Communication can be described as the process that involves transmission of information and meaning from the sender to the receiver (Smit et al., 2011:410; Swanepoel, 2009a:101). Several scholars agree that managers use communication as a vehicle to facilitate change (Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:29; Swanepoel, 2009a:101; Van der Westhuizen, 2004:182). Hellriegel et al. (2008:313) and Grobler et al. (2006:14) concur that effective communication fosters people to work together and produce positive results.

Swanepoel (2009a:101) distinguishes between the vertical and horizontal communication channels that are involved in the leading phase of managing teachers' CPD. The latter refers to communication between people of the same responsibility levels, in this instance, the curriculum coordinators and SMTs. Vertical communication involves downward communication (Grobler, 2006:14; Swanepoel, 2009a:101) - when managers give instruction to subordinates. Similarly, it also includes upward communication wherein subordinates communicate their views about the CPD to the managers (Swanepoel, 2009a:101). Regardless of whether vertical or vertical, communication can be done through the following media: meetings, memorandums (circulars), telephone and newsletters (Geel, 2005:143).

Hellriegel et al. (2008:12) suggest that CPD managers should possess communication competency in order to be effective in their tasks. The concept of *communication competency,* according to the above authors, refers to the effective transfer and exchange of information that leads to understanding between two or more parties. This implies that CPD managers should be able to

receive and transmit information efficiently and effectively. They further believe that communication competency can transcend the use of any particular medium (Hellriegel et al., 2008:12).

Hellriegel et al. (2008:329) enumerate the following as guidelines for effective communication:

- clarify your ideas before sending a message – one needs to thoroughly clarify the problem or topic needs in one's mind prior to communicating. Part of this includes to simplify the language of the message;
- examine the actual purpose of communication – ask oneself what needs to be achieved with it: information, conveying a decision, or persuading someone to take a decision;
- consult with others, if necessary, in planning communications – encourage participation of those that will be affected by the message. They probably might give a viewpoint that one might have ignorantly overlooked;
- follow up the communication – the message sent should be followed up in order to obtain feedback to ascertain that it has been received and understood accurately; and,
- ascertain that the actions support the communication – the most effective form of action is not what one actually says but in what one does.

2.5.7.4.2   Motivating subordinates

Motivation is the cornerstone of behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6). Numerous scholars identify motivating staff as another most important activity related to the management function of leading (Swanepoel, 2009a:101; Gray & Starke, 1988:107; Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:224). Bipath (2008:79) and Grobler et al. (2006:216) describe motivation as the force that generates energy to behaviour, gives direction to behaviour and underlines the tendency for behaviour to persist, even in the face of difficulties. In keeping with the above view, Swanepoel (2009:119), and Bush and West-Burnham (1994:224) concur that motivation can be referred to as the internal drive that generates important decisions and influences the course of human actions.

Deduced from the above definition, it can be inferred that motivation to engage in CPD activities is determined by individual teachers. However, CPD managers' knowledge of ways to motivate staff can make all the difference to organisational success, performance and career fulfilment on the part of the employees. They have a role to play in creating conditions that are conducive to elicit and sustain teachers' interest in their own professional development. In this regard, it is understood that although the drive must come from within the teachers themselves , CPD managers must utilise or

direct the drive in such a way that the prevailing circumstances and opportunities encourage and stimulate teachers to voluntarily participate in CPD programmes and related management activities (Swanepoel, 2009a:101). Furthermore, Gray and Starke (1988:107) note that a person who is motivated has self-directed behaviour towards achieving important goals.

The literature abounds in theories of motivation which CPD managers may consider. Such include, the Maslow's hierarchy of needs; McGregor's theory of X and Y; and Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation (Swanepoel, 2009a:102; Prinsloo, 2008a:150-151). In addition, Prinsloo, (2008a:150) and Bipath (2008:82) state that there is also a "reinforcement theory" of motivation. The above theory is based on the law of effect, which means that behaviour that has pleasant consequences is likely to be repeated, while behaviour that has unpleasant repercussions will probably not be repeated. While the above theories might have varied significance, the researcher assumes that the latter theory might be more instrumental to the role of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. It involves positive and negative forms of reinforcement. Prinsloo, (2008a:150) avers that in order to encourage particular behaviour, the individual should be rewarded. He adds that reinforcement can also be negative. Here CPD managers may, if circumstances warrant it, consider the use of punishment, control and force to encourage participation in CPD activities. These forms of negative motivation can be outlined, successively, as:

- Punishment - reprisal for unjustifiable deviation;
- Control – to order or instruct the staff to take part in CPD practices; and,
- Force – to exert pressure on the staff to participate in CPD activities by using threat.

According to Prinsloo (2008a:154) and Bipath (2008:83), the following may serve as guidelines for effective motivation:

- recognising individual differences among the staff;
- making sure that staff members view the aims that are set as attainable;
- including staff in decision-making process;
- making staff to feel as valuable, useful and important by delegating tasks and authority meaningfully;
- using effective communication to keep staff informed about the aims set, and the results obtained;
- acknowledging staff achievement personally;
- ensuring the presence of healthy competition among staff;

- knowing each staff member personally, taking care of their needs and being sensitive to their concerns; and,

- putting personal development that benefits the organisation first.

The phase of leading is of great vitality to the processes of managing teachers' CPD. From a range of advantages, effective leadership can elicit voluntary cooperation and inspire teachers' confidence in such a way that they will willingly work and strive towards achieving the predetermined goals of the group (Van der Westhuizen, 2004:181; Trotter, 1993:74). Bubb and Earley (2007:42) believe that through proper leadership and guidance, CPD managers can encourage teachers' commitment and increase their self-esteem, resilience, self-confidence, job satisfaction and enthusiasm for sustainable engagement in their professional development.

The leading phase has been assumed to be a complicated management task that requires specialised attributes (Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:20). This view rests on the assumption that the ability to guide is not only an inborn quality. In actual fact, the majority of leadership skills that reinforce and support management task of leading can be studied and learnt (Prinsloo, 2008b:139). Moreover, specific techniques and skills are also needed to carry out the task of guiding effectively (Van der Westhuizen, 2004: 182). In this regard, CPD managers need to reflect on their leadership qualities to guide and drive the actions of the people (Prinsloo, 2008a:148). Since the leading phase is concerned with the ways in which intended plans are operationalised (Glover & Law, 2004:85), it should not necessarily be done after the planning and organising processes end, but concurrently as it constitutes a vital factor of the above processes (Hellriegel et al., 2008:9).

The next section focuses on controlling as the last of the management functions.

2.5.7.5   Controlling the implemented plans to determine organisational success

The last but not least of the fundamental management functions is controlling. Hill and McShane (2008:6) assert that controlling is equally important as planning, organising and leading. Smit et al. (2011:438) aver that this function serves as an important link in the cycle of the management process. The essence of this task is emphasised in the TQM approach (2.5.3) and systems theory (cf. 2.5.4), respectively, through the principles of continuous improvement and feedback. The implication thereof is that CPD managers are expected to continuously control the quality of the CPD programmes and provide regular feedback. When controlling, CPD managers should focus on the comparison of performance against the predetermined goals set during the planning, to establish the success of the organisation in implementing a strategy (Hill & McShane, 2008:6; Bubb & Earley,

2007:30; Tomlinson, 2004:176). This implies a determination of what went well and what was less successful (Tranter, 2006:22).

Smit et al. (2011:440) note the following as some of the reasons that necessitate the controlling process:

- to ensure that all activities are consistent with the organisation's mission and goals;
- to ensure that the organisation's resources are deployed in such a way that they help to achieve the predetermined goals;
- to improve quality;
- it can also help to minimise costs and limit the accumulation of errors; and,
- it facilitates delegation and teamwork.

In endorsing the rationale behind controlling, Lussier (2009:12) states that not all employees may do the things they say they will - or are assigned to - do. Therefore, set objectives may not be met without follow-through.

Although the process of control can be regarded as the last of the management tasks, it remains a prerequisite for a successful and effective management process. It is useful in chronicling where CPD management has been and planning where it wants to go. Day and Sachs (2004:294) support the above view, when they list the following as the three main purposes of controlling:

- it provides valuable information for future planning and setting goals;
- it guides organisational improvement processes; and
- it addresses important questions regarding the value of significant investment of resources in professional development.

In addition, Hellriegel et al. (2008:415) state that the controlling process aims to detect and eliminate or minimise deviations from the original plans of the organisation. In corroboration, Smit et al. (2011:438) point out that by exercising control, deviations from the planned activities can be kept to a minimum so that the goals of the organisation can be achieved with as few problems as possible. According to Smit et al. (2011:439), an effective control system will indicate to management whether:

- the activities are proceeding as planned. if so, simply continue with the plans that have been made;
- something unexpected is happening and deviations are imminent. this might lead to the adjustment of plans; and,

- the situation has changed completely. This means whether or not CPD managers must devise a new plan or revision of the existing plans.

Swanepoel (2009a:102), Van Deventer (2008:129) and Smit et al., 2011:441) indicate a sequence of essential steps which are worth considering as guidelines for controlling: establishing standards for measuring performance, measuring the actual performance, comparing actual performance against set standards, and applying corrective measures. These steps and how their interconnectedness strengthens the controlling phase are briefly explained below.

2.5.7.5.1   Establishing standards for measuring performance – Step 1

The first step in exercising control is to establish standards or norms to measure performance at strategic points (Smit et al., 2011:441; Swanepoel, 2009a:102; Van Deventer, 2008:129). Hellriegel et al. (2008:415) describe "standards" as criteria for evaluating performance. Standards for control are usually expressed in terms of quantity, quality, time, or monetary value (Hellriegel et al., 2008:415). In accordance with the above view, Van Deventer (2008:129) lists the following questions as guidelines for setting standards:

- How efficiently is the work of training teachers being done?
- Are the teachers satisfied?
- How much time is required to finish training?
- What are the financial inputs?

Hellriegel et al. (2008:415) advise CPD managers about the importance of ensuring that the standards they set for controlling should be consistent with the predetermined objectives, which were adopted during the planning phase.

2.5.7.5.2   Measuring the actual performance -Step 2

Swanepoel (2009a:102) states that in the control phase, it is critical that managers observe what is happening, to record and to report on the specific function being performed. This view implies that step 2 of the controlling process is concerned with the collection of data and reports on the actual performance (Van Deventer, 2008:130). In this respect, emphasis is placed on the importance of reliability concerning the collection of information on actual performance. Desimone et al. (2002:117) assert that the collected data should provide a means of determining whether development activities are moving teachers towards goals set for CPD programmes or otherwise. Dean (1991:189) concludes that this activity should result in a report which is considered by the role-players as valid.

2.5.7.5.3   Comparing actual performance against set standards - Step 3

This step involves the determination of the disparities between actual performance and the standards set (Smit et al., 2011:441; Swanepoel, 2009a:102; Van Deventer, 2008:130). In other words, comparisons are necessary to find out whether what is happening is what is supposed to be happening (Hellriegel et al., 2008:416). The end purpose of comparing is to identify the chances to reduce deviation from the planned goals (Sallies, 2008:110). Tomlinson (2004: 176) aptly enunciates that measurement and evaluation is done to determine if the people's actions have contributed to the achievement of the set goals, objectives and targets. This view suggests that the point of comparing is to find out whether managing CPD has delivered desired outcomes as planned, and to check if it needs some review or to be abandoned if necessary.

CPD managers should measure the quality and functionality of the CPD plans at strategic points to ensure their effectiveness (Swanepoel, 2009a:102; Van der Westhuizen, 2004:220). Effective evaluation in this instance depends on the accuracy of the reports concerning the actual performance and results achieved. Van Deventer (2008b:130) concurs that unless these aspects are highly realistic, control will be unsuccessful. However, it is also important to know why a standard has only been matched and not exceeded or even why performance has been much better than the standard (Van Deventer, 2008b:130).

2.5.7.5.4   Applying corrective measures - Step 4

This is noted as the last phase in the activities of controlling, and which connects directly with planning (Swanepoel, 2009a:102; Van der Westhuizen, 2004:222; Smit et al., 2011:443). The essence of corrective action entails taking steps to attain performance standards or to ascertain that deviations do not recur (Swanepoel, 2009a:102). Marx (in Van der Westhuizen, 2004:222) defines corrective action as the correcting of 'deviances' as quickly and effectively as possible and the possible prevention of repetition of the same deviancy.

Focus in this task often centres on the determination of two main aspects: consistence or deviation from the predetermined standards and outcomes. Concerning these variables, Van Deventer (2008b:128) notes that if the actual performance tallies with the set standards, then no corrective measures need to be applied. If not, then the management has to choose among three possible actions:

- the actual performance can be improved to reach the standards;

- strategies can be revised so as to reach the set standards; or

- performance standards can be lowered or raised to make them more realistic in view of prevailing conditions.

The above possible actions imply the necessity to adjust the initial plans accordingly (Smit et al., 2011:443). Bubb and Earley (2007:30) and Allen (in Van der Westhuizen, 2004:222) concur that if the discrepancy between the plans and the outcomes is too wide, it is advisable for CPD managers to consider embarking on the next management cycle. In this sense, controlling can be viewed as the starting point of the next management process. Earlier on in this section, it was highlighted that the controlling process serves as an important connection in the cycle of the management process (Smit et al., 2011:438). Seen from this light, it is discernible that the control and planning phases, that is, respectively, the last and the first phases of management, form some sort of feedback loop on each other. Furthermore, some authors, including Smit et al. (2011:438), Van Deventer (2008b:128) and Swanepoel (2009a:102), concur that control is a continuous process which serves a regulatory task because it correlates actions, results and plans.

Although conceived of as a perquisite for a successful and effective management process (Van Deventer, 2008:127), the control phase has not always been an easy task to most education managers (Davids, 2009:11; Church in Church et al., 2010:45). Rebore (2001:179) indicates that many education managers find control to be a rather complicated task while others neglect it entirely. In a similar sentiment, Conco (2004:50) notes that the activity is often done poorly or not at all in most districts and schools. One reason for this is that managers assume that training will work. Another is that a number of managers of training fear that an objective evaluation might reveal deficiencies (ibid).

In a broad sense, this section has highlighted the important components of the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation from a theoretical perspective of education management. To reiterate, managing CPD involves the planning, organising, leading and controlling phases, each, in turn, comprises sub-tasks or activities. It should, however, be emphasised that the above management functions are significant only as far as they are related and are interrelated to each other. The classification of thereof into phases, together with a reflection on the management process in a sequential and integrated way, has been purposefully done to provide a logical overview of what management in general - and in education, in particular - entails. Thus, it has provided a coherent and systematic context for the explanation of the theoretical role of CPD managers. Managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change should consequently be considered within the context of the nature and purpose of education management. Most importantly, all CPD management processes are highly implicit of the active

involvement of teachers. The Department of Education (2000b:7) states that in terms of the South African Schools Act, educational managers are expected to observe the principle of collaborative and collective participation of stakeholders in decision making processes. Hence, the Department of Education (in Geel, 2005:20) concludes that the management of teachers CPD should not be seen as a centralised task of the few, rather it should be perceived as an activity in which all members of educational organisations are involved.

The next section highlights some of the fundamental theoretical challenges involved in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

2.6   CHALLENGES FACING CPD MANAGERS AND APPROPRIATE STRATEGIES TO DEAL WITH THEM

This section presents some of the major challenges facing CPD managers. The literature indicates that CPD managers are faced with a range of obstacles. Many of the challenges are inherent in change, and therefore, are inescapable. In expansion of this view, Fullan (2001:40) asserts that organisations that implement change are likely to experience 'implementation dip' especially during the preliminary stages. He explains implementation dip as literal reference to a dip in performance and confidence as one encounters change. The transformation of the education system in the post-1994 South Africa also resulted in considerable challenges to the managing of teachers' CPD. Although a substantial amount could be associated with traces of the country's apartheid past, the innate systemic problems involved in the democratic government's education transformation agenda also pose acute impediments to the task of managing CPD effectively. The SA Good News (in Davids, 2009:10) enunciates: "the system continues to be faced by inadequate infrastructure, poor and inefficient administration in some provinces and disaffected and demotivated teachers."

In addition to – and inferred from – the above view, it is assumed that the following factors constitute some of the most significant impediments to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation effectively: lack of training opportunities for CPD managers, CPD managers' role confusion, limited resources to support the provision of teachers' CPD, teachers' lack of interest in CPD and increasing workloads of CPD managers and teachers. These challenges, their related manifestations and implications are explored and explained in the next subsections.

2.6.1   Lack of training for CPD managers

The literature is replete with narratives of district officials (including curriculum coordinators) and school managers who lack sufficient knowledge and skills to provide quality leadership and

management to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Bubb & Earley, 2007:2; Phorabatho, 2010:9; Mabitsela, 2004:3). Moreover, most of them are often not well prepared for tasks they must undertake and are also deprived of sufficient professional development and support to perform their responsibilities effectively (Msila & Mtshali, 2011:1; Mizell, 2010:7; Nzimande & Matheson in Faleni, 2005:36; Mestry & Grobler, 2002:21). Viewed in the same light, Fullan (in Geel, 2005:42) maintains that education policy-makers often introduce change without providing a means for its managers to identify and deal with the situational constraints.

Concerning SMTs, there is a general consensus among some scholars that they are marginalised and do not receive specific training and development related to their task of managing curriculum change implementation, wherein the management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is central (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:212; Chisholm, 1999:57). Instead, avers Mailula (2004:6), the initial development and training for the implementation of curriculum change in South Africa was limited to the teachers in the classroom. Mulkeen et al. (2005:34) observe that most professional development opportunities that principals, in particular, undergo are often brief and focused on administrative tasks.

The lack of training related to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is not only experienced by SMTs. Many district officials also need adequate training to manage teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation (Department of Basic Education, 2009:56; Chisholm, 2000:52). Rather, the kind of training provided to curriculum coordinators was reportedly focused on how to train teachers to implement curriculum change. Even so, the district trainers often contradicted the policies and this has resulted in confusion and uncertainty among teachers (Department of Basic Education, 2009:56). In the light of the preceding discussion, it becomes discernible that CPD managers may find it extremely difficult to execute their duties and responsibilities meaningfully without proper training and lack pertinent on-going professional development opportunities (Mizell, 2010:7; Mulkeen et al., 2005:33).

2.6.2   CPD managers' role confusion

Allied to the problem of lack of professional development opportunities, many CPD managers are not certain about what their roles entail. Ramparsad (in Ndou 2008:5) notes that most SMT members were not clear on what to manage because they were not given practical guidelines for managing the implementation of curriculum change, neither were they workshopped sufficiently on the challenges in the new curriculum implementation at school level. Mafora and Phorabatho (2012:210) identified the prevalence of the perceived "role ambiguity" among most SMTs and AO

officials. This conception rests on their findings which indicated that most CPD managers have obvious misconceptions of what constitutes school-based professional development, and apparent disregard of relevant policies that concern operational needs as regards curriculum change implementation. In supporting this postulation, the Department of Basic Education (2009:58) notes that recent large-scale research has shown that SMTs do not regard the management of the curriculum as their primary responsibility. The same magnitude of confusion was detected amongst district officials, including subject advisors, and provincial officials around understanding of their role in relation to implementing the curriculum, which centrally includes managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Department of Basic Education, 2009:56).

As a result of lack of clarity regarding their role, curriculum coordinators tended to assign their staff (subject advisors) other tasks not directly associated with curriculum and its implementation. The Department of Basic Education (2009:23) points out that in some provinces, subject advisors assume the role of collection and delivery of exam papers, and for training in IQMS in others. Clearly, this undermines not only the task of the subject advisors but predominantly the role of curriculum coordinators and the process of curriculum change implementation.

2.6.3 Limited resources to support the provision of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

A more profound problem facing CPD managers concerns limited resources to support the provision of teacher development in AOs and schools. The provision of adequate and relevant resources for CPD to township and rural schools was negligible under apartheid (Brew in Lethoko, 2002:1; Rothman, 1996:78). This problem continues to be felt to the present day (Davids 2009:6). The lack of resources becomes identifiable in varied facets and forms including limited financial support, lack of CPD facilities, and shortage of subject advisors.

2.6.3.1 Limited financial support

CPD managers have to deal with the limited financial support they receive from education authorities. Hişmanoğlu and Hişmanoğlu (2010:27) note that funding is usually quite low even though its vitality in teachers' professional development is reported in many studies conducted all around the world. Brew (in Lethoko, 2002:1) indicates in South Africa in-service teacher training had been compromised in 1999 when the provincial education departments further reduced the curriculum support services because of budgetary constraints.

Related studies show that limited financial support does not only concern management of CPD in South Africa, it is a global issue. Villegas-Reimers (2003:128), for instance, highlights that in most countries, including the USA, funding for CPD is often quite low, as it is one of the first items to be eliminated from a school or district budget when resources are scarce. This view suggests that when there is a budget crunch, the funding for CPD is one of the first lines to be eliminated, creating a phenomenal task on CPD managers. Aside from illustrating lack of security in funds allocated for teachers' CPD, the above views also clearly demonstrate how most governments undermine its significance.

2.6.3.1.1   Methods to address limited financial support

Related literature offers a few suggestions regarding ways through which CPD can be offered at relatively and comparatively inexpensive costs. Villegas-Reimers (2003:127) shares with us some examples of the creative means that schools and districts have adopted in dealing with the challenge of limited financial support for teachers' CPD. She cites a high school in Colorado as one of the successful cases. The school created a CPD fund through the initiative of a group of teachers. The fund was administered by a Leadership Council - composed of staff members, parents, students and community members. This group decides which initiatives are to be funded. Many teachers who have received grants return to the school to share their learning experience with colleagues (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:127).

As another useful means, Non-Governmental Organisation (NGOs), donor agencies, foundation, etc. are likely to fund CPD projects if requested (Geiger, in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:127). In this case, the above author suggests the following strategies for consideration: developing research teams or study groups within the school; having teachers and administrators change places for a limited amount of time; offering lunch-box discussion groups; asking vendors to include training with the products they are selling; assigning teachers as coaches; to have teachers train other teachers in particular aspects of teaching; and looking for competitive contracts from consultants or organisations when needed.

Furthermore, unions can also play a significant role in teacher development, thus, addressing the problems associated with the lack of funding (Phorabatho (2010:120). In support of this notion, related studies show that in most parts of the world, many teacher unions actively focus on the professional growth of their members. In Canada and the USA, for example, most of their professional development strategies focus on helping teachers to respond to policy demands,

especially when these demands have been given by policy makers who do not offer specific technical support to implement them (Bascia in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:127).

2.6.3.2   Lack of facilities for teachers' CPD

The literature suggests that CPD of teachers is not always prioritised and adequately resourced in most education systems (Bubb & Earley, 2007:29). In South Africa, poor infrastructure and facilities for CPD still persist even after many years since the demise of the apartheid government (Department of Education, 2007:12). Davids (2009:6) observes that this problem is most keenly felt in rural areas and townships where there is grave shortage of teacher development centres, poor infrastructure and facilities. The *Report of the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education* (in Department of Education, 2007: 14) also suggests that teachers in rural schools experience limited access to CPD opportunities owing to limited resources.

Lack of CPD facilities also manifests in the form of poor transport to schools and other venues where CPD programmes are held. Bubb and Earley (2007:44) contend that some courses are held in places that are relatively hard to get to, especially on public transport. Johnson et al. (in Foulds, 2002:4) note that township and rural teachers who are typically in greatest need of active help and support find it difficult to attend training workshops because of a reliance on public transport. This problem is mostly prevalent in the largely rural Northern, KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Free State provinces (Naicker, in Foulds, 2002:4). Inevitably, married women teachers, who form the majority of the South African teaching profession, are the hardest hit (Beard & Schindler, in Foulds, 2002:4).

On the other hand, professional support staff at provincial and district levels experience acute problems associated with transport to provide the necessary support to teachers. The problem appears to be more intensely felt in those provinces whose districts and schools stretch over large distances, and those with large rural constituencies (Chisholm, 2000:93). The North West Province features the above characteristics. Phorabatho (2010:107) postulates that in this Province, the majority of subject advisors are unable to provide the necessary on-site and follow up support to teachers due to lack of transport.

2.6.3.3   Shortage of subject advisors

According to the Department of Basic Education (2009:8), subject advisors act as "intermediaries between curriculum policy and implementation in the classroom". Hence, in the North West Province, they train, develop and support teachers to implement curriculum change (Hoadley & Chisholm, 2005:12). Regardless of the key role they play, the literature reveals that the subject advisors are quantitatively too few nationwide to meaningfully support the trajectory of teacher

development as regards curriculum change implementation (Department of Basic Education, 2009:8; Education Labour Relations Council, 2009:15).

On a large scale, it is expected of the "few subject advisors" to qualitatively support 418 109 teachers who serve in 25 850 ordinary schools in South Africa (Department of Basic Education, 2010:1). In many cases, a subject advisor can be responsible for 300 or more teachers (Fleisch, 2002:133) in certain provinces. The Sunday Independent (in Chisholm, 2000:64), points out that one subject advisor for a district in the Northern Province has to attend to 170 schools, "a number which normally requires six people". In addition to this, subject advisors are reported to be over-stretched in terms of what they are required to do, with some districts lacking subject advisors in certain subjects and too few subject advisors covering too many schools (Department of Basic Education, 2009:23). The limited number of subject advisors suggests that the majority of teachers are seldom visited and supported adequately (Phorabatho, 2010:107; Fleisch, 2002:133).

2.6.4 Teachers' lack of interest in their own CPD

The literature suggests that the majority of teachers lack interest to participate in the activities sought to improve their capacity related to curriculum change implementation (Lessing & de Witt, 2007:54; Steyn, 2011:49; Nkabinde, 2006:48). This challenge stems from several sources, including: the days of the struggle against the apartheid regime (Biputh, 2008:2), the lack of significant rewards (Day & Sachs, 2004:81) and policy overload (Robins & Barnwell, 2002:295).

2.6.4.1 A legacy of the apartheid regime

The problem of teachers' disinterest in their own CPD for curriculum change implementation precedes the current democratic South African society. Biputh (2008:2) reminds us that for many years African schools, in particular, suffered under the regime of inspection that was autocratic. Consequently, the resistance against apartheid education system led to the historic resistance of teachers to inspectorship and related forms of teacher development. Day and Sachs (2004:180) concur that at the height of the struggles against apartheid education, the chief instrument of in-service professional training and development, the inspectorate services, was caught up in turmoil and lost legitimacy to the extent that it was no longer able to function in many schools. The conflicts led to a breakdown in education value systems, attitudes, ethos and morale among teachers (Rampa, 2005:1). As a result, by virtue of their positions, principals and inspectors of the time were at times viewed by many as targets for confrontation, prejudice and utter rejection. In attestation of this view, the Educators Workload Report 2005 (in Biputh, 2008:2), highlights that inspectors and

subject advisors were often violently cast out of African schools and teachers resisted any form of evaluation of their own work for development.

The struggle against the racist education system also created problems associated with the breakdown of a culture of continuous learning in teachers which has not been completely overcome in the current dispensation. In short, teachers are still not willing to attend CPD activities. Lessing and de Witt (2007:54) and Steyn (2011:49) have recorded lack of enthusiasm in teachers to attend CPD in the post-apartheid South Africa. In corroborating this view, McCarthy (2006:45) holds a consistent view with Fullan (2001:315) about the negative attitudes in teachers who found the attendance of official CPD programmes as a waste of time, and thus showed reluctance to attend future professional development activities.

2.6.4.2   The lack of significant rewards

The literature suggests that teachers lack interest in CPD for curriculum change implementation due to the lack of significant rewards. Day and Sachs (2004:81) noted that there is growing discontent among teachers that despite making significant sacrifices in terms of time, personal energy and resources to invest in their professional development, there are few, if any, tangible rewards. Hill (2009:471) notes that most of them engage in only the minimum professional learning required by their state or district each year. This limitation contradicts the core of behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6), which espouses rewards as another means to facilitate self-esteem and self-actualisation in staff. These concepts are the pillars of motivation. Without significant rewards, and therefore without motivation, teachers are likely to feel unfulfilled and therefore they may not be keen to participate in CPD activities.

2.6.4.3   Policy overload

In addition, Robins and Barnwell (2002:295) point to policy overload as yet another significant possible reason for the teachers to lack interest in professional development activities. They back their standpoint with a reflection on the vast array of workshops that the teachers were put through after 1994. They said, these included, for example the workshops on: "outcomes-based education, continuous assessment, school-based management, alternatives to corporal punishment, whole school evaluation, learner-centred education, Developmental Appraisal, anti-bias teaching, inclusive education, and HIV/AIDS education…''

The present researcher believes that the lack of interest to change is a human response and the CPD mangers should take steps to counter it. Theron (in Geel, 2005:18) aptly suggests that CPD managers have to be able to apply negotiating skills to deal with forms of resistance that accompany change. In

a complementary view Smit et al. (2011:257) suggest the following strategies to overcome lack of interest that is linked with resistance:

- education and communication – there should be sufficient advocacy to educate the people about planned change before it happens;
- participation and involvement – people need to be brought into decision-making processes to engender collective ownership and teamwork;
- facilitation and support – provide the necessary resources and provide psychological support; and,
- negotiation and reward – negotiate a proposed change with role-players and reach collective agreements.

2.6.5   Increasing workloads of CPD managers

Another crucial obstacle to effective management of CPD concerns the heavy workloads faced by both SMTs and teachers. Concerning the SMTs, the literature indicates that the increasing workload is ascribable to a manifold factors including:

- the multiplied administrative burdens placed on teachers and SMTs by the management of the implementation of the OBE-driven curriculum (Jansen, 1999:151; Department of Basic Education, 2009:64);
- the onerous administration accountability attributable to the implementation of several policies of the democratic south african education system (Chisholm et al., 2005:141);
- "poorly coordinated" activities of districts and AOs (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2012:214); and,
- managing schools that are characterised by impoverished buildings, little or no equipment, untrained teachers, lack of basic facilities such as water, power, sanitation and learners from destitute family backgrounds (Bush & Ondoro in Bush, 2008:27).

Faced with the above demands, SMTs may find it difficult to devote quality time to managing the activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This predicament is proliferated by the fact that the teachers also experience heavy workloads.

Chisholm et al. (2005:24) aver that in terms of the current policies the teachers and HoDs are expected to teach 85% of their time, leaving 15% for other activities which may not necessarily be related to professional development. Presumably, when teachers are not effectively engaged with

classroom-related business, they might be busy with other responsibilities assigned to them including extra-mural activities, in and out of school meetings, in and out of school committee involvement and so on (Bantwini, 2009:11). Moreover, Nemutandani (in Phorabatho, 2010:96) avows that teachers and SMTs have to cope with increased workload created by the transfer of their colleagues in terms of the redeployment policy, Education Labour Relations Council- Resolution 2 of 2003.

In summarising the above views, Bubb and Early (2007:44) aver, "many teachers work over 60 hours per week in term time and simply do not feel that they have the time for professional development, that it will be another thing to do – a burden." Inevitably, this condition would have adverse impact on teachers' enthusiasm and time to attend CPD programmes. In this way, CPD managers cannot escape to account to the high echelons in education.

2.6.6   Limited time for CPD

Researchers and policy makers consistently indicate that the greatest challenge to managing effective CPD is lack of time (Archibald, Coggshall, Croft & Goe, 2011.11; Hişmanoğlu & Hişmanoğlu, 2010:27; Masoge, 2008:174). Some scholars hold the opinion that a significant number of districts and schools find it difficult to devote significant time to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Clarke, 2008:231; Conco, 2004:27). This could probably be due to the inability in several CPD managers to utilise the provision of 80 hours per year for CPD activities as embedded in the Employment of Educators Act (1998) meaningfully (Bantwini, 2009:11; Gulston, 2010:46; Masoge, 2008:175). Thus, the opportunity provided by the Employment of Educators Act (1998) for teachers' to learn is lost.

The literature suggests several ways to devote time to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Dean (1991:70) thinks that CPD managers need to give thought to ways of timetabling which release groups of teachers for CPD activities, particularly those related to school and departmental needs. Specific time could be planned for the extent of liaison required of coordinators, rather than the moments grabbed at lunch-time or after school (Blandford, 2000:17). This approach is likely also to help circumvent the already recorded negative attitude among teachers who attend CPD programmes after hours, during weekends, or school holidays (Steyn, 2010:46; Lessing & de Witt, 2007:54; Nkabinde, 2006:48).

In summary, the above exposition attempted to show that the presumed lack of capacity in CPD managers to carry out their tasks effectively is likely to be proliferated by change-related challenges.

While the literature provided suggestions to overcome some of the challenges, the uniqueness and intensity involved in some of the challenges could not be found.

2.7   SUMMARY

This chapter furnished a review of related literature exploring the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing the implementation of CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change in three parts. The opening part introduced the subject of study with a brief overview of curriculum change in the post-1994 South Africa. Special attention, in respect of this, was given to the background of curriculum change framework in the post-1994 South Africa, aims of curriculum change, and the kind of teacher that is envisaged to implement the NCS as curriculum change in the democratic South Africa.

The second segment delved into what a body of local and international related literature says about CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change. Here the study zoomed in on what constitutes an effective CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change. Special attention was given to the objectives and purposes CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change; and teacher training and development needs. This section concluded with a summary of international 'best practices' in teachers' CPD, and a snap description of the CPD in the current South Africa education system.

The last section presented a discussion around the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing the CPD of teachers, then, illuminated challenges that curriculum coordinators and SMTs encounter in managing CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change, and closed with an expansive outline of strategies that could be applied to overcome the identified barriers.

The next chapter deals with the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The literature study carried out in the preceding chapter provided comprehensive theoretical answers to the following key objectives emanating from the main aim of this study:

- To explore what entails effective teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;

- To establish what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation; and,

- To determine the nature of impediments, if any, that CPD managers encounter in performing their tasks effectively, and possible strategies to tackle them.

This chapter presents a detailed description and justification of the research methodology employed in the present study. Research methodology, according to Lichtman (2013:324) and Somekh, Burman, Delamont, Meyer, Payne and Thorpe (2011:4), refers to the overall collection of methods and procedures or rules, within a well-defined epistemology, that guide the research. Wisker (2009:88) describes a research methodology as a theoretical framework, principles and concepts undergirding the approaches and methods of a study. A related definition is that, research methodology serves to provide description and analysis, the rationale, and justification for the strategies and methods undertaken in a study (Sikes, 2004:16). These conceptions of research methodology suggest that it comprises the following core elements around which this chapter is structured:

- this study's enquiry approach and design;
- the sampling and sample selection;
- the data collection procedure;
- how the data are collected, analysed and interpreted; and
- trustworthiness and research ethics (Heck, 2011:199; Wellington, 2010:129).

The ensuing discussion briefly examines each of the above-cited key features of a research methodology, and their appropriateness for the current study.

3.2   RESEARCH APPROACH

The current study adopted qualitative research approach. Merriam (2009:13) recognises a definition provided by Van Maanen, which describes qualitative research as "an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomenon in the social world." Central in this classical definition is a view that qualitative researchers are concerned with this study of research problems which look into the meanings that individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem in natural conditions (Creswell, 2007:37). In view of this clarification, qualitative mode of inquiry embodies distinct attributes needed to elicit the sought-after information to address the critical questions of this study. The most critical of these are listed next and then briefly discussed in turns:

- compatibility with the research question;
- studying the meaning of a phenomenon under natural conditions from the perspectives and views of the participants;
- contributing insights into existing or emerging concepts through inductive logic; and,
- providing flexibility in both research design and sources of data.

Starting at the top of the list, qualitative research was chosen because of its compatibility with the research questions which underpin this study. To recap, the current study's central question is: *How can the roles of curriculum coordinators and school management teams in managing CPD of teachers be improved to increase the quality of curriculum change implementation in schools?* A number of scholars recognise the particular ability of qualitative research to answer the '*how*' research question (Cohen et al., 2011:289; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:75; Yin, 2009:27). In a convergent view, Denzin and Lincoln (2005:11) astutely observe that qualitative researchers "seek answers to questions that stress *how* social experience is created and given meaning." A consideration of the above view suggests that quantitative measures and the statistical analyses would simply not be 'fit' to address the current research question logically and adequately (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:91; Creswell, 2007:40).

The second advantage of qualitative research comes from its potential to 'grasp the native's point of view' in its natural settings (Chadwick, Bahr, & Albrecht, 1984:211; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:323). The point in qualitative research is to study things in their real-life world with a concern for gaining in-depth understanding of phenomena of interest in terms of the meaning that the participants ascribe to them, and not the preconceived meaning that they bring to the research or

which other writers express about the problem (Lichtman, 2013:69; Yin, 2011:8; Creswell, 2009:175). With reference to this study, the conditions under which the empirical data was collected were free from being contrived. Several scholars in research literature believe that human behaviour is best understood when studied as it naturally occurs, without intervention, manipulation, control, nor any externally imposed constraints (as in experimental research) (Lichtman, 2013:20; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:322; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:389).

In order to acquire the desired depth of understanding, qualitative research often enables the researcher to become the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Miles & Huberman in Toma, 2011:265; Creswell, 2009:175; Stake, 2010:15). By this means, the researcher went to the field, moved close enough to the people whose experiences he sought to understand in a face-to-face situation, and became immersed in the situation and the phenomenon being studied through interviewing the participants, examining relevant documents, making the interpretations, and recording what transpired (Creswell, 2009:175; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:36). Gaining such insight was not always easy. The present researcher had to suspend his personal preconceptions about, and attempted to understand the phenomenon being studies from the viewpoint of the participants (Chadwick et al., 1984:208). As a result, the empirical data of the current study consisted of thick description of the participants' meanings – their thoughts, feelings, assumptions, beliefs and values - of the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Harwell, 2011:148; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:207). The empirical data was provided in the form of words rather than reducing its rich narration to numbers. Quite often, direct quotations from the participants' own words were included to illustrate certain points. Creswell (2007:153) notes that the citation of 'the exact words used by participants' is helpful to enhance the researcher's understanding of the perceptions of participants.

Clearly, a pursuit of ascertaining the meanings ascribed by the natural actors to the phenomenon of interest, that is, participant perspective, implies the use of the inductive process to answer the research question. Therefore, as a third reason, qualitative research was adopted for its paramount belief in inductive reasoning. In terms of the inductive approach, collected data led to the emergence of concepts or theories to answer the research question (Lichtman, 2013:19; Yin, 2011:94; Harwell, 2011:149). In brief, the inductive perspective challenges the biased nature of deductive processes (typically employed in experimental research) whereby theory is the starting point for formulating hypotheses that will be tested with empirical data to see if they are supported, as is typical in quantitative research(Boeije, 2010:5; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:35). As regards this study, the process of inductive reasoning enabled the researcher to open new ways of

understanding the phenomenon that was being investigated without any pre-empting possible findings. Moreover, the use of predetermined hypotheses, as McMillan and Schumacher (2010:323) note, would have otherwise limited the richness of what was collected and possibly led to bias in this study.

Scholars concur that by means of inductive reasoning, qualitative research can play a key role in studies particularly sought to develop theories or models when the existence of such is partial or inadequate to address the complexity of an educational problem (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:91; Boeije, 2010:5; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:35). The current study is no exception. As indicated in section 1.5 of this study, little is known about the phenomenon under review, particularly in the North West Province, wherein limited related empirical research has been conducted. Through inductive thinking the phenomenon was examined in order to find empirical patterns that could function as the basis for the development of guidelines that may be considered to strengthen the management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at AO and school levels.

Qualitative research methodology was chosen because it provides greater flexibility in both research design and the research process than in quantitative studies where steps and procedures that guide this study are predetermined (Robson, 2011:133; Yin, 2011:9; Sowell, 2001:22). Qualitative researchers have a range of options through which they can plan data collection, data analysis, and report writing processes in their studies. These, among others, include phenomenology, ethnography, case study, grounded theory, and historical research (Creswell, 2009:13; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:48; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:70). The current study deployed the case study design. The reasons for adopting the case study are encapsulated in the next section which deals with the research design.

3.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design indicates a detailed plan or blueprint for undertaking the systematic exploration of the phenomenon being studied (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:94; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007:54; Ary et al., 2006:470). Consistent with the above definition, Johnson and Christensen (2008:305) view the design as the plan of the researcher for the study, which concerns the methods to be used, the type of data to be collected, the selection of the research setting, participants, and data collection tools. Creswell (2008:59), therefore, asserts that it concerns the specific procedures involved in the last three steps of the research process: data collection, data analysis and report writing. The above views explain research design as a summary of the procedural plan adopted in the study to collect,

analyse, interpret, and ultimately present research data to answer the research questions (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:79; Creswell, 2009:5).

A research design undertakes multiple purposes. It helps to avoid situations whereby evidence in the form of data does not address the central research question adequately (Heck, 2011:204; Yin, 2009:24). A good research design, according to Punch (2009:112), is useful to guard against and also help to prevent possible alternative interpretations of the results. Hence, McMillan and Schumacher (2010:102) stress that such a research design has strong potential to boost the credibility of this study.

This study followed a qualitative case study design. In their comparison of case study and its other qualitative counterparts, Johnson and Christensen (2008:49) accentuate:

Case study research is more varied than phenomenology, which focuses on individuals' experience of some phenomenon; ethnography, which focuses on some aspects of culture; or grounded theory, which focuses on developing an explanatory theory. All what pure case studies have in common, however, is a focus on each case as a whole unit (i.e., case study research is holistic) as it exists in real-life context.

Adding to the preceding delineation, Yin (2009:11) declares that unlike historical research, a case study focuses on examining contemporary social or educational phenomena. The choice of a case study over other qualitative strategies was, therefore, preferred on the strength of the fact that the research problem of the current study is topical. This view is confirmed in several recent research findings. Msila and Mtshali (2011:1), Phorabatho (2010:126), and the Department of Basic Education (2009:56) reveal that most district officials and SMTs are not *au fait* with their roles of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. As a result, the majority of the programmes and activities related to teachers' CPD are found to be decontextualised, and inadequate for developing teachers meaningfully for the implementation of curriculum change in schools (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59; Steyn, 2010:157).

Yin (2009:18) defines case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not evident. A similar definition is obtained from Merriam (2009:40), Creswell (2007:73), and Opie (2004:74) who collectively agree that a case study refers to an in-depth exploration, description and analysis of interactions of a particular phenomenon in a bounded (enclosed) system or multiple bounded systems over a period of time. There is consensus among scholars that what may constitute a 'case' for empirical research can be a single unit such as one

individual, group, activity, event, programme, or even a process (Ashley, 2012:102; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:345; Fouché, 2003:275).

A prevailing understanding from the above definitions is that the purpose of case study research is to pursue deep understanding of the particularity and complexity or the idiographic of a single case within some single bounded system, as it exists in real-life situation (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:49; Babbie, 2004:293; Stake, 1995:16). This view suggests that case study researchers select a specific case which they seek to understand in depth 'naturalistically' and 'holistically' regardless of the number of sites, participants, or documents it comprises. The 'case' for investigation in this study was the description of participants' understanding of the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD. The main aim was to establish ways in which such roles could be improved.

Since it was assumed that management and implementation activities are context specific, and therefore, are not always distinguishable in real-life situations, through the use of case study method the researcher was enabled to delve deep into contextual conditions which he believed were highly pertinent to the phenomenon of study. Several scholars concur that case study research enables the researcher to intensively investigate the case in relation to real-life context in which it is located (Ashley, 2012:102; Robson, 2011:136; Springer, 2010:406). Yin (2009:18) states that case study becomes instrumental in research problems where the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not evident. Consequently, the situational context of the research problem was highly valuable in understanding the meanings and interpretations that the participants brought to the phenomenon being investigated.

Merriam (2009:43) identifies and succinctly explains the three main characteristics of a case study which justify its relevance to the current study. These are particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic. By being *particularistic,* Merriam (2009:43), in concurrence with Lichtman (2013:91), and Ary et al. (2006:32), explains that a case study is limited to a specific educational phenomenon which the researcher seeks to understand in depth regardless of the number of sites, participants, or documents. The circumscription of the present study's focus to the research problem enabled the researcher to gain deeper understanding of the dynamics, the uniqueness and 'idiosyncrasies' involved in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in all its complexity (Welman et al., 2011:25).

The *descriptive* feature indicates that the end product of a case study is a thick description of a phenomenon under examination from the standpoint of the 'natural actors' in that setting (Check &

Schutt, 2012:190; Chadderton & Torrance, 2011:54, Merriam, 2009:43,). Accordingly, the final chapter of this study provides and describes in detail an ideal model suitable to strengthen the capacity of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in their roles of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

Lastly, Merriam (2009:43) explains that *heuristic* feature means that case studies illuminate the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under study. They can bring about discovery of new meaning, extend the reader's insight and experience or endorse what is known. In brief, this feature helped place the current study in a better position to offer meaningful insights and illuminate meanings that could possibly expand the experiences of the participants as well as those of its prospective readers with regard to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

As a final consideration, a case study design was employed because of its particular strength to allow related researchers to make use of multiple sources of data and data collection techniques (Heck, 2011:205; Robson, 2011:135; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:76). The traditional sources of evidence in case study include interviews, document analysis, observation, archival records, physical artefacts, *et cetera*. A complete list, according to Yin (2009:101), can however be quite extensive. Nonetheless, the use of multiple sources of evidence in this study provided an in-depth contextualised understanding of the phenomenon in question. It also permitted triangulation of data across inquiry techniques (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:331), which enhanced validity and trustworthiness of the study (Yin, 2011:153; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:80).

Case studies are often criticised for their limitation in forming a strong basis for scientific generalisation (Chadderton & Torrance, 2011:54; Yin, 2009:15; Robbins, 2009:92). Emphasis in this study was, however, on in-depth understanding of the dynamics of the case under examination through the viewpoint of the participants; but not on the range or scope of information that could possibly lead to generalisation of the findings across the population of curriculum coordinators and SMTs. Stake (2005:460) emphasises this view when he considers, "The purpose of a case report is not to represent the world, but to represent the case."

Even though they do not aspire to generalisation, case study findings can have implications for other settings. According to Gray (2009:574), case study results may be indicative of trends within a population of interest. As such, they can potentially be applicable in other cases and contexts with similar background (Marshall and Rossman 2011:252; Punch, 2009:121). The researcher anticipated that the findings of this study would illuminate the participants' understandings regarding the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change

implementation. It was also hoped that the findings would resonate in other parts of South Africa or even elsewhere in situations with similar background.

The next section clearly and succinctly deals with sampling and sample inclusion criteria.

3.4   SAMPLING AND SAMPLE SELECTION

Sampling refers to a process used to select a portion of the given population for study (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:247). Robbins (2009:84) asserts that a properly selected sample is most likely to lead to accurate display of the characteristics of the population being studied. A purposive sampling technique was used to select cases that were better positioned to provide best information to meet the purpose of this study (Check & Schutt, 2012:104; Silverman, 2010:1415; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007:230). Gray (2009:180) avers that qualitative research is based on non-probability or purposive sampling because it seeks to obtain insights into particular practices that exist within a particular location, context and time. To reiterate, the current study sought to understand the meanings that the participants ascribe to the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Random sampling was not used to avoid risks of including cases that may be ignorant of some issues and unable to comment on matters of interest to this study (Cohen <u>et al.</u>, 2011:157). Besides, the goal of the present study was not empirical generalisation (Patton, 2002:230). Nonetheless, the researcher engaged in critical thinking about the 'parameters' of the population of interest prior to careful hand-picking of cases for inclusion in this study (Silverman, 2010:141, Robbins, 2009:92).

The ensuing sections discuss sample selection: participant selection and site selection. These sections also encapsulate the basis for selection of a particular sample.

3.4.1   Participant selection

The following participants were selected:

- Four Further Education and Training (FET) curriculum coordinators, that is, one FET curriculum coordinator per participating AO. FET curriculum coordinators are heads of subject advisory units and therefore, presumed to be responsible for managing programmes involved in teachers' CPD for the implementation of curriculum change in their respective AOs;

- Eight FET subject advisors. Two FET subject advisors were sampled from each AO. Only subject advisors that had been in the service (as subject advisors) in the selected AOs prior to 2006, a year in which the NCS was implemented for the first time in the FET band's Grade 10

classrooms, were selected. In the North West Province, subject advisors are responsible to train, develop and support teachers to implement curriculum change effectively in the classrooms (Hoadley & Chisholm, 2005:12);

- Twenty-four secondary school principals. From each of the four sampled AOs, six secondary school principals were selected for participation in the present study. Principals are deemed to be custodians of managing curriculum change implementation in schools. They are, therefore, responsible for managing staff training and development programmes, both school-based, school-focused and externally directed (Department of Education in Brunton, 2003:C64). Only principals that had been appointed in the position at secondary schools before 2006 were selected for study.

- Twenty-four Heads of Departments (HoDs). In other words, one HoD was selected from each participating secondary school. Only HoDs that had been in the position at a secondary school prior to 2006 were selected. HoDs are the integral members of SMT and therefore, are also responsible for managing programmes designed to enhance the professional competence of teachers in their respective schools. HoDs were selected on the basis of gender and experience in the position. That is, three male and three female HoDs with the highest number of years of service in that position were sampled for focus group interviews in each AO. In the event of a tie in both fields of selection, a volunteer was accepted to participate in this study;

- Twenty-four secondary school teachers: one teacher was sampled from each of the six participating secondary schools in each AO. Only teachers that had been teaching in the FET band since 2006 and had at least been teaching in Grade 12 since 2008 were chosen as participants in this study. Again, the principle of gender sensitivity was applied by selecting three male and three female teachers per sampled school for in-depth study.

Regardless of the pre-set criteria, selection of teachers was not always straightforward. There was an array of multiple eligible candidates from whom to choose. Consequently, assistance was sought from the participating principals for identification of suitable teachers in their different schools who had interest in this study to ensure that only information-rich participants were included in the study (Greeff, in Steyn, 2010:163). Volunteers were also considered. Liamputtong and Ezzy (2005:45) endorse that in a qualitative study, non-probable samples include volunteers, sometimes motivated by certain gains or special interest in the topic.

Purposive sampling decision in this study was extended to involve the selection of settings to which the participants were attached, and from which data were collected (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:79). Site selection is discussed next.

3.4.2   Site selection

Site selection involves identification and justification of a site selected to locate people involved in the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:326). The current study was conducted in two of the four districts that constitute the NWED. The sampled districts were Bojanala and Ngaka Modiri Molema. These sites were selected essentially on the basis of their representativeness in terms of this study's population of interest, which involves AOs and schools. This criterion is expounded in detail in the ensuing paragraphs.

Of the four district offices, Bojanala and Ngaka Modiri Molema are the most populous regarding the number of AOs and schools, thereby providing the researcher with a variety of site options from which to choose for this study. Bojanala district has 134 secondary schools spread among its six AOs; and Ngaka Modiri Molema district comprises five AOs that are responsible for ninety-two secondary schools. In addition to the variation of numbers, these institutions are inherently diverse considering their respective previous history during the apartheid system, which the current political dispensation did little to transform.

Ngaka Modiri Molema district comprises five AOs from which, Mahikeng and Ditsobotla were carefully chosen for participation in this study. From each of the sampled AOs, six secondary schools were purposively selected. Likewise, two AOs of Rustenburg and Moretele were identified for participation in this study from Bojanala District. Here also, six secondary schools were sampled from the respective participating AOs.

The sampled districts had additional qualities related and appropriate to the research problem and aim. Ngaka Modiri Molema District was specifically sampled due to its strategic and geographic position in the Province. Along with its proximity to the North-West University, a higher education institution (HEI) contracted to upgrade the teachers in the NWED by means of specified ACE programmes; again, the district has its administrative office located near the head office of the NWED. On these grounds, the researcher was interested in exploring and describing how AOs and secondary schools attached to a district with the qualities of Ngaka Modiri Molema manage CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change. The goal was not generalisation, but to gain in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in its complexity.

Bojanala district was chosen simply because of convenience and accessibility (Silverman, 2010:141). The researcher was a principal in one of the secondary schools in the district, and stays within a reasonable distance to most of its AOs and schools. Therefore, conducting the current study in Bojanala district was economic in terms of money and time.

Furthermore, aside from being in the same district, the Rustenburg and Moretele AOs differ characteristically in terms of their socio-economic backgrounds. Rustenburg AO, which is predominantly urban, consists of former "Model C" schools in majority. It is located in a mining town and therefore presumed to be well resourced in terms of infrastructure, facilities and financial support from parents and local mines. Moreover, the majority of the schools in Rustenburg AO are fee-paying. With these qualities, the AO and secondary schools would provide a wide variety of responses needed to answer the main research question of this study.

On the other hand, Moretele AO, located in impoverished rural communities, comprises historically disadvantaged Black schools. The quality of rural teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is an issue of grave concern in many countries. Rural teachers tend to be recipients of lower quality CPD provision than their urban peers (Robinson, 2008:12).

Moretele AO has almost all of its schools in the category of "no-fee paying schools" as espoused in *National Norms and Standards for School Funding, Gazette no. 32683*. In addition, it is positioned as the furthest AO in terms of distance to Mahikeng, the capital of the North West Province, where the provincial head office of the department of education is situated. Nonetheless, the socio-economic conditions of Moretele AO do not differ much from the experiences of other rural AOs which are prevalent across the North West Province.

Further sampling was, however, performed to identify participant schools in this study. Twenty-four (24) secondary schools that offered Grade 12 National Senior Certificate (matric) in 2010 were sampled; that is, 12 secondary schools from Ngaka Modiri Molema District and 12 secondary schools from Bojanala District. This implies that six secondary schools from each participating AO per district were purposively included for study.

The individual AO's reports on the Grade 12 National Senior Certificate (NSC) final examination results of 2010 were used as a source from which two schools from the top, median and, low performing school categories were sampled respectively. The use of the 2010 Grade 12 NSC results as a criterion for selection of participating schools was based on the following three main considerations:

Firstly, the Grade 12 NSC examinations have become an annual event which attracts significant attention from all sectors of society in South Africa. Hence, it is no surprise that these examinations and their results are quality-assured by *Umalusi*, a Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training;

Secondly, Grade 12 final examination does not only signify the culmination of twelve years of formal schooling but the NSC examination is one of the key barometers to indicate the state of health of the education system. The Department of Basic Education (2009:30) proclaims the NSC as the most standardised and regular method of systemic testing in South Africa. In this sense, the results of a Grade 12 class, can presumably be perceived as a mirror that reflects the degree of quality to which curriculum change implementation is managed in all grade levels in a particular secondary school; and

Lastly, the year 2010 is of particular significance to the current study because between 2006 and 2010 (a period of five years) several reforms have been applied to improve the implementation of the NCS in schools. Therefore, it was in the best interest of this study to describe and evaluate how curriculum coordinators and SMTs have been managing CPD of teachers for the implementation of the OBE-driven curriculum and its rapid reforms in this period.

The choice of sites with variant qualities provided different perspectives concerning the subject under review. Creswell (2007:126) contends that when a researcher maximises differences among cases at the beginning of this study, it increases the likelihood that the findings will reflect differences or different perspectives. Although the findings of the present study cannot be generalised, through in-depth study of schools and AOs, the sampled districts yielded many insights and rich information that contributed towards the realisation of the aim of this thesis, which is, "to make contributions to the improvement of the quality of continuing professional development of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change through exploration, evaluation and description of the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing the present related forms of CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change."

Although the samples were not necessarily representative, and therefore their views may not be 'generalisable', the primary concern of the researcher was rather to acquire in-depth information from those who are in position to give it (Cohen et al., 2011:157). Sampling strategies in qualitative research typically aim to represent a wide range of perspectives and experiences, rather than to replicate their frequency in the wider population (Ziebland & McPherson in Boeije, 2010:36).

Comments about sampling set the stage for discussion of issues involved in collecting data. The next section is devoted to the data collection process involved in this study.

3.5   DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

In terms of data collection protocol, Cohen et al. (2011:81) indicate that before data are collected, the researcher must follow appropriate procedures to gain "official permission to undertake one's research in the target community". In the light of this view, written permission to access the sampled AOs and secondary schools and to conduct the current study was obtained from the Head of Department of the NWED (cf. Appendix 2). Preliminary meetings were held with the participants concerning this study. Expectations were explained and clarified. The participants were provided with sample questions to be included in the interview guides (cf. Appendices 3 & 4). The participants were also informed that their participation in the current study was purely on voluntary basis. Times and places for interviewing were mutually set and agreed upon.

3.5.1   Data collecting instruments

In order to record the views of the participants and the complexities of their perceptions on the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, this study employed the following two data collection methods:

- The interview, and
- Document analysis

These two data collecting instruments were chosen to enhance trustworthiness of the study (Nieuwenhuis 2011:80). Moreover, Esterberg (2002:176) also believes that if the researcher uses multiple data collection instruments, their analysis and conclusions are likely to be much sounder than if they rely on only one source of evidence. The ensuing sections illuminate the appropriateness of the use of the interview and document analysis in this study, with special focus on their respective strengths and limitations.

3.5.1.1   The interview

The interview was employed as a leading means of data collection in this study. This approach is supported by several researchers in the literature (Cohen et al., 2011:411; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007:64; Greeff, 2003:292). Heck (2011:205) points out that the interview is a primary source of data in case studies. In affirmation, Stake (1995:64) astutely asserts that interview data is the "main road to multiple realities in a bounded system."

Cohen et al. (2011:411) and Chadwick et al. (1984:115) describe an interview as a type of conversation that is initiated explicitly for the purpose of obtaining information sought to address the research question. DeMarrais (in Merriam, 2009:87) avers that an interview is a process in which a researcher and respondent engage in a conversation focused on questions related to the research study. In a somewhat elaborate definition, Mears (2012:170) observes that interviews refer to purposeful interactions in which the interviewer is interested in learning what the interviewee knows about a topic, to discover and record the interviewees' experiences, thoughts, and feelings about the topic, and its significance or any meaning that the topic might have. As is clear from the definition, the central goal of qualitative interviewing is to gain rich descriptive data that elicit comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of interest from the point of view of the participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:87).

In general, the interview method presented substantial advantages to the current study some of which can be summarised as:

- it produced large volumes of in-depth data rather more quickly and efficiently than the case would have been with other data collection techniques like questionnaires and observations (Cohen et al., 2011:411; Ary et al., 2006:480; Greeff, 2003:305);

- it is typically flexible - In contrast to postal and other self- administered questionnaires in particular, the interview enabled the researcher to enter into the inner world of the participants and to gain an understanding of the participants' perspective directly through the participants' words and voice (Lichtman, 2013:195; Check & Schutt, 2012:201; Robson, 2011:280);

- it produced the generally higher rate of participants' responses as compared to any other method (Check & Schutt, 2012:174). Cohen et al. (2011:411) state that researchers who use questionnaires often experience too low percentages of returns;

- its direct interactive encounter was invaluable to provide opportunities for the clarification of unclear questions and possible ambiguous responses (Goodwin, 2002:399). In some instances the questions were repeated or rephrased in a form that was understood by the respondents. Furthermore, the researcher could observe nonverbal responses, such as gestures, smiles, frowns that inadvertently carried information that supplemented and, on occasion, even contradicted, verbal responses (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2009:594);

- it allowed the researcher to use probes; that is, follow-up questions which essentially request for an elaboration from the respondent - Probes were phenomenal in eliciting elaborations on

a somewhat incomplete or ambiguous response (Babbie, 2004:277). They were particularly useful in obtaining response clarity or additional information during interviews (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:203). The presence of the interviewer and use of probes also generally minimised the number of 'don't knows' and 'no answers' (Babbie, 2004:263). In this way, probes helped to increase the richness and depth of the responses, and at the same time gave indications to the respondents about the quality of responses desired (Patton, 2002:372); and,

▪ the results of interviews are usually easy to understand. Researchers and decision makers can readily understand verbal responses of most respondents put in a text form. This is not always the case with more sophisticated survey research that employs complex statistical analysis (Stewart et al., 2009:594).

Interview data was collected primarily through unstructured individual interviews and semi-structured focus group interviews. Brief discussion of the two types of interviewing, including their specific strengths and weaknesses, follows next.

3.5.1.1.1 Unstructured individual interviews

Unstructured individual interviews, also known as informal conversational interview (Greeff, 2003:297; Patton, 2002:342) or in-depth interviews (Greeff, 2003:298), were held on one-on-one basis with each of the four purposively sampled curriculum coordinators, eight subject advisors, and 24 teachers to explore the phenomenon of interest in depth. Bryman (in Mokhele, 2011:95) defines unstructured individual interviews as open-ended conversation purposefully designed to obtain detailed data from a participant using follow-up questions. Unstructured individual interviews were very useful to launch an explorative investigation in the study (Welman et al., 2011:201). Merriam (2009:91) recommends that unstructured individual interviews are particularly useful when the researcher has limited insight into the phenomenon to ask relevant questions.

Given that this study's research design (cf. 3.3) required information concerning participants' personal feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions in relation to the phenomenon of study, unstructured individual interviews were chosen as the most appropriate interview technique because it offered great flexibility to pursue information in whatever direction that appeared relevant and as such, most of the questions flowed from the immediate context (Patton, 2002:342). In this regard, unstructured interviews were not used necessarily to get answers to questions, but to explore an issue of interest with the individuals in order to gain understanding of the meaning they make of their experience of the phenomenon (Greeff, 2003:298). Such would have otherwise been difficult to obtain through structured interviews where rigid and predetermined questioning inhibits

opportunities to pursue topics or issues that were not anticipated when the interview schedule was written (Merriam, 2009:90; Patton, 2002:347).

Unstructured individual interviews were again preferred over focus group interviews due to logistical considerations which would make focus group interviews impractical. Moreover, each AO has one curriculum coordinator. The researcher holds the view that the participation of subject advisors and teachers in the same group interviews was likely to inhibit the desired openness, free flow of ideas and objective responses. Importantly, unstructured individual interviews were further selected to provide moderate to thorough insight about the subject under study in order to formulate questions for the subsequent focus group interviews.

Although the unstructured individual interviews were completely "unstructured" in this study, they were not necessarily completely without focus. May (2002:231) argues that despite the use of the term 'unstructured interview', it is not possible to conduct a structure-free interview. For this reason, Cohen et al. (2011:415) contend that their inherent flexibility and freedom should remain governed by the purpose of the study. Based on implications of the above views, the researcher used the interview guides to prompt and probe interviewees when the interview did not proceed smoothly and to ensure that relevant issues were addressed. (cf. Appendices 3 & 4). In espousal of this approach, Rubin and Rubin and Field and Morse (in Greeff, 2003:299) affirm that to minimize 'dross rate', that is, the amount of irrelevant information, the researcher should in advance prepare "a handful of main [open-ended] questions with which to begin and guide the conversation…. When responses lack sufficient detail or depth or clarity, the interviewer asks a probe…." Nonetheless, within that overall guiding purpose, the interviewer followed all leads that emerged during the discussion (Johnson & Christensen 2008:208; Patton 2002:343).

The use of unstructured individual interviews was not without limitations. Predominately, this technique consumed substantial amount of time in collecting consistent and systematic information because it took several conversations with different people. Again, the unstructured individual interviews were very expensive as the researcher had to make provision for travelling expenses, meals, as well as accommodation (Welman et al., 2011:201). In addition, data obtained using individual interviews were not always easy to pull together and analyse. Because different questions elicited different responses, the researcher had to spend great deal of time sifting through responses to find patterns that emerged at different points in different interviews with different people (Patton, 2002:343).

3.5.1.1.2   Semi-structured focus group interviews

In total, the current study conducted eight focus group interviews in a semi-structured manner; i.e., two separate focus group interviews - one exclusively for principals and the other for heads of departments (HoDs) - in each of the four participating AOs. Johnson and Christensen (2008:210) observe that the conduct of different focus groups as part of a single research project is quite common because it is unwise to rely on the information provided by a single focus group. In a related view, Nieuwenhuis (2011:90) and Babbie (2004:303) suggest that the use of more than one focus group interview is likely to bring about critical chances to gain the much sought-after alternative perspectives related to the subject under study.

 The focus groups comprised homogeneous participants who were in some way unfamiliar with one another. They were, therefore, selected because they shared characteristics that were relevant to the question of this study (Check & Schutt, 2012:205; Marshall & Rossman, 2011:149; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:363). The demarcation of focus groups according to their ranks and levels of responsibility (i.e. separate focus groups exclusively for principals and HoDs) in schools in a single focus group helped increase the participants' comfort in expressing opinions (Ary et al., 2006:482) and allowed for the free flow of ideas. It also reduced the possible feeling of intimidation that might have otherwise led to the suppression of in-depth information needed in this study.

The size of each focus group in a single interview session was limited to 6 participants drawn from the 6 participating secondary schools per AO. Lewis-Beck, Bryman, and Liao (2004:393) endorse that a focus group should consist of between 6 and 12 participants. In deciding the size of a focus group, the researcher was careful that it was not "...so large as to be unwieldy or to preclude adequate participation by most members nor … so small that it fails to provide substantially greater coverage than that of an interview with one individual" (Merton, Fiske & Kendall in Ferreira, 2011:107).

Based on his experience from other studies, the researcher invited about ten people to avoid last minute disappointment of several participants failing to appear on a given day, even though they had agreed to participate. Lichtman (2013:208) agrees that this is possible particularly when people receive no compensations for their participation.

Semi-structured focus group interviews served two main purposes in this study: (1) to confirm preliminary data obtained through unstructured individual interviews and document analysis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:363), and, (2) to stimulate in-depth exploration of a phenomenon of interest about which little is known more openly and to allow the participants to freely express their ideas (Stewart et al., 2009:590; Esterberg, 2002:87).

The hallmark of focus groups in the current study was the explicit use of the group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without interaction found in a group (Morgan in Punch, 2009:147). Lichtman (2013:207), Heck (2011:206) and Punch (2009:147) recognise group interaction in focus groups as a catalyst for stimulating explicit thoughts and ideas among participants to elicit widening range of responses, activate forgotten details of experiences and release inhibitions that might otherwise have discouraged participants from disclosing rich information.

Taking cue from the preceding paragraph, semi-structured focus group interviews provided a number of invaluable advantages to the current study. Some of the most critical of these include:

- focus group interviews were economical - They produced large amounts of concentrated data in a short period of time and at less cost than would be the case if each individual were interviewed separately (Stewart et al., 2009:593; Greeff, 2003:307). In this way, focus groups provided opportunities to gather multiple viewpoints and in-depth information about the topic under study in one sitting in a relatively short period of time (Heck, 2011:207; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:210; Ary et al., 2006:481);

- they were stimulating, recall-aiding, cumulative and elaborative (Punch, 2009:147) - The participants were able to build on each other's ideas and comments during the interviews to provide in-depth views that might have otherwise not been easily attainable through individual interview (Check & Schutt, 2012:206; Heck, 2011:207; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:90). As opposed the one-on-one interviews, the participants in focus groups could further make additional comments beyond their original responses as they heard what other people had to say (Patton, 2002:386);

- they were typically data-rich (Punch, 2009:147) - The inherent synergetic effect of the group setting enhanced data quality and resulted in the production of data or ideas that might not have been covered in individual interviews (Stewart et al., 2009:594); and,

- the data of focus groups were relatively easy to put together and understand and, therefore, not difficult to analyse.

The use of semi-structured focus group interviews also posed some limitations. Focus groups were not always easy to assemble at the same place at the same time, particularly, because fieldwork coincided with the period of end-of-year examinations. Most schools, and therefore, principals and HoDs, had duty to ensure logistic readiness of their respective schools for the final examinations. Another major challenge involved controlling the dynamic within specifically the HoD groups (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:91). Because they were relatively strangers, some members were somewhat not

participating openly and freely, giving way to the dominance by more outspoken individuals. The information collected may be one-sided and therefore biased through group processes such as domination of the discussions by the more outspoken individuals, groupthink, and the difficulty of assessing the viewpoints of less assertive participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:91). As noted in Cohen et al. (2011:437), the group dynamic, to a particular degree, suppressed rather dissenting voices or different views on controversial topics, regardless of the moderator's attempts to prevent this from occurring.   This posed a threat that information collected might be one-sided and therefore biased through group processes.

3.5.1.2   The interview process

At the time of the interview, the participants were [again] provided with information entailed in their individually signed Letters of Informed Consent. This document implies agreeing to participate in a study after being informed of its purpose, procedures, risks, benefits, alternative procedures and limits of confidentiality (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:109). The researcher then set out clear aims and objectives of the project at the start of the interviews. The respondents were also advised about the value of their participation, and they were free to withdraw should they deem it necessary during the course of the interviews. The researcher also sought permission to take notes and audio-record the interviews from the participants. Most importantly, the participants were guaranteed of the confidentiality of their inputs.

During focus group interviews the role of the researcher changed from being more of interviewer to facilitating, moderating, monitoring and recording group interactions (Punch 2009:147). The researcher played the moderator role in assuring that the group discussion goes smoothly (Stewart et al., 2009:601).

In order to facilitate the meaningful progression of the interview, the researcher used an interview guides (cf. Appendices 3 & 4). The interview guides listed a set of very general questions or subset of topics to be posed in the course of an interview (Lichtman, 2013:203; Check & Schutt, 2012:203; Patton, 2002:343). The guides comprised pre-formulated open-ended questions which were clearly worded. The questions in the guides corresponded with the research questions, and were largely linked to themes related to research questions, which emerged from the literature review and related information obtained from the preliminary examination of documents in this study. The wording of the questions was simple to elicit free-flowing conversation around a particular predetermined subject (Patton, 2002:343).

The guides were used to ensure that all pertinent issues received attention during the course of the interview encounter (Check & Schutt, 2012:203; Welman et al., 2011:166). They also helped to establish consistency since it ensured that the same basic lines of enquiry were pursued with each interview respondent (Patton, 2002:343). They were further useful to determine the best use of the limited time available in the interview situation (Patton, 2002:343; Stewart et al., 2009:601). Moreover, the participants were given an outline of the questions in the guides several days before the interviews. Stewart et al. (2009:601) aptly observe that this practice is likely to elicit the respondents' compliance and high-level response to the questions asked.

The guides, nonetheless, did not contain formal set of questions that had to be asked word-for-word and followed in an established order; rather they entailed topics within which questions and probes were asked to clarify and illuminate particular subject areas. As a result, during interviews, the researcher recorded the responses in the order given; then afterwards, reorganised them according to the topics in the guide in preparation for analysis (Stewart et al., 2009:338).

The average interview took 60 minutes with a range from 50 to 80 minutes. At the end of the interviews, the researcher thanked the participants for the time and contributions, and also acknowledged that interviewing them was an informative experience. On completion of each interview, the tape recorded data were transcribed, field-notes reviewed, and preliminary analysis ensued.

3.5.1.3   Recording of interview data

The researcher used an audio tape recorder and pen and paper to collect interview data. A tape recorder, in particular, was used with the expressed consent of the respondents. Patton (2002:381) reckons that during fieldwork qualitative researchers should use a tape-recorder and also take down notes. Aside from being "*Aide-Memoire*" or a helpful record of the interview process for later analysis, audio-recording and note-taking generated significant advantages to this study.

According to Yin (2009:109) and Ary et al. (2006:481), tape-recording provides verbatim account of any interview. Likewise, it guarantees completeness of verbal interactions of the interviews, and thus provides material for reliability checks (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:360). Opie (2004:123) concedes that tape-recording the interviews also provides a check against bias or misinterpretation. Similarly, note-taking helped the researcher to reformulate questions and probes, and to record non-verbal communication which facilitated data analysis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:360). As highlighted in Patton (2002:383), the field notes also served as a backup in the event the recorder

was to malfunction or the tape-recoding was erased erroneously after the interviews and during transcription.

Because a tape-recorder was used, the notes primarily comprised shorthand, key phrases, and lists of major points used by the respondents, as well as key terms or words shown in quotation marks that represent the respondents' own language (Patton, 2002:383). Most importantly, both the recording devices provided invaluable basis for the review of responses and additional questions even at the end of the interview (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:89). Even so, the researcher ensured that neither note-taking nor tape-recording interfered with his full attention on any response during interview sessions.

Immediately after each interview session, the researcher went over the interview notes to make certain that they made sense, to uncover areas of ambiguity or uncertainty. This style enabled the researcher to check back with the interviewees, as soon as possible, for clarification of data that did not make sense. This was done over the cellphone (Patton, 2002:384). As highlighted in the preceding section, tape recorded data were transcribed on the same day of the interviews.

Although used as a dominant source of evidence, the interview data were supplemented and occasionally verified by comparisons with data from other document analysis. The next section elucidates data analysis as a source of data in the present study.

3.5.2   Document analysis

The researcher also used written documents as source of evidence. Related scholars accentuate documents as rich source of data about a particular organisation or programme in qualitative research study (Punch, 2009:158; Creswell, 2008:231; Patton, 2002:293). Document analysis concerns the examination of written documentation of activities which represent people's experiences, knowledge, values and actions originally recorded at an earlier time (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:361), usually for a different purpose than research (Punch, 2009:158). Quite often, argues Stake (1995:68), "Documents serve as substitutes for records of activity that the researcher could not observe directly." Primarily, document analysis in the current study was employed to supplement data obtained through interviews. Ramroop (2004:55) and Yin (2009:103) advocate the effectiveness of document analysis to verify, corroborate and augment evidence gathered through interviews.

The following constitute the list of documents related to the research problem that were examined:

- government (both national and provincial) policies and reports;

- training workshop materials,

- invitation notices to training workshops , seminars, conferences, et cetera;

- records of Developmental Appraisal outcomes and Grade 12 examination subject-specific analytical moderators' reports (cf. 4.3.2.2.1), and,

- budget allocations in the selected schools.

Together with literature data, the leads from document analysis provided good material in assisting the researcher to prepare appropriate questions for the interviews. Patton (2002:294) espouses the use of information gained through document analysis as impetus for lines of inquiry that can be pursued through direct interviewing. In the light of the above view, weeks prior to the interviews, the researcher visited the research sites to review the relevant documents upon permission of the gatekeepers – the area managers and principals and or chairpersons of the SGBs of the selected sites. Punch (2009:201) maintains that an understanding of the social settings and context of the documents affects their interpretation. Therefore, to avoid depriving documents of their meaning, the researcher studied the documents thoroughly at the concerned sites and took notes of key issues pertinent to the aim of this study. Where some of the information seemed unclear or ambiguous, clarity was sought from the relevant principal or curriculum coordinator.

Data from documents were invaluable for verification, corroboration and augmentation of information gained from interviews (Yin, 2011:149). The review of documents also revealed the enormous complexity of the logistics for managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change at AO and school levels. Without looking at these documents, the researcher would have missed the intensity and depth of some of the crucial aspects raised during the interviews.

As noted in Heck (2011:207), the documents provided vital indications of the organisation in action. In addition to description of the functions and values and how various participants defined their organisations in terms of the phenomenon under examination, the documents reviewed provided deep understanding of the official chain of command and provided clues about leadership styles employed in the sites of interest (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:361). The documents were also helpful simply by the nature of details they contained, such as the spelling of names, titles, and organisations, the affixing of specific dates to events, and specific language use, and other pieces of communication (Yin, 2011:149). This benefit helped to minimise unwarranted interruption by the researcher of an otherwise healthy flow of interviews by asking participants, for instance, how to spell a name or title.

Yin (2009:102) outlines the following weaknesses of the use of documents as source of research information, which the researcher also experienced during fieldwork:

- Retrievability- documents can be difficult to find.

- Biased selectivity, if collection is incomplete.

- Reporting bias – reflects blissful (unknown) bias of the author.

- Access- documents may be deliberately withheld.

In addition to the above-cited limitations, collection of the relevant documents was time-consuming (Yin, 2011:148).

The researcher, nonetheless, took pains to ensure the authenticity and credibility of all documents submitted for examination in the research (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:83). Additionally, efforts were undertaken to always be wary of bias in the data sources. In closing, it is worthy to note that document analysis would have not made sense without the interviews (or *vice versa*); taken together, these diverse sources of information and data gave the researcher a complete picture of the phenomenon under study.

Having explained how data were collected, it is now appropriate to focus on data analysis process used in the current study.

3.6   DATA ANALYSIS PROCESS

Gray (2009:493) defines data analysis as a rigorous and logical process through which the mass of collected data in a study is given order, structure and meaning. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:367), and White (2005:168), qualitative data analysis involves an inductive process of examining, selecting, categorising, comparing, synthesising and interpreting data for plausible explanations to address the principal aim of the study. This study adopted Tesch's open coding method of data analysis. In terms of this method, the following eight steps, as captured in Creswell (2009:186), were undertaken:

- The researcher got a sense of the whole through careful reading of all the transcriptions. He also jotted down some ideas as they came to mind;

- He picked one document (i.e., one interview) one after the other, went through them occasionally asking oneself, "What is this about?" Here the researcher was not interested in the substance of the information but its underlying meaning.

- When he finished the above task for several participants, he developed a list of all topics; then, clustered together the similar ones. The topics were then formed into columns, which were arranged as major topics, unique topics, and leftovers.

- He took the list of topics and went back to the data. He abbreviated the topics and wrote the codes next to the appropriate segments of the text. He tried this preliminary organising scheme to see if new categories and codes emerged.

- When the most descriptive wording for the topics was found, they were turned into categories. To reduce a total list of categories, the topics that related to each other were grouped. He drew lines between the categories to delineate their relationships.

- The researcher made final decision on the abbreviation for each category and alphabetised the codes.

- He assembled the data material belonging to each category in one place and performed preliminary analysis.

- When necessary, existing data was recoded.

Data analysis in the current study was undertaken as an on-going and iterative process. This means the processes of data collection, processing, analysis and reporting did not happen as distinct successive steps - rather they were performed concurrently as overlapping cycles (Nieuwenhuis, 2011a:99; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:389; Creswell, 2007:150). In this way, the researcher did not wait until all data were 'in' before beginning to analyse them (Ary et al., 2006:454). The analysis of data commenced from the outset of the first interview, and continued while working on the research.

3.7   CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

All research has an obligation to produce valid and reliable knowledge in an ethical manner (Merriam, 2009:209). In recent terms, it seems when qualitative researchers speak of research "Validity and reliability" they are usually referring to research that is credible and trustworthy (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:80; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:275). Credibility concerns the truthfulness of the research findings (Ary et al., 2006:504). McMillan and Schumacher (2010:102) maintain that the study's findings are trustworthy when they are found to 'approximate' reality. Mears (2012:174) observes that trustworthiness can be measured by how accurately the study reflects the participants' meaning of the topic being studied. The researcher thus was obligated to provide a report that is creditable and trustworthy in terms of the degree to which it "rings true to natives and

colleagues in the field" (Fetterman, in Toma, 2011:271), and "How congruent are the findings with reality?"(Merriam, 2009:213). Merriam (2009:215) contends, "Though qualitative researchers can never capture an objective "truth" or "reality", there are a number of ways to achieve the credibility and trustworthiness of the findings. In the light of this paradox, the researcher undertook the following strategies rigorously to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the research findings:

3.7.1 Reflexibility

An important source to credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research is researcher bias (Ary et al., 2006:507). By virtue of being an epitome or the fulfilment of the researcher's initial suspicions and prejudice, with selective data being collected selectively (Yin, 2009:72), it was always impossible for the study to elude researcher bias. Johnson and Christensen (2008:275) observe that as the primary data collection instrument, qualitative researchers are inclined to be subjective in their findings and reporting thereof. Thus researcher bias tends to result from selective recording of information and also from how data are interpreted and how research is conducted.

A key strategy to deal with researcher bias in the current study was reflexibility - which means the researcher actively engaged in critical self-examination or self-reflection about his or her potential biases or predispositions throughout the study (Lichtman, 2013:164; Johnson & Christensen, 2008:275).

3.7.2 Triangulation

Triangulation refers to the examination of a social phenomenon from different angles (Boeije, 2010:176). To eliminate common threats to trustworthiness, the current study engaged triangulation which implies the process of obtaining information from multiple sources, cross-checking, and verifying the gathered data (Heck, 2011:207; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:80; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:331). This study used interviews and document analysis as sources of data. By means of triangulation, this study cross-checked data from multiple sources to establish corroboration and convergence from different perspectives with the same people (Suter, 2012:350; Merriam, 2009:216). In underscoring this view, Chadwick et al. (1984:40) state that the strategy of triangulation permits the study to "escape some of the variance attributable to these sources of discrepant observations."

3.7.3   Member checks

In the literature, member checks is also known as respondent validation (Reason & Rowan in Silverman, 2010:278; Merriam, 2009:217), and participant feedback (Ary et al., 2006:506). This measure concerns a process where researchers verify their understanding of what they heard with the participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2011:86). In accordance with this strategy, the preliminary analysis of empirical data, in the form of emerging findings, were verified with some of the respondents, and also refined in the light of the respondents' reactions (Reason & Rowan in Silverman, 2010:278). This was the single most important way to eliminate possible misinterpretation of the meaning of what the participants brought to the phenomenon being studied (Maxwell in Merriam, 2009:217).

3.7.4   Low inference descriptor

Another useful strategy employed was low inference descriptor. Nieuwenhuis (2011a:115) describes this strategy as "Careful use of citations or quotes". This study used verbatim or direct quotations of the participants' words and literal citations extracted from document data to strengthen interpretations of the collected data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:331; Ary et al., 2006:506). The quotes were carefully used to show differences in people's comments, to give examples of typical responses relative to certain topics, and to illustrate certain understandings or perceptions.

3.7.5   Thick, rich description

Related to the above strategy of low inference descriptors, the current study provided 'thick, rich description' of the findings. The processes of data collection and reporting included a great deal of pure description of activities, interactions and settings. The descriptions of such were very detailed in view of helping its potential readers to "see" the setting and understand the study's context in its complexity (Ary et al., 2006:506). As such, the study provided enough description to contexualise the study to enable its readers to determine the extent to which their situations matched the research context, and, whether the findings could be transferred (Merriam, 2009:229). In concurrence, Nieuwenhuis (2011a:115) stresses that the study should reproduce adequate text to allow readers to decide what the respondent is trying to convey.

3.8   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Qualitative studies involve direct interaction with people at their own natural turfs during fieldwork. Research scholars observe that ethical dilemmas are likely to arise during data collection and the dissemination of findings (Creswell, 2009:89; Merriam, 2009:230). This view underscores the researcher-participant relationship which, according to Marshall and Rossman (2011:118), is often

dependent on the interpersonal attributes of the researcher, often understood in terms of how the researcher builds trust, maintains good relations, respects norms of reciprocity and thoughtfully considers ethical issues.

In anticipation of data collection, the researcher considered the need to respect the participants and the sites for this research. As Stake (2005:459) reminds us, "Qualitative researchers are guests in a private world. Their manners should be [as] good and their code of ethics [equally] strict." In the light of this counsel, the researcher adhered to ethical considerations such as informed consent, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality. The ensuing section outlines the application of these ethical principles in the study.

3.8.1   Informed consent

Voluntary and informed consent was obtained prior to the commencement of data collection from all respondents. Johnson and Christensen (2008:109) describe "informed consent" as an agreement to participate in a study after being informed of the study's purpose, procedures, risks, benefits, alternative procedures and limits of confidentiality. The participants were informed, to the extent possible, about the nature of the study in advance. This allowed them to choose whether or not to participate without any force, fraud, deceit, duress, or other forms of constraint or coercion (Chadwick et al., 1984:19). Informed consent in written form was obtained from the NWED Head of Department, Chief Directors of the sampled districts, identified AO managers, principals of the sampled schools, individual participants, and also from the institutions that provided accommodation for the interviews (cf. Appendix 2).

3.8.2   Privacy, anonymity and confidentiality

The researcher ensured the privacy of the participants by using three main practices: anonymity; confidentiality, and appropriate storing of data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:121). Anonymity means that the researcher did not identify the participants with information that has been gathered. Thus, anonymity in the process was guaranteed by means of utilising pseudonyms/ code names in the places of participants' real names (Schulze, 2002:18).

The curriculum coordinators were denoted according to their title and sequence during data collection. For example, "Curriculum coordinator-1", represented a curriculum coordinator in this study who was the first to be interviewed. A similar method was used to conceal the identity of the subject advisor. In their case, code names such as "Subject advisor 1-MAH" and "Subject advisor 2–RUS" were used in the places of the actual names of the respondent subject advisors interviewed first and second, respectively from Mahikeng and Rustenburg AOs.

As far as protecting the identity of the principals, HoDs and teachers was concerned, the researcher assigned them pseudonyms according to the ranking of their respective schools in a particular AO, based on the Grade 12 percentage in 2010. The two top performing schools were referred to as T1 and T2, the two average performing schools were tagged A1 and A2, and the low performing schools were labelled as L1 and L2 respectively. As a decoder, the letter and number were used to identify the schools according to their performance in terms of their Grade 12 pass percentage in 2010 in a particular AO. That is, the letter 'T' stood for the top performing, 'A' represented the average performing and 'L' was used to for the low performing schools; and the digit was purposefully used to distinguish them according to numbers in a particular category, and not necessarily the schools' actual positions in the AO in terms of the 2010 Grade 12 pass performance. As such, the principals were identified as "Principal T1–MOR" and "Principal L2–RUS"; HoDs as, "HoD A1-DIT" and "HoD T2-BOJ"; while code names such as "Teacher L1-MAH" and "Teacher A2-MOR" were used to denote teachers.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:122) and Schulze (2002:18), confidentiality means that no one should have access to individual data or the names of the participants except the researcher, and that the participants knew before they participated as to who will see the data. Confidentiality was ensured by making certain that collected data was not linked to individual respondents' by name. This was accomplished through the strategies of collecting data anonymously and asking subjects to use aliases or code names (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:122).

3.9   DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Research literature suggests that qualitative researchers should narrow their studies; otherwise, they are likely to end up with data that are too unwieldy or often unrelated to the core of the research problem (Heck, 2011:206; Marshall & Rossman, 2011:99). These scholars further indicate that bounding the study often occurs in the process of determining the relevant aspects of the problem, choosing the setting, the geographic location, the participants, the type of evidence that should be collected and the priorities in doing the analysis. Guided by this consideration, the present study restricted its lens to the examination of the operational role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs (and not of other educational manager) in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The present study's sphere of interest and activity was on the secondary schools' FET band (grades 10-12). Accordingly, this study focused on the management of teachers' CPD for the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement, as the current curriculum change being implemented in the South African secondary schools.

This study's setting was delimited to the purposively selected 24 secondary schools drawn from the four participating AOs of Mahikeng and Ditsobotla (in Ngaka Modiri Molema District) and Moretele and Rustenburg (in Bojanala District) in the North West Province. It is therefore understood that because the project was circumscribed and situated in a specific context, claims to generalisability of its findings would not be feasible. Nonetheless, its findings may be invaluable in research. Marshall and Rossman (2011:252) and Punch (2009:121) point out that case study results may be applicable in other cases and contexts with similar background. The researcher, therefore, believes that the findings of this study may be broadly transferable to other similar settings in other parts of South Africa or even elsewhere in situations with similar context.

3.10   SUMMARY

This chapter provided a detailed explanation of the research methodology. The study followed the qualitative line of inquiry to answer the central question. The reasons for the selection of qualitative research were highlighted. As well, the chapter provided justification for designing the study according to the principles of qualitative case study research. Purposive sampling, which undergirded the sampling procedure used in the study, was expounded. It also provided a concise explanation of the sources of data used, namely, the interview and document analysis. The former was considered as the main data collection technique, and document analysis played the supplementary and verification roles. In addition, the data analysis process was also illuminated.

The chapter concludes with a discussion of strategies that were implemented to reduce threats to trustworthiness and credibility. The closing section also embraces discussion of the ethical considerations applied to protect the privacy and confidentiality of the participants, sites, and integrity of the data. In the next chapter, the empirical findings are presented in detail.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The problem statement indicates that this study sought to establish how curriculum coordinators and school management teams (SMTs) manage teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) for curriculum change implementation at the selected area offices and secondary schools of the North West Province, with a view to developing guidelines guidelines that may be used to strengthen the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs, as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in schools. The investigation was undertaken by means of the review of related literature and empirical research. Chapter two provides the theoretical framework that underpins this study. The preceding chapter focused on the research methodology and design used to obtain data in this study. The qualitative case study research approach was employed to guide the empirical investigation. The data were collected by means of the interview and document analysis strategies from the purposively selected area offices (AOs) and secondary schools in the Bojanala and Ngaka Modiri Molema districts of the North-West Education Department.

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the empirical findings. The analysis of the empirical data has been done against the background of the literature review in Chapter two of this study (Saunders et al., 2007:152). The actual words used by the participants have been used in facilitating the data analysis process. Aside from illuminating the participants' views about the subject under study, the direct quotations from the participants' own words helped with grouping meaningful comments into relevant categories. The next section provides a brief recap on the data analysis process followed in this study.

4.2   OVERVIEW OF THE DATA ANALYSIS PROCESS

Tesch's open coding method (Creswell, 2009:186) was adopted to guide the analysis of the collected data (cf. 3.6). This involved the inductive process of organising data into categories and identifying patterns (relationships) among them, then interpreting the data to provide answers to the research question (Cohen et al., 2011:537, McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:367). The steps followed to analyse the collected data in this study are outlined in Table 4.1 as follows:

Table 4.1 Data analysis process

Steps	Activity
Step 1 : Reading and 'memoing'	Reading all the consolidated transcripts in their entirety several times in order to obtain a general sense of the whole. Highlighting key words, sentences and recurring common phrases in order to gain clear understanding of the data. Jotting down some ideas as they came to mind.
Step 2 : Clustering and coding	Formulating list of topics and clustering related ones together. Arranging topics into columns, viz., major topics, unique topics, and leftovers. Abbreviating the topics and writing codes next to the appropriate segments of the text.
Step 3 : Refining the data	Identifying the main points. Cross-referencing prevailing themes with the data and then with the research questions to ensure that the study remained on track, and reducing the data.
Step 4 : Assembling the data	Turning the most descriptive wording of the topics into main categories. Generating the subcategories by grouping the topics that are related to each other in terms of identified patterns.
Step 5 : Interpreting organised data	Identifying the core meanings of thoughts, feelings and experiences in terms of the perspectives of the participants. Integrating the categories into the literature to re-contextualise the data.
Step 6 : Reporting	Synthesising interpreted data into inferences and conclusions related to the research questions. Explaining how the research questions are answered, and what the findings mean beyond the context of the current study.

The next section focuses on the presentation of the empirical findings in this study.

4.3   PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:367) assert that it is almost unintelligible for the researcher to interpret the collected data unless it is organised according to categories. The presentation of the findings in this section is structured into categories. The categories are drawn from the collected data, and based on the main research question, research aim and objectives of this study (cf. 1.3). The layout of the categories is as follows:

- Conceptions of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;

- Perceptions of the role of CPD managers; and,
- Barriers to managing teachers' CPD effectively and possible solutions to these barriers.

Pertinent subcategories emanating from the above categories are identified and also described.

4.3.1   Conceptions of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

The first objective of this study was to explore what entails effective CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change (cf. 1.4). The different views of researchers explored and explicated in Chapter two of this study (cf. 2.3) partially addressed the aforementioned objective. In this category, the researcher envisioned to consummate the above objective through presentation and discussion of the empirical data concerning what the participants viewed as the components of teachers' CPD for curriculum change.

Analysis of the collected data indicated that the majority of participants displayed uniform conception of the basic elements of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Their responses could be clustered into the following subcategories:

- Purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;
- Methods used to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;
- Relevant content component of CPD programmes and activities;
- Enough time for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation; and
- Quality of CPD facilitators

These aspects are discussed, in sequence, in the next sections.

4.3.1.1   Purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

During the empirical investigation, it was discovered that the majority of participants were aware of some of the purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. For the majority of participants, teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was a prerequisite, especially in the wake of the implementation of the *ever-changing* Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) curriculum in the secondary schools. As Principal T2-MOR aptly put it, *teachers need to be trained continuously so that the results of the learners can improve*. In line with this opinion, one participant subject advisor mentioned that CPD was needed to provide the teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge to improve their performance in the classroom. Implied in the above views is an assumption that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is a precondition for the success of curriculum change implementation. Some participants believed that CPD was vital for the purpose of keeping the teachers abreast of current curriculum reform developments. This opinion

suggests that the participants were aware that since school curriculum reform processes are iterative and involve revision over time (Department of Basic Education, 2009:15), teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be on-going.

The participants also intimated that some teachers undertake CPD to upgrade their qualifications. It was discovered during the study that the majority of teachers do not have current tertiary qualifications related to teaching using the OBE approach. Some still hold the old college diplomas as their first and only professional qualification. Numerous participants believed that through CPD, many of the historic diploma graduates have a chance to easily access routes into the current curriculum-aligned postgraduate qualifications. One curriculum coordinator encapsulated the above views as follows:

> *The educators who are already in the system were trained long time ago according to the old [apartheid] curriculum. A definite change in their mindset is required. There are, obviously, a lot of new aspects strange to them. [So] they must keep on adding skills and knowledge in order to improve their performance and also to overcome the challenges they are currently facing [concerning the implementation of the new curriculum] ….moreover, the majority of our teachers still have college diploma as their only qualification… so, through professional development these teachers can have the opportunity to improve their [academic] qualifications* (Curriculum coordinator-3).

The literature review in this study revealed fairly consistent interpretations of the purposes teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.3.1; 2.3.3; 2.3.4). Different scholars, including Day and Sachs (2002:22) Fwu and Wang (in Guro, 2009:10) and Bubb and Earley (2007:1), maintain that teachers' CPD is indispensable for the success of curriculum change implementation. Ono and Ferreira (2010:59) and Duthilleul (2005:2), posit that the initial stages of curriculum change implementation often predispose the majority to the lack of the required skills and knowledge to be effective in their tasks. Teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation seeks to replenish the capacity of teachers with the requisite knowledge, skills and attitude in order to improve their practice in the classroom (Bubb & Earley, 2007:3; Guskey, 2002:381; Craft, 1996:6). Studies also support the necessity of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in upgrading the qualifications of the teachers (Bell & Day, 1991:7; Department of Basic Education, 2011a:77).

4.3.1.2   Methods used to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

The findings of the empirical study revealed that the majority of participants were aware that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation can be provided through different methods.

Their knowledge was, however, limited. They collectively mentioned only training workshops, professional support forums (PSFs) and distance learning or courses as the methods of facilitating teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Unexpectedly, the above happened to be the only methods pursued to provide teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in the selected AOs and secondary schools. None of the participants mentioned the organisation and/or delivery of various forms of CPD such as workshops, seminars, conferences, clusters, coaching and mentoring etc., being organised by any school or a cluster of schools.

The collected data revealed that the said training workshops and PSFs were organised and provided only at the different AOs, while the NWED contracted the North-West University and the University of the Free State to provide its teachers with the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE), as distance learning or courses. What is also worthy to note is that this study discovered that the organisation of teachers' curriculum change implementation-based CPD in most schools *is almost non-existent*. In this regard, HoD L2-RUS revealed: *The fact that teacher development opportunities are there at school level is just lip-service, we don't actually have them*. The rarity of organising teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation implies an indictment for most SMTs for failing to execute their role, and thereby shifting their responsibilities to other teacher development role-players, like AOs and universities. Nonetheless, as the subject advisor in the next extract enunciated, the PSFs epitomise the clusters model discussed in the literature review (cf. 2.3.5.2.3).

> *This is a platform whereby teachers of the same subject are brought together according to their clusters or circuits to identify and attempt to address the problems which they experience in their work as a collective. They are very important especially because our curriculum keeps changing and we do not have the luxury of time during the workshops to elaborate on certain changes… yah… the PSFs gives (sic) us the opportunity* (Subject advisor 2-RUS).

In contrast to what the empirical study found, the literature review on the CPD approaches revealed that teachers can access CPD for curriculum change implementation through more ways than what the participants indicated (cf. 2.3.5). Nonetheless, the CPD models cited by the participants in this section are supported in the literature review. There is literature evidence to suggest that districts in other provinces also strive to augment the training workshops with similar modalities as the PSFs, albeit naming them differently. In her related study, Munonde (2007:122) found that the secondary schools of Thohoyandou District organised subject-specific circuit cluster meetings after the training workshops to develop the teachers for effective curriculum change implementation. Guskey and Yoon (2009:497) emphasise the importance of structured and sustained follow-up after the main professional development activities.

Hişmanoğlu and Hişmanoğlu (2010:16) and Masoge (2008:180), however, agree that the training workshop approach is widely used as the mainstay model of teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation in most education systems, including the South African education system. Similarly, Gulston (2010:39) and Tulder and Veenman (in Simjee, 2006:23) mention that the distance learning or courses involves the offering of 'courses' by recognised universities, subsidised by government, often through distance education to develop practising teachers concerning the implementation of curriculum change.

The literature, however, strongly criticises the restriction of teachers to limited CPD approaches. Ono and Ferreira (2010:60) in concurrence with Steyn (2008:24) declare that the "one size fits all" approach to teacher development related to curriculum change implementation is not always effective. Steyn (2008:24) further contends that the methods of training teachers for curriculum change implementation should be differentiated to meet learning styles of different teachers. Implied in this view is an assumption that not all types of CPD forms would be equally effective to address the varied teachers' professional development needs for curriculum change implementation. Put differently, the present researcher believes that not all teachers can learn effectively from the same CPD method. CPD managers should explore other CPD-related models in order to cater for the different teachers' needs and thereby, expanding the teachers' options. These options include conferences and seminars, coaching and mentoring, observation of best practices, networking, group, cascade models etc. (Masoge, 2008:185; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:11; Bubb & Earley, 2007:3; Craft, 1996:13).

Recently, there are moves towards an emphasis upon school-based CPD to substitute traditional CPD methods such as training workshops, seminars and conferences (Nieto, 2009:10; Msila & Mtshali, 2011:9; Mokhele, 2011:43; Jita & Ndlalane, 2009:59). However, the present researcher subscribes to such moves only as far as encouraging school-based teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, but differs vastly from the opinion to abandon traditional CPD methods. Rather, CPD managers should consider a combination of the above categories. Lessing and De Witt (2007:55), Villegas-Reimers (2003:93) and Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995:597) contend that there are cases to suggest that when accompanied by other models, workshops, conferences, seminars and courses can be quite effective.

4.3.1.3   Relevant content component of CPD programmes and activities

During the interviews, many participants deliberated on the need for relevant content related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. It was further concluded from such

deliberations that most participants were aware of what teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation entails. Several participants raised concern that the content of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be relevant to the classroom. In particular, they expected CPD programmes to empower them about specific-subject matter content, pedagogical methods and new ways of assessment. Several participants agreed that the pervious interventions largely detached from classroom realities since they were lacking in the above components. One principal described them as *superficial… and [were] just touch ups.* The participants in the following two citations explain their expectations about the content of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation:

When Home Economics was changed to Consumer Studies, a number of new topics like entrepreneurship were introduced. Some of them we have never seen or heard of even when we were at the college. During the workshops we were only told about new topics to be covered but never trained on how to go about them. I was hopeful that we shall deal with them in the PSFs and subject meetings at the APO, to our disappointment the subject advisor asked us to discuss how each of us was going about in handling them (Teacher A2-MOR).

My understanding of curriculum change is that it involves new curriculum, which means new content, new ways of teaching and new ways of assessing learners. So, I would expect teachers to be thoroughly trained on the new content, the new methods of teaching and learner assessment. The training should be intensive and not just superficial. Teachers don't know these things. Many of the changes are new to teachers (HoD A2-DIT).

Content component is also enumerated in several studies as the most determining feature in any CPD experience (Desimone, 2009:184; Harwell, 2003:4). Reitsma (in Engelbrecht, 2008:63) points out that the content component of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation refers to that which needs to be presented to teachers to enable them to attain the outcomes and develop the required skills, knowledge and understanding. This view implies that the content of any teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should, first and foremost, be focused to address the specific needs of teachers (Steyn, 2010:144; Bubb & Earley, 2007:41; Lessing & de Witt, 2007:55). In this regard, CPD managers should ensure that the content components of all teachers' CPD activities and programmes are contextualised and proportional to the needs of teachers and linked with classroom realities.

4.3.1.4   Enough time for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

The overwhelming majority of participants mentioned that the element of time has influence on the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Many participants believed that CPD for curriculum change implementation should be given enough time. They expressed a common resentment towards the brief, once-off, "hit-and-run" training workshops and the "twilight" PSFs. It emerged from the collected data that most training workshops lasted for as short as three to five days, and were offered once prior to the year of reform implementation. Likewise, empirical evidence shows that most PSFs were conducted as late as 2pm to 4pm on a normal working day. Many felt strongly that the above arrangement was awkward and jeopardised the general efforts to improve the quality of curriculum implementation. The teachers in the ensuing two extracts lamented how time constraints militate against the objectives of teachers' CPD activities for curriculum change implementation:

*We received a lot of cramped information during workshops. The time for the workshops was too short for the massive information they [the facilitators] had for us. Imagine attending a workshop for three days for something new that you must learn for implementation the following year and possibly for the rest of your life as a teacher. The time was so short. The subject advisor just ended up brushing over the information, but still could not finish (*Teacher L2-MOR).

*As teachers we are also parents and have responsibilities after work. So, it is unfair to expect us to attend [PSF] meeting at the area office at two o'clock, after being at school from half past seven, and finish the meeting after 4pm. Where do I get the energy to concentrate and contribute meaningfully to the discussions, when I am tired from the classroom? Obviously, my focus is on what time am I going to get home (*Teacher T2-MAH).

A body of literature attests to a variable of time as another determinant of the quality of CPD, especially when it is adequate and managed properly (cf. 2.3.2.3). Several scholars concur that practising teachers require a considerable time for CPD related to curriculum change implementation (Desimone 2009:184; Bubb & Earley, 2007:17; Day & Sachs, 2004:85). Most importantly, the related literature criticises the one-shot workshops that last for three to five days a year, especially those that are conducted during the time meant for teaching and learning (cf. 2.3.2.3 & 2.3.2.4). Maila (2003:166) suggests that the duration and number of days of training workshops should be prolonged to ensure that the teachers' expectations concerning the outcomes are met. The present researcher believes that the desire to allot adequate time can be attainable if the

activities related with teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation are provided on on-going basis. According to Nieto and Drago-Severson (in Steyn, 2010:149) such activities become more successful when they are school- and classroom- based and when they are on-going and continuous.

4.3.1.5   Quality of facilitators

The interview data revealed that most participants also perceived the quality of facilitators as another constituent element of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Subject advisor 2-RUS said*: No matter how good the training material might be, if the person who conducts training is not good, the training won't be effective.* Implied from the above comments is an assumption that a good facilitator of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should demonstrate attributes such as a superior level of knowledge about training content, thorough grasp and command of specific-subject content knowledge and excellent presentation skills. Several teachers and HoDs believed that many teachers fail to implement curriculum change successfully because they were trained by subject advisors that lacked the above attributes during the workshops. The subject advisor in the next quotation discloses why several subject advisors were not competent enough as facilitators of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation:

….that is why some of our subject specialists are [often] being found wanting by teachers [during training]…. I am not saying I am not one of them. We are not actually trained, we are orientated. Just short orientations…. The approach followed is, they will choose one subject specialist from different provinces to attend training at national level… From there, they come back to cascade information to us for about 3 days…there is a lot of distortion…. Sometimes when you ask a question the person will say let me first check with national (Subject advisor 1-DIT).

Needless to say, a facilitator lacking knowledge of the content of training is likely to put the purpose of training teachers for curriculum change implementation at risk. Most probably, their lessons may not achieve the intended goal. As a result, their ineffectiveness may exacerbate the teachers' difficulties concerning inadequate knowledge of subject content matter and relevant pedagogical methods to deliver the new curriculum (cf. 2.3.2.2).

The participants' opinions about competent facilitators as a critical component of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation are consistent with further literature review. Roberts and Konn (in Castleman, 2007:32) assert that the effectiveness of CPD depends on the quality of CPD providers. Implicitly, the Ministerial Task Team on the Implementation of the NCS (Department of Basic Education, 2009:22) found that many subject advisors have *a superficial understanding around*

curriculum. Bagwandee (in Munonde, 2007:121) and Chisholm (2000:52) ascribe their incompetence to the limitation involved in their training as the trainers. She adds that as a result of poor training as trainers, many subject advisors still have limited understanding of the curriculum. The present researcher agrees with Munonde (2007:121) that the subject advisors, as training facilitators, should be provided with retraining courses based on curriculum change implementation well in advance to give them ample time to internalise the content before embarking on the training of teachers. They should also be involved in the design of the training workshops material.

In the light of the preceding exposition, it can be concluded that the participants had basic understanding of what teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation entails. Although they could not define the constituent elements of effective teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in absolute terms, the provisional conceptions were worth pursuing. In general, all of the participants seemed to welcome the idea and viewed it as a step in the right direction to improve the quality of curriculum change in the classrooms. The present researcher holds the view that the people who exhibit basic knowledge of what teachers' CPD for curriculum change entails are most likely to support the management processes sought to achieve its goals. CPD managers should exploit the prevailing knowledge to set a benchmark for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation programmes and activities. In other words, CPD managers may take into account the views of the participants to form a critical framework for consideration when undertaking management processes.

4.3.2 Perceptions of the role of CPD managers

As a point of its departure (cf. 1.1), this study argued that effective management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation warrants a thorough understanding and knowledge of the concerned role by those in charge, in this regard, the curriculum coordinators and SMTs. The second objective of this study was to establish what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 1.4). This objective was partially met through the review of related literature in this study (cf. 2.5). It was envisioned that the presentation and discussion of the participants' perspectives concerning what they consider as the role of CPD managers in this category will advance this study to address the above objective in the most logical way.

Contrary to the above expectation, the majority of participants displayed limited conceptualisation of what curriculum coordinators and SMTs were supposed to do when managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. In most instances, their responses were inarticulate and lacked

in depth and range, particularly when they outlined the specific activities and aspects involved in what they perceived as the role of CPD managers. Often, their descriptions of how most CPD managers carried out certain management functions were inconsistent with the literature. It is, however, interesting to note that during data collection, some of the participants disclosed that they were not aware that a set of formal processes of management required to be followed in order to bring about CPD of better quality to teachers. Regardless of the discernible limitations, their perceptions about what constitutes the role of CPD managers were worth pursuing to achieve the main aim of this study (cf. 1.3).

The literature study suggests that CPD managers should carry out various tasks which include the following: creating a healthy climate (2.5.7.1); planning (2.5.7.2); organising (2.5.7.3); leading (2.5.7.4); and controlling (2.5.7.5). Although many of the participants' responses seemed inarticulate, disjointed and difficult to follow in most instances, the researcher was prudent to cluster their views according to the above functions. The goal was to create a deeper insight into the many meanings that the participants ascribed to the role of CPD managers.

4.3.2.1 Creating a healthy climate for teachers' CPD

During data collection, several participants displayed awareness that the CPD mangers have the responsibility to create a healthy environment that facilitates, rather than hinders the effective management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Bipath (2008:67) suggests that CPD managers have the responsibility to generate the conditions and establish the climate for teacher development to be initiated and sustained. Holbeche (2006:184) describes organisational climate as the psychological atmosphere that represents the "feel of the place" at a given moment in time. In this this regard, CPD managers are expected to modify the organisational climate to reflect essential attributes, which *inter alia*, include goal focus, synergised systems, communication adequacy, decentralised power, effective resource utilisation, cohesiveness, adaptation and sound morale (Kruger, 2002:20; Bitzer, in Munonde, 2007:48).

The study, however, found that the majority of the above qualities were lacking in most of the selected research AOs and secondary schools. Instead, teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in the selected research sites occurred in an environment predominantly overwhelmed by a number of negative elements. Such include sectarian decision-making, poor physical environment and job insecurity: redeployment of teachers. The next sections elucidate the impact of the above factors on the general organisational climate in the sampled AOs and schools,

and the possible strategies that CPD managers may apply to orchestrate contexts that promote teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

4.3.2.1.1 Tenuous involvement of other role-players: sectarian decision-making

The majority of participants revealed that their organisational climate was beset by sectarian decision-making. The study found that decision-making concerning the organisation of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in most AOs was limited to the subject advisory unit. The inputs from other role-players were excluded. This sectarian decision-making approach tended to demoralise many participants, including some subject advisors.

It emerged from the interview data analysis that several subject advisors in this study found it difficult to cope with the domination of curriculum coordinators during the plenary meetings for the organisation of the training workshops that aimed to prepare the teachers for the implementation of curriculum change. One subject advisor explained that such meetings involved relatively little discussion, and that their voices were not always heard. He further disclosed that in those meetings they were often compelled to accept the *already cooked decisions.* Even more important, another subject advisor enunciated that his curriculum coordinator had a tendency to impose the decisions allegedly taken from their meetings at head office concerning the organisation of the workshops. He protested in this way: *What they decide there we have to implement without questioning*. This is an epitome of a top-down approach in which the subordinates had no say. Some subject advisors perceived this in a rather negative light. One such subject advisor held the view that the curriculum coordinators dominated decision-making because they believed that their positions placed them above other role-players.

The above views of the subject advisors were supported by those of the SMTs and teachers, who collectively indicated that sectarian decision-making had demoralised them against teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. As a result of being sidelined during the planning phase, several members of SMTs and teachers were of the opinion that the training workshops and PSFs were impositions, to which they had to react with mere compliance. One teacher said: *as teachers we had no option but to comply* in order to attend to avoid disciplinary steps being instituted against them. The extracts below embody some of the aversions of being overlooked made by the teachers and SMTs, in turn:

> *One thing that is very important is consultation. The area office and all others that are responsible for teachers' professional development must consult with the teachers before the workshops or any training [could] kick start. Whether through the unions or subject committees,*

but the bottom line is that the teachers can support professional development if they are given the opportunity to voice [out] their concerns and needs. They need to be consulted… (Teacher A1-DIT).

It seems as if the people up there do not take us seriously. When they plan the workshops they don't consult us. We only receive notices in the form[s] of circular or SMS [text message through cellphone]. Usually the notices are sent within very short space of time and they are frustrating. They would take all teachers for training the whole week. We don't know whether to release the learners to go and stay at home [for the duration of the teachers' training] or what (Principal L2-MOR).

This finding of sectarian decision-making is consistent with the literature. Studies show that decision-making processes concerning teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation often do not include teachers (Munonde, 2007:49; Nkabinde, 2006:50). The tenuous involvement of other role-players in decision-making processes is inexcusable in the current democratic landscape. CPD managers are, therefore, expected to shift from a rigid authoritarian model of management associated with the previous apartheid regime to embrace the democratic principles in their management practices. Besides, exclusionary practices contradict the notion of teamwork embedded in Total Quality Management theory (cf. 2.5.3). Similarly, it flouts the goal of interrelated subsystems which is espoused in systems theory (cf. 2.5.4) as well as the principles of behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6). Furthermore, it undermines the spirit of democracy in public education institutions (Prinsloo, 2008a:154, Bipath, 2008:83; Rathokgwa in Munonde, 2007:46). The Department of Education (in Geel 2005:20) strongly stresses that managing teachers' CPD should not be seen as a centralised task of the few, rather it should be perceived as an activity in which all members of educational organisations are involved.

The literature abounds with typical repercussions facing CPD managers that institutionalise tenuous involvement of other role-players. According to Khumalo (2009:8) and Smit et al. (2011:257), such CPD managers run risks of facing role-player dissatisfaction which may give rise to low morale, poor cooperation and resistance-prone reactions. The present researcher's stance is that, where role-players expect their input to be valued but feel disregarded and isolated, they tend to become frustrated and to feel disillusioned and unfulfilled. This condition may impact negatively on the goals of CPD, the effect of which will manifest at classroom level.

The most effective remedy to deal with tenuous involvement of role-players is to create an invitational organisational climate. To this end, CPD managers should create opportunities that

engender effective consultation with the role-players. Steyn (2011a:155) maintains that orchestrating the organisational climate requires all operations and actions to be carried out in a humane and democratic manner. In accordance with above views, CPD managers should first take cognisance of the fact that since South Africa is a democratic state, all public institutions are expected to embrace democratic principles. This perception is underlined in the literature. The Department of Education (2000a:2), for instance, explicitly asserts that education managers should adopt democratic and participative management systems to build relationships with role-players in order to elicit the smooth implementation of current policies. Furthermore, a host of scholars agree that involving role-players has the potential to assist CPD managers to both improve decision-making and circumvent possible negative reactions to change (Smit et al., 2011:257; Rathokgwa, in Munonde, 2007:46; Nkabinde, 2006:16; Erasmus & Van der Westhuizen, 2002:246). Mafora and Phorabatho (2011:206) agree that when role-players are engaged in decision-making, the managers are more likely to experience heightened staff morale. When subordinates feel that their views are valued in their organisations they are likely to cooperate and contribute towards the achievement of the organisational goals (Nkabinde, 2006:16). Moreover, adequate involvement of role-players in decision-making is likely to inspire a sense of ownership (Dean, 1991:33).

4.3.2.1.2   Poor physical environment

The collected data revealed that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in the sampled AOs and schools was organised in poor physical environment, which did not promote, but rather discouraged teachers' learning. All participants expressed a consistent opinion that the physical conditions that prevailed in most venues used for accommodating training workshops and PSFs were not inviting. In particular, many participants were irritated by the venues that were difficult to access - especially on public transport, fraught with distractions and lacked basic facilities such as water, power and sanitation. In this regard, Teacher T2-MOR said:

Our workshops are usually held at [a certain] primary school. The conditions there are not suitable. There is no proper ventilation. Some of the chairs and tables we use are meant for junior primary school kids. It is noisy. During (school) break and after school it is worse. So, you can't really pay attention to the subject advisor for a long time.

In further review of related literature, the Department of Education (2007:12) endorses the view that South Africa has poor infrastructure and facilities for teachers' CPD. According to Davids (2009:6), this problem is most keenly felt in rural areas and townships. The prevailing poor physical environment is not supported in behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6). Lethoko (2002:76)

notes that in terms of the McGregor's theory of X and Y, aspects like work conditions, facilities and so on may either have a negative or positive effect on teachers. Likewise, the existence of poor physical environment had negative impact on teachers' morale. One relatively simple approach to promoting teachers' morale to their CPD for curriculum change implementation is to ensure that the physical conditions of where their learning unfolds is appropriate for their status as professionals (Clarke, 2008:133). Steyn (2011a:156) supports the above view when she avers that the physical environment assists in creating a warm and welcoming organisational atmosphere and shows that people care about each other. The ways in which the physical environment of the CPD venues may be improved to engender effective provision of teachers' CPD for curriculum change and management thereof are explicated in section 4.3.2.1.2 of this study. The next section looks at job insecurity as another element that affected the organisational climate negatively.

4.3.2.1.3   Job insecurity: imminent redeployment of teachers

Allied to the variable of poor physical environment, this study discovered that the organisational climate in many of the research sites in this study was also polluted by a feeling of job insecurity emanating from the on-going redeployment of teachers in terms of the ELRC Resolution 2 of 2003. This Resolution aims to right-size and rationalise the teachers in public schools on operational requirements (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:214). In agreement with the above authors, the study found that on annual basis, schools were expected to identify teachers eligible for redeployment. Such teachers were identified on grounds of being in excess or additional to the number of staff needed in their current schools, and thereafter, put on a redeployment list to be placed in other schools where vacancies existed.

Several participants revealed that the rigid and sometimes insensitive implementation of the teacher redeployment policy – ELRC Resolution 2 of 2003, has led to feelings of job insecurity, uncertainty, anxiety, low morale, frustrations, and disillusionment among teachers. Somehow, the intensity of the above feelings seemed contagious. It became obvious during data collection that the redeployment policy did not only affect the teachers put on the redeployment list concerning teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, but most role-players. One principal indicated that it was difficult to motivate teachers who were placed on the redeployment list to attend workshops and PSFs. In a related response, Teacher L1-RUS lamented: *What is the use. You don't know which subject or grade you will be given [allocated] to teach when you go to the next school…* In the following quotation, the subject advisor explains that it is difficult to promote teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in an unstable context.

Teachers are being transferred now and then. I don't understand how the department expects us to training teachers effectively while it keeps on redeploying them. I mean it is not right. This year you train this teacher, when you go to his or her school for support next year you find that a different teacher, who has never been trained is teaching the subject. When you ask the whereabouts of the teacher you trained, you will be told that he or she was redeployed to another school. I mean our efforts are wasted (Subject advisor 1–MOR).

The literature supports the views of the participants that the implementation of Resolution 2 of 2003 had blemished the organisational climate in many basic educational institutions. In their related study, Mafora and Phorabatho (2011:214) reported that the Resolution impacts negatively on the morale of all teachers because of the related uncertainty, anxiety, disillusionment and job insecurity. The present researcher is of the opinion that it is improbable of any role-player in teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation who experiences either or a combination of the above psychological conditions to wholeheartedly support most of the initiatives sought to equip the teachers' skills and knowledge for curriculum change implementation.

What the plausible answers to improving the morale of role-players who are affected by the on-going redeployment of teachers are, remains a mystery in literature. Phorabatho (2010:127) had initially recommended that the Department of Basic Education should consider policy prioritisation as a means to allow the smooth implementation of curriculum change implementation. Nonetheless, that recommendation seemed modest, considering the tenacity and rigour with which the department enforces the Resolution, despite the adverse effect it has on the quality of curriculum change implementation. Even during the interviews, several participants expressed the view that most CPD managers were in a state of abject bewilderment regarding the effective solutions to this problem. Curriculum coordinator-3 enunciated: *Unfortunately there is nothing we can do as curriculum coordinators. It cripples our efforts, it cripples performance in schools, it is sad*. Nonetheless, the present researcher suggests that the SMTs should guide this process of implementing the redeployment policy prudently and judiciously in order to circumvent possible misperceptions of insensitivity and resistance.

In brief, the forgoing exposition indicates that the participants were aware that CPD managers should orchestrate the organisational climate to facilitate the smooth provision and management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Nonetheless, the majority of the participants revealed that this was not done, instead some CPD managers perpetuated the condition. In this sense, this study discovered that many of the identified CPD lacked the basic knowledge of how to transform the climate, which is reportedly plagued by, among others, sectarian decision-making,

poor physical environment, and job insecurity resulting from the imminent redeployment of teachers, to be conducive for the provision and management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

The above finding implies that if not overturned immediately, the prevailing negative organisational climate may jeopardise CPD managers from achieving the goal of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Schmuck (in Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:293) declares that the implementation of many educational reforms have failed mainly because those responsible for managing the related processes paid limited attention to the organisational contexts in which the implementation of the reforms have been attempted. This view implicitly acknowledges that any attempt to manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation independent of changing some basic organisational features, runs the risk of partial or complete failure (Tanner & Rehage, 1988:24).

The next section presents and discusses the participants' views concerning planning as a management function of CPD managers.

4.3.2.2 Poor planning

From their responses, all the participants displayed awareness that managing CPD for curriculum change implementation involves planning. Their perceptions concerning how CPD managers carried out the planning function and their expectations thereof were generally inadequate, and can be clustered as follows:

- Inadequate assessment of teachers' needs for curriculum change implementation; and,
- Developing a programme of action for the implementation of the CPD plans.

4.3.2.2.1 Inadequate assessment of teachers' needs for curriculum change implementation

The majority of participants were aware that planning encompasses needs assessment. It is, however, interesting to note that none of the participants explicitly related the activity of CPD needs assessment to the role of CPD managers. Instead, during their unstructured individual interviews, the curriculum coordinators and subject advisors concurred that the teachers' CPD needs that informed the training workshops were determined by the national Department of Basic Education. Similarly, the above participants also unanimously disclosed that CPD managers played no role in the assessment of the teachers' training needs that informed the PSFs. It was revealed that the latter's training needs were assessed at the Provincial meetings of the different subject advisors, also known

as the PSFs. In the next citations, the participants explain how needs assessment for the PSFs unfolded.

My role is a bit limited because I coordinate the subject specialists to train teachers. Basically, the specialists are the ones who would identify where there is a need in schools, and then submit them [the needs] to me. As the coordinator, my role would then be to identify time when these teachers will be trained, also looking at the departmental guidelines of protecting teaching time (Curriculum coordinator-3).

We have what we call Provincial PSFs, where all subject advisors of a particular subject in the Province meet. These are often coordinated by the Provincial subject coordinators. They exclude the area office curriculum coordinators. It is where content gaps are identified. We draft some sort of plan as to where focus should be. When they come to these forums, subject advisors are expected to have identified content gaps at area office level to be discussed at [Provincial] PSFs. They [content gaps] are informed by [learner] performance in the subject at area office level. Usually we do quarterly item analysis per subject (Subject advisor 1-DIT).

We operate on the basis of analysis of results (matric). Now, when results are analysed, there is what we call item analysis by subject-specific analytical moderators at marking centres. Where learners perform poorly, it means a teacher is not competent with that area of the works schedule (Subject advisor 1-BOJ).

In view of the above comments, a common trend is discernible that the planners of the PSFs used the matric learner performance as the basis for determining teachers' training needs for curriculum change implementation. This approach, however, has several major limitations. First, it implies that CPD for curriculum change implementation was specifically provided to teachers in matric, thereby leaving teachers in other grades with limited chances for professional development. Second, it excluded the input of the teachers. In the third instance, it becomes obvious that by adopting the matric learner performance, the planners of the PSFs overlooked the contextual factors in which the delivery of curriculum change unfolded. Lastly, is also evident that the adoption of areas where learners performed poorly as the ultimate criterion for planning the PSFs overrode, rather than supplemented the results of the Developmental Appraisal, which were reportedly encapsulated in the School Improvement Plan (SIP) and submitted to the different AOs (cf. 2.4.3). Moreover, throughout the study there was no mention of the Developmental Appraisal results being considered when planning for the PSFs.

Aside from the abovementioned shortfalls, the perceptible presumption about what most teachers needed to be trained on vividly indicates that the conceptualisation of the PSFs was not consistent with the principles of customer focus and input-transformation-output process. The above principles, embedded in the TQM theory (cf. 2.5.3) and the systems theory (cf. 2.5.4) respectively, emphasise the importance of founding any teacher development on the teachers' actual needs. The disregard of these principles in the PSFs had inevitably resulted in dissatisfaction among the teachers (cf. 4.3.3.5). The majority of teachers felt that attending the training offered by the subject advisors was inconsequent. Additionally, several teachers indicated that they were reluctant to attend future PSFs and workshops. Such reactions suggest that the above CPD methods could not provide the teachers' with self-esteem and self-actualisation. These concepts are the pillars of motivation, a key aspect of behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6).

This study suggests that the needs assessment related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be done at levels that are as close to the teachers as possible. Mafora and Phorabatho (2013:118) advise CPD managers that the planning process should be context-specific to ensure that the anticipated activities help address the unique circumstances of the individual organisations. In this sense, the teachers' CPD needs assessment should be based on the outcomes of the Developmental Appraisal (cf. 2.4.3). However, the outcomes of the Developmental Appraisal may be supplemented by other methods such as the SWOT analysis (cf. 2.5.7.2.1.2) and learner performance per subject according to grade. This may strengthen the quality of teachers' CPD needs assessment, while at the same time, it minimises the adverse effects of the limitations associated with the inadequate implementation of the Developmental Appraisal (cf. 2.4.3 & 4.3.3.1.3). According to Letlhoo (2011:62) and Biputh (2008:205), the implementation of the Developmental Appraisal still experiences challenges such as bias, favouritism, and the lack of honesty on the parts of the appraisees and appraisers.

The literature review supports this suggestion (cf. 2.4.3 & 2.5.7.2.1.2). To reiterate, the Department of Basic Education requires schools to enforce the Developmental Appraisal, embedded in the IQMS policy, for purposes of appraising individual teachers with the view to determining areas of strength and weakness, and to draw up programmes for individual development (cf. 2.4.3). This vision implies using the outcomes of the Developmental Appraisal as the blueprint for actions and processes to produce teacher development.

The on-going annual appraisal of teachers, in accordance with the IQMS policy, implies that most SMTs are now familiar with needs assessment methods, albeit there could be complexities involved. Regarding the curriculum coordinators, it can be suggested that they need to start off the process by

liaising with the unit that coordinates the IQMS at the relevant AO, with a view to extensively interacting with the SIPs to determine the actual subject-specific training needs of the teachers. The Education Labour Relations Council (2003:24), however, suggests that the curriculum coordinators should consider the following guidelines to facilitate teachers' training needs for curriculum change at AO level:

- Once the AO receives SIPs (with clearly specified developmental needs) from each school by the end of March each year, the AO must develop its own improvement plan.

- In the AO plan, schools that have identified similar needs and/or similar areas in which teachers of the same subject require development can be clustered together for purposes of providing INSET and other teacher development programmes.

The recommendation of the Developmental Appraisal results as the basis for determining teachers' CPD needs concerning the implementation of curriculum change should not suggest that the present researcher is ignorant or somewhat indifferent to the poor implementation of the Developmental Appraisal system in the North West Province (Peu & Motlhabane in Masoge, 2008:175; Letlhoo, 2011:60). Rather, the present researcher argues that the solution to the flawed implementation of the Developmental Appraisal rests with the relevant management structures within the various levels of the education system. These structures should deal with challenges that beset the effectiveness of Developmental Appraisal such as the lack of honesty on the part of the appraisees and appraisers (Letlhoo, 2011:62) and subjectivity leading to idealistically high scores, bias and favouritism, inconsistent application of criteria during appraisal and the degeneration of the IQMS process into a paper exercise (Biputh, 2008:205).

Since needs assessment is not always a straightforward task (cf. 2.5.7.2.1), it is also important that during this stage, CPD managers should take into account the often contending needs of individual teachers, schools, as well as the priorities of the provincial and national education authorities (Bubb & Earley, 2007:42; Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994:115; Bush and West-Burnham, 1994:293). More often than not, they should assume the role of a broker to mediate among the disparate needs (Steyn, 1999:209). By this view, Steyn implies that CPD managers should show compassion to the individual teachers' needs and address the priorities of education authorities without a compromise of the school development priorities. As a good rule of thumb for efficient and plausible needs assessment, CPD managers should involve representatives of other key role-players in the process. The significance of adopting a participative management approach to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was discussed earlier in this study (cf. 2.5.7.1.3).

4.3.2.2.2   Developing a programme of action for the implementation of the CPD plans

A number of participants agreed that the planning process concludes with a programme of action. Principal T1-MAH mentioned that after planning, there must *be a plan in place to show how what was planned will be implemented*. In line with the above view, Subject advisor 2–BOJ said: *we usually draw our plan of action where we indicate the dates, venues and which teachers are expected to attend according to grades, and then we send to schools*. This view was supported by evidence from document analysis data collected from several AOs in this study. There were different notices informing teachers to attend the workshops and PSFs. The notices clearly specified dates, times, venues, subject and grade teachers who were expected to attend such teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation interventions. The literature agrees with the above views. Badenhorst (2003:47) maintains that the "plan" refers to a programme of action according to which predetermined CPD outcomes and standards can be met. As the curriculum coordinator in the next quotation explained, he took charge of the development and adoption of the programme of action:

Prior to any [conduct of] workshop we meet as staff to plan. The main points are to check the state of readiness in terms of logistics like dates, venues and catering. Usually we stagger the dates according to the clusters (circuits) in order to make the workshops more effective. We also check the readiness of the subject advisors to facilitate training (Curriculum coordinator-1).

The review of related literature corroborates how CPD managers perform the activity of drawing a programme of action (cf. 2.5.7.2.4). Bubb and Early (2007:42) and Dean (1991:86) declare that the management of CPD involves some financial implications. The success of the exercise requires an array of resources. CPD managers should facilitate the acquisition of both material and human resources of which training material and equipment, travel, food, accommodation and facilitators are key (Blandford, 2000:124; Welton, 2000:123; Dean, 1991:86). As regards the dates, Swanepoel (2009:137) and Dean (1991:33) concur that proper time-scheduling is an essential element of planning. According to Quible (2005:355), proper time-scheduling for CPD should entail specific dates, time and timescale.

CPD managers should consider the following guidelines, taken from Mizell (2010:14), to improve their time-scheduling for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation programmes and activities:

- schools and districts can 'bank' time - allowing teachers shorter workdays and combining the extra minutes for a block of professional development;

- schools and districts can identify specific days within the school calendar when students are released and teachers spend time learning; and,

- districts may hire substitute teachers to allow teachers to participate in intensive CPD activities.

In addition to the above, CPD managers should ensure that decisions about the time and duration of CPD sessions should be clear to all that it affects (Dean, 1991:86). This view requires that CPD managers should ensure that the adopted programme of action is effectively communicated to all role-players well in advance. Most importantly, the time for teachers' CPD should form an integral part of the AO and school year programmes. Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009:49) contend that planning for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should not be approached in isolation, but must be a constituent part of any AO- or school - development project. This approach can be effective in the reduction of the possible clashes emanating from the disparate CPD agendas of the individual teachers, schools, as well as the priorities of provincial and national education authorities (cf. 4.3.2.2.2).

4.3.2.3   Inadequate organising

Systems theory emphasises the concept that "everything in a system is related to everything else" (Jackson, Morgan & Paolillo, 1986:16; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972:459). It underlines the importance of interactive relationships between or among the subsystems within organisations and studying the environmental interface. Clearly, this involves the management task of organising. According to Smit et al. (2011:9), Lussier (2009:11) and Swanepoel (2009a:96), organising involves the process of allocating resources, roles and responsibilities to people in a framework or structure to achieve the goals as identified in the planning phase. This definition coheres with the view that the goal of TQM is to harness the human and material resources of an organisation in the most effective way to achieve the objectives of the organisation (cf. 2.5.3). The above viewpoints assume high levels of organising to prevail in any organisation in order for such an organisation to achieve its goals. The empirical findings, however, revealed otherwise.

Analysis of the interview data revealed that all CPD managers performed the function of organising, albeit inadequately. Similarly, all participants displayed scant understanding of what the function of organising involves. For the majority, "organising" meant the allocation of physical and material resources only. Subject advisor 1-MOR responded as follows: *when we organise, we just look at the dates and the right venue. About the resources, it is every man for himself…* The fact that they did not mention other important activities such as departmentation, establishment of organisational

structure, delegation and coordination meant that not all processes in the organising phase were followed.

4.3.2.3.1 Role centralisation

With probing questions, the participants indicated that CPD managers monopolised their role. This was evidenced by responses that revealed that there were no structures or committees formed to oversee teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in all the AOs selected for this study. When asked about the existence of committees that facilitate teachers' CPD activities, one curriculum coordinator revealed:

Oh no… we do not have such committees at our AO. I don't know about [in] other AOs. I haven't heard any of my colleagues talking about it. But I'll check. You know we operate under the assumption that such committees should prevail in schools only. Like I said, I'll check with my colleagues….it is a great idea… (Curriculum coordinator-2).

Conversely, the study found that the Staff Development Teams (SDTs), formed in accordance with the Developmental Appraisal policy (IQMS), were not active and therefore, ineffective in many of the sampled schools. This was one of the related responses:

The SDT [school development team]…. We only see them during IQMS implementation. From there nothing will be heard from them. They don't have anything to do with teacher development. No… I have never seen any activity of teacher development for curriculum implementation here at our school (HoD L2-MAH).

The monopoly of the role of managing teachers' CPD contradicts what the concept of teamwork stands for as embedded in the TQM approach (cf. 2.5.3). According this principle, other CPD role-players should be involved in all processes of management. Furthermore, the involvement of role-players is emphasised in systems theory's notion of interrelated system (cf. 2.5.4), which purports the interrelatedness of the subsystems through organised structures as a secret for organisational success. Implied here, is a suggestion that CPD managers should devolve the role through the formation of effective structures. Such structures should be democratically established (cf. 2.5.7.1.3), and be supported with training and relevant resources.

4.3.2.3.2 Lack of delegation

It was also discovered that CPD managers did not delegate any portion of their functions to their subordinates. It appeared that most managers seemed sceptical to delegate because they believed that they could do the job better themselves. Subject advisor 1–DIT said: *maybe they doubt our*

capability to do the job. Smit <u>et al.</u> (2011:238) aptly identifies that insufficient delegation usually stems from lack of confidence in their subordinates and a perception that the subordinates are not up to doing the task. A pertinent CPD manager's comment was:

So, we borrow. We are always on our knees…. For CAPS [Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement] training we needed data projectors. I begged for data projectors from each and every school. You know um… in the end you get problems because of that (Curriculum coordinator-4).

CPD managers that do not organise effectively and those who centralise their role may face serious implications. Among the most significant repercussions, they may not be able to cope with the workload involved in their role; they are most likely to contribute towards the lack of a sense of collective ownership of teachers' CPD; they may engender a feeling of alienation in their subordinates, which is likely to result in lack of cooperation and resistance on the part of subordinates; and, in no uncertain terms, they run the risk of failing to implement the plans effectively. It, therefore, becomes obvious that the goals of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation may be difficult to be achieved when CPD managers do not organise effectively.

Related literature suggests that CPD managers should undertake the following activities when organising for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5.7.3):

- Establish steering committees or departments that deal with teachers' curriculum change implementation-based CPD (cf. 2.5.7.3.1);

- Once the structure or committee is in place, they should form organisational structure related to teachers CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5.7.3.2);

- Delegate a portion of their tasks and authority to subordinates who assume responsibility of performing them (cf. 2.5.7.3.3), and,

- Coordinate to ensure that the delegated subordinate(s), formed structures or committees and staff fit together as units for the effective realisation of the set goals (cf. 2.5.7.3.4).

4.3.2.4   Limited leading

Glover and Law (2004:85) maintain that leading is a management function that is directly concerned with the ways in which intended plans are operationalised. It involves the ability of an individual in charge to inspire, motivate and give direction to enable others to contribute to the efficient achievement of the set goals (Smit <u>et al</u>., 2011:310). Prinsloo (2008:156) suggests that in order to elicit the above behavioural responses from their subordinates, CPD managers should be able to

communicate and motivate their subordinates effectively. This approach is also supported in behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6).

During the study, it was discovered that many participants were aware of leading as the role of CPD managers. Although none of the participants cited or implied motivating, the majority emphasised supervision and communication as the activities that CPD managers should perform when leading. Their views of supervision and communication were, however, limited.

4.3.2.4.1 Insufficient supervision

Several participants demonstrated awareness that CPD managers are responsible for supervising their subordinates' participation in teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation-related programmes and activities. Some of the responses to the question about leading as the role of CPD included:

> *It is my responsibilities to oversee the work of the subject advisors even during the workshops. I account for everything in this unit* (Curriculum coordinator-4).

A similar expression from one principal was:

> *As SMTs, we must supervise the teachers in all aspects about curriculum implementation. So, it is our duty to make sure that they attend workshops. In most cases, I expect them to give feedback to the HoDs when they come back (*Principal T1–RUS).

Reality-check revealed that most CPD managers had superficially discharged the activity of supervision. Several participants agreed that many CPD managers focused on mandatory attendance of teachers to the training workshops and PSFs, but did not supervise teachers' enrollment in the government-sponsored ACE programmes. It was revealed that some teachers had enrolled in the above programmes for different subjects than they actually taught. Principal T1-MOR added: *others even did ACE in [educational] management.* This implied a complete deviation from the goal of deploying a qualification-driven method as another strategy to improve the capacity of the teachers for effective implementation of curriculum change in the classrooms (cf. 1.2). Moreover, some principals felt that some of the ACE graduates did not necessarily add value. Several principals revealed that some of the graduates refused to teach the *new subjects* they were allocated at schools. The principal in the next quotation expressed his frustrations concerning the lack of supervision over teachers' registration in the ACE programme as follows:

> *Some [teachers] do ACE secretly. Mostly, the ACE they do is not related to the subject that they teach. You will never know as a principal until they submit a certificate. They need that cash*

bonus. One thing interesting is that some of them refuse to teach the new subject should it become known that they have a qualification. Even those who are subsidised by the department do not agree easily (Principal L2-DIT).

In the light of the preceding discussion, the present researcher believes that the whole question of teachers registering for government-funded ACE in different subjects than they taught - and had no prospects of teaching the "ACE-subjects" when duty called, is an indictment to CPD managers and the NWED. Evidently, such malpractices imply fruitless expenditure of the government's revenue and, as such, would not add value to the government's quest to improve the implementation of curriculum change. Therefore, the present researcher suggests strongly that CPD managers, particularly principals, should be given powers to recommend the teachers' enrollment in the government-sponsored ACE. Concerning the existing ACE graduates, the principals and curriculum coordinators should liaise with the Human Resource Management and Development Chief Directorate in the NWED concerning their ACE-subjects so that those teachers would be put to meaningful use in their different schools.

4.3.2.4.2   Top-down communication approach

There was consensus among the participants that in order to be successful in their role, CPD managers should be efficient and effective communicators. HoD L2-MOR said: *they should ensure that they share relevant information as quick and as wide as possible* among the role-players. This suggestion coheres with the goals of teamwork in the TQM theory (cf. 2.5.3) and interactive relationships as explained in systems theory (cf. 2.5.4).

During data collection, the study found that CPD managers did communicate with the members in the organisation. As mentioned in section 4.3.2.2.3 of this study, a convergence of document analysis and interview data revealed that CPD managers communicated through notices, in the form of circulars, notifying the teachers to attend the training workshops and PSFs. A number of participants also disclosed that CPD managers also sent notices through mobile phone text messages. Nonetheless, most participants felt that the ways in which CPD managers communicated were inadequate. The majority of principals, HoDs and teachers in this study mentioned that they found the excessive use of sending notices via the medium of mobile text messages irritating and undermining to their respective roles in teacher's CPD for curriculum change implementation. They also expressed dissatisfaction around the short notices that were often sent on the eleventh hour. This study found that some of the notices were either sent by the AOs or received by the schools as short as five to two working days prior to the set dates of the training workshops and PSFs. In their

different focus groups, the principals concurred that the curriculum coordinators should call them to a discussion meeting, and later remind them through notices.

The workshops are organised haphazardly. This causes a lot of disruption to the free-flow of teaching and learning in our schools. At least if they can call principals to a meeting [to get their inputs] or send the notices in advance it will be better. We will know and make proper arrangements beforehand (HoD T1-DIT).

Several teachers and HoDs criticised the poor facilitation of information about the registration for the ACE. It was discovered that some of the notices concerning the teachers' registration for the ACE did not reach all schools and some were received by schools after the closing dates of the registrations. Teacher A1-MOR said:

I happened to know about the registration of ACE for English through a friend from Brits Area Office. Otherwise, I wouldn't have known until the registration closed. What was worse was that I had to drive all the way from Makapanstad to Tlhabane Resource Centre in Rustenburg for my registration. I had to go as soon as possible because the registration was closing the next day.

If a clear and participatory flow of information does not occur, then the role of CPD managers is prone to be complex. CPD managers that do not communicate effectively are likely to fail or demoralise their subordinates. Staff might miss or lose critical CPD opportunities due to poor communication. Furthermore, such CPD managers may damage their relationship with other role-players.

The participants maintained a view that communication should be participatory and clear in order to be effective. To this effect, they suggested that CPD managers should convene meetings with role-players to discuss the organisation of the relevant teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation programme or activity. In support of this, Ramphele (2000:30) maintains that participative management of an effective team provides extensive opportunities to ensure that the two-way communication takes place, rather than the subordinates being told what has been decided. Ideally, the teachers' union representatives should constitute such meetings to represent the voices of the teachers if such meetings are held at AO level. Concerning the value of the notices (circulars), the present researcher holds the opinion that they are not only important for administrative paper trail purposes, but should be sent to confirm the arrangements or changes thereof. Mainly, the notices should be sent for purposes of reminding schools about the agreed arrangements. To reiterate, it is imperative of CPD managers to ensure that the time for teachers'

CPD for curriculum change implementation should form an integral part of the AO and school year programmes (cf. 4.3.2.2.3).

4.3.2.5   Poor controlling of activities pertinent to teachers' CPD

Total Quality Management (cf. 2.5.3) and systems theory (cf. 2.5.4) emphasise the importance of excellence through continuous control of the operations. Hellriegel <u>et al.</u> (2008:415) state that the controlling process aims to detect and eliminate or minimise deviations from the original plans of the organisation. When controlling, CPD managers should focus on comparison of the actual performance against the predetermined goals set during the planning, to establish the success of the organisation in implementing a strategy (Hill & McShane, 2008:6; Bubb & Earley, 2007:30; Tomlinson, 2004:176).

Responses to the questions that sought to determine how CPD managers controlled the teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation suggest that the majority of participants were partially aware that controlling as the task of CPD managers should indicate the extent to which the goals set during the planning phase and the allocation of tasks and resources during the organising phase correspond with the actual outcomes. In all interviews, the participants emphasised controlling as the evaluation of the quality of the training workshops. This study, however, discovered some limitations concerning how the quality of the workshops was evaluated. In the first instance, the participants revealed lack of consistency concerning the period when the task was performed: some said they evaluated immediately after the training workshops were conducted; others carried out the task during their normal school visits; while some subject advisors abandoned the task completely. Second, the study found that regardless of being in the same province, the subject advisors used different instruments to evaluate the effectiveness of the training workshops. Lastly, the empirical investigation revealed that the results of the evaluation were not given the necessary attention at any level of the education system. Some of the pertinent remarks were:

At the end of the workshop teachers are given questionnaires for evaluation of the workshop. In my view, I don't think they were telling the truth, they will simply tell you that they have enjoyed the workshop, they have gained a lot but in reality the same feedback they are giving us, is not the same as the feedback they giving their unions (Subject advisor 1-MAH).

There is an evaluation form. When we go to school we are able to observe whether teachers are doing the right thing (Curriculum coordinator-2).

In a somewhat different perspective from the above comments, several subject advisors felt that the evaluation exercise was not worth the efforts. Some developed alternative methods to assess the

effectiveness of the workshops, and others had totally stopped the evaluation exercise. In this regard, some of the comments included:

At the beginning I used to evaluate them after the workshop, but the evaluation forms were not considered anywhere. As a result, I think it's just a waste of teachers' precious time (Subject advisor 2-MAH).

Before I used to give them evaluation forms but these days I count on their [verbal] responses. Usually at the end of the session I would have a session where they give comments or appreciations (Subject advisor 1-DIT).

In line with the above remarks, the curriculum coordinator in the following quotation revealed that the evaluation of the activities related to the teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was completely abandoned, yet it is very important.

Um, yes you know what, you train people on daily basis. If they don't go and implement, if they don't go and do practical activities, if they don't go….. But the problem with us is that we just train. There is no assessment, no evaluation… So um …. there is a lack. You can't teach without evaluating… You cannot just train, train, and train. Somewhere you must take a break and evaluate. You must check how far you are in terms of achieving the set goals (Curriculum coordinator-4).

In retrospect, a body of literature supports this finding (cf. 2.5.7.5.4). Davids (2009:11) and Church (in Church et al., 2010:45) concur that the control phase has not always been an easy task to most education managers. Rebore (2001:179) affirms that many of education managers find control to be a rather complicated task while others neglect it entirely. In a similar sentiment, Conco (2004:50) notes that the activity is often done poorly or not at all in most districts and schools. One reason for this is that managers assume training will work. Another is that a number of managers of training fear that an objective evaluation might reveal deficiencies (ibid). Despite being consistent with findings in other studies, the apparent disregard of the controlling function in this study is inexcusable. The multimodal conception of management used in this study suggests that in order for continuous quality improvement (enshrined in the TQM approach – cf. 2.5.3) to be achieved, CPD managers are required to provide feedback to the system as embraced in the systems theory (cf. 2.5.4).

The perceptible discrepancies about evaluation imply an indictment of CPD managers for not establishing proper control measures. Inadequate control systems may have major quality implications for future teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation training workshops and

other related interventions. The lack of effective controlling implies that the training workshop planners did not have proper feedback systems to determine the success or otherwise of the provided training from CPD managers. This flaw, if not adequately addressed, is likely to subject future training workshops to the same degree of inadequacy or failure as their predecessors (Steyn, 2010:157; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:59; Duthilleul, 2005:7; Bubb & Earley, 2007:22). In this way, it has the potential to continue the teachers' ineffectiveness in implementing curriculum change.

CPD managers can improve their controlling function by applying the following consecutive steps, derived from literature review (cf. 2.5.7.5):

- establish standards for measuring performance;
- measure the actual performance;
- compare actual performance against set standards;
- identify deviations;
- analyse causes of deviations;
- plan corrective measures; and,
- implement corrective measures.

When executing the controlling function, CPD managers should focus on establishing two main aspects: consistence or deviation from the predetermined goals and outcomes. Van Deventer (2008b:128) suggests that if the actual performance is consistent with the set goals, then no corrective measures need to be taken. If not, then CPD managers have to choose among three possible actions: the actual performance can be improved to reach the goals; strategies can be revised so as to reach the set goals; or performance standards can be lowered or raised to make them more realistic in view of prevailing conditions. However, if the discrepancy between the plans and the outcomes is too wide, CPD managers should consider embarking on the next management cycle (Allen in Van der Westhuizen, 2004:222). To this effect, the outcomes of controlling imply the starting point of the next management process (Smit et al., 2011:438).

From the above exposition, it emerged that in spite of being aware of the various tasks that CPD managers should perform, the majority of participants lacked depth and range in the outline of the specific activities and aspects involved in the actual execution of the abovementioned tasks. Based on these findings, the researcher concludes that CPD managers that lack basic understanding of what they are expected to do cannot be perceived as effective in their role. Such CPD managers may become prone to overlook certain responsibilities, perform them wrongly or even entirely omit them. Sallis (2008:80) suggests that educational managers that display limited knowledge of what

should constitute their role run the risk of damaging role-player relationships; losing or missing learning opportunities for teachers; and damaging the organisational culture. Ornstein and Hunkins (1998:292) inform us that many educational reforms fail when those in charge possess little or distorted understanding of innovative programmes at hand.

4.3.3   Barriers to managing teachers' CPD effectively and possible solutions to these barriers

This category outlines what the empirical investigation found as significant impediments to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and the potential techniques to tackle them. The goal is to address the third and fourth research objectives of this study: *to find out the nature of challenges, if any, that CPD managers encounter in their tasks; and to develop recommendations that can serve as guidelines to enhance the effectiveness of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum implementation at AO and school levels* (cf. 1.4). The study found that CPD managers do experience a plethora of challenges that impaired their effectiveness. Considering a wide range of the obstacles mentioned by the various participants, this section is not intended to be exhaustive, but rather to focus intensely on the major ones. These included, among others, limited training for CPD managers, shortage of resources to support teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, increasing workload, time constraints and teachers' change weariness. The discussions of these major challenges as well as the possible strategies that can be applied to overcome some of them ensue in the ensuing sections.

4.3.3.1   Limited training for CPD managers

This study discovered that all sampled CPD managers did not receive any specific training to ensure that they were familiar with and understand their role in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This condition is exacerbated by the consistent and unanimous evidence from the interview data that the assumption of duty in their different management positions was not complemented with relevant induction or guidance regarding the management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The facilitation of the training opportunities for the CPD managers is the responsibility of the relevant Human Resource Development (HRD) unit in the Province. The lack of specific training implies that the NWED had left CPD managers to their own devices to navigate how to carry out this important function. When asked to comment on the type of any pertinent training she received, Curriculum coordinator-3 said:

> We never had such training. We only have district branch meetings, which are concerned with sharing good practices.

The above opinion was supported by another curriculum coordinator who responded as follows:

No. We have meetings. We have Curriculum Forum meetings from the Province's side, which gives through information and expectations. So, it's up to us to manage them. So through that communication we know what is expected and what to do. So if you do something wrong you immediately know. So we learn through trial and error (Curriculum coordinator-4).

There was also consensus among the two categories of members of the SMTs, in their various focus group interviews, that they were not adequately trained to manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Such lack of training has caused a sense of bewilderment in most SMTs since they had to find the way to manage teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation by themselves. As the principal in the next quotation describes, the long-lasting lack of such training had led many sampled HoDs and principals into a belief that the education authorities at her AO were not knowledgeable about what managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was all about.

Ahh, no. I've been a principal in this area office since 2001. I have never attended any training or meeting where we were guided on how to manage the introduction of OBE, not to mention teacher development. That [managing teacher's CPD] I don't think there is anyone at the area office who can train us about it. They should start by training us about how to manage the new curriculum first (Principal A2-DIT).

Different from the experience of the above principal, several HoDs, in their different focus group interviews, indicated that there were induction workshops conducted by the Education Management and Governance Division (EMGD) in their different AOs. HoD L2-MOR said: *unlike us, the newly appointed HoDs attend induction workshops organised by the EMGD.* The study, however, found that the said induction workshops did not provide any lessons concerning managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, albeit limited to the general administrative and management tasks of the SMTs. A pertinent comment by one HoD who attended the EMGD induction workshop was:

I went to an induction workshop in 2011 after being promoted in 2007 as HoD. I had expected the EMGD guys to train us about how to manage CAPS, but nothing. Their focus was rather on things like leave management, corporal punishment, SGBs and education laws in general. Not much was said about the new curriculum and how to manage it [its implementation] at school.

The review of related literature ties with the views and experiences of the participants regarding CPD managers' lack of professional development related to their role (cf. 2.6.1). Mizell (2010:7), Nzimande and Matheson (in Faleni, 2005:36) and Mestry and Grobler (2002:21) concur that most

education managers are seldom prepared for tasks they must undertake and are rarely given adequate training and support to perform these tasks. Mulkeen <u>et al.</u> (2005:34) observe that most professional development opportunities that principals, in particular, undergo are often brief and focused on administrative tasks.

Inadequate training for CPD managers has serious implications for the quality of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Most importantly, the overwhelming majority of participants revealed that this limitation formed a web of other obstacles that impeded most CPD managers to effectively discharge their role. Among others, the consequent impediments to inadequate training included role ambiguity and lack of role ownership, ignorance about the policies that guide teachers' CPD, inadequate management of the implementation of the teachers' Developmental Appraisal, lack of school-based teachers' CPD activities for curriculum change implementation. These facets are discussed next.

4.3.3.1.1 CPD managers' role ambiguity and lack of role collective ownership

Analysis of the interview data revealed divergent degrees of role assertiveness among the three categories of CPD managers (i.e. the curriculum coordinators, principals and HoDs) in this study, owing to limited training. Concerning the curriculum coordinators, the study found that most of them displayed role ambiguity. The majority of them lacked clarity in their accounts of the specific tasks they carried out or were expected to carry out concerning when managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Apposite comments in this regard included:

[My role] is to prepare roll out plans for teacher training programmes. And also to come up with budget, make an audit of teacher training needs in particular areas and also ensure that there are refresher workshop (Curriculum coordinator-1).

But I don't blame them per se because they have not been trained. There are no clear guidelines as for what they must do. Yes there is job description, but it is not clarified. They are running so many programmes (Subject advisor 1-DIT).

Combined with elements of role ambiguity, the two structures in the SMTs in this study held divergent views concerning ownership of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Empirical data evinces that one category of the SMTs, that of the principals', acknowledged managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation as one of their basic responsibilities, despite the fact that they lacked the necessary knowledge and expertise (cf. 4.2). Conversely, the majority of HoDs perceived this role as a "bolt-on" to their core responsibility of teaching and supervising teachers. During data collection, a great number of HoDs showed aversion

to the role of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change. They did not regard managing CPD of teachers for the implementation of curriculum change as part of their primary instructional leadership and management responsibilities.

HoD T1-RUS described this role as *a complex task*, which must be done by the departmental officials through the AOs *because they have time and they are trained for it*. There was also a concurrent view among some HoDs that CPD for curriculum change does not necessarily require management as teachers' engagements in such interventions were solely for individual teachers' own benefits. One HoD remarked:

> *Professional development is the business of individual teachers…. We can't force them to develop themselves. If they don't want to or they don't have interest there is nothing anyone of us or the principal can do. Obviously, they can't dodge workshops at the area office. So it is the department that has power to subject teacher to professional development.*

The problem of lack of clarity about role and responsibilities and the lack of role collective ownership emanating from limited training is consistent with the findings in the literature review (cf. 2.6.2). In their related study, Mafora and Phorabatho (2012:210) identified the prevalence of the perceived role ambiguity among many members of SMTs and AO officials. Similarly, the Department of Basic Education (2009:58) asserts that recent large-scale research has shown that SMTs do not regard the management of the curriculum as their primary responsibility. Ramparsad (in Ndou 2008:5) explains that most SMT members were not clear on what to manage because they were not given practical guidelines for managing the implementation of curriculum change, neither were they workshopped sufficiently on the challenges in the new curriculum implementation at school level.

CPD managers that exhibit role uncertainty imply that they have limited understanding of what actually constitutes their role. Mafora and Phorabatho (2011:211) conclude that such managers cannot be seen as effective in carrying out their responsibility. Often, they may continue to do wrong things, overlook or entirely ignore to discharge critical responsibility. Consequently, they may end up jeopardising the processes involved in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

Furthermore, the SMTs' display of divergent or rather contrasting views concerning ownership of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation has major implications for their sense of unity of purpose. It is expected that the different categories in SMTs should be committed to the purpose of their establishment as a management structure. According to Mafora and Phorabatho (2011:214), the establishment of SMT is intended to collectively facilitate activities that

involve, among others, planning, organising, controlling and evaluation in a school as an organisation. The lack of cohesion and collective ownership implies that the concerned CPD managers do not have shared vision concerning teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. SMTs that do not share a common vision concerning the growth of their organisations are inclined to experience structural problems which might lead to unwarranted divisions. Conveniently, some HoDs in particular, may abandon their responsibilities role, and thereby, leaving the principals to play a prominent role. This has a potential to incite blame games, rather than accountability among SMTs, particularly when things go awry. It further becomes discernible that SMTs that possess disparate opinions regarding ownership of their role are more likely to perpetuate, rather than collectively deal with possible impediments to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

Against the findings elucidated above, it is imperative for the NWED to arrange for CPD managers specific training that provides not only greater clarity around their precise role, but also the necessary skills to carry out the task successfully. To tackle the issue of lack of role collective ownership, SMTs should apply participative management approach. To reiterate, the significance of adopting a participative management approach to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was discussed earlier in this study (cf. 2.5.7.1.3).

4.3.3.1.2 Ignorance about the policies that guide teachers' CPD

Data collection revealed that all participants were not aware of any policy or legislation that guides teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Illustrative responses from different categories of participants in this regard included the following:

No I am not aware of any policy concerning teacher development. My school was sampled for pilot study of something CPTD points. Up 'til today I can't tell you what it was all about. We attended two or three meetings in 2010 but ever since they are quite…. Ja (sic) …. May be we can get the provincial policy when we go for training. I don't know when. But at school level we don't have such policies. I don't think there is such a policy in our area office (Principal A1-MOR).

We use whatever we think we can use just for the sake of development of the educator. But the issue of having a stringent CPD policy around here we don't necessarily…. We have but we don't necessarily follow it. We just do situational… (Curriculum coordinator-2)

The blatant ignorance of relevant policies and legislation on the part of CPD managers has major implications for the effectiveness of their role. The ignorance of relevant policies may predispose most of the selected CPD managers to:

- Failure to ascertain norms and standards among the providers of teacher development programmes;

- Failure to diagnose teachers' real CPD needs for curriculum change implementation and to draw up a programme for professional development based on such needs. In so doing, they are inclined to perpetuate the adoption of inadequate needs assessment strategies such learner performance (cf. 4.3.2.2.1) to determine what teachers need to be trained on concerning the implementation of curriculum change;

- Indecisiveness when it comes to the selection of suitable time for teachers' CPD activities. Consequently, pursuing ideas of organising activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in the afternoons of normal working days; disregarding inevitable disruptions such arrangements usually cause in schools (Nonkonyana, 2009:70; Day & Sachs, 2004:80; Chisholm, 2000:89)s, and that the fact that teachers would be exhausted from the classroom in the morning when attending the twilight CPD activities;

- Denying teachers the opportunity provided by the Employment of Educators Act (1998) to learn (cf. 2.4.4) by unknowingly refusing them leave of absence to attend professional development activities; and,

- Failure to institute relevant disciplinary measures against recalcitrant teachers that without justifiable cause refuse to undertake or attend programmes and activities sought to improve their professional development for curriculum change implementation.

Deriving from the above exposition, it is evident that the lack of knowledge of the CPD-related policies, if left unattended, could constrain the effectiveness of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Therefore, CPD managers require rigorous targeted training on policies that pertain to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Such training should emphasise the significance of the individual policies to the role of CPD managers. Furthermore, the researcher suggests that CPD managers should take initiatives to familiarise themselves with a number of relevant pieces of legislation and policy documents in order to make sound decisions concerning the management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The most critical of these, as elucidated in section 2.4 of this study, include: Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE) (2000); National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) (2006); and Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) (2003).

4.3.3.1.3   Inadequate management of the implementation of the teachers' Developmental Appraisal

The empirical investigation also indicated that due to limited training, many CPD managers in this study were unable to manage the implementation of teachers' Developmental Appraisal at AO and school levels effectively. Such inadequate training was reported to have resulted in the SMTs providing the teachers with insufficient guidance regarding the purposes of Developmental Appraisal. As a result, many teachers tended to collude with their support groups by manipulating the scores in the interest of securing monetary incentives in the form of pay progression. Some of the pertinent comments made included:

Nobody doesn't need money (sic). *So [the] IQMS gives the teachers the opportunity for pay progression. As principals we find it difficult to oppose some of the unrealistically high scores. And this helps. One doesn't find himself losing favours with unions because he has denied their member a chance to one percent pay progression* (Principal A1-DIT).

It may seem as if they do it for money [monetary] gains, that is, the one percent increment and no other purpose (Curriculum coordinator-4).

Actions of this nature are likely to misguide those that are expected to give developmental support. Ironically, it emerged from analysis of the interview data that the envisaged development support required by the teachers, both from the school and AO levels, has not been forthcoming. This led many participants to severely criticise the significance of implementing the Developmental Appraisal system. Some of the condemnations captured during the interviews included:

The IQMS [Developmental Appraisal] in general is just a time wasting academic exercise, which the schools do just for the sake of doing it (Principal T2-MOR).

The IQMS process does not help. They [district official] don't go back to schools and check them. The process is more about evaluation and no development. It's just about identifying, identifying but there's intervention on what has been identified (Curriculum coordinator-2).

The SIPs are not considered. There is no synergy between IQMS coordinators and subject specialists. To be honest with you [as] subject specialists [we] are in the dark about SIPs (Subject advisor 1- DIT).

The above remarks suggest that the appraisal process has degenerated into an exercise in futility in the selected AOs and secondary schools. The finding of inadequate management of teachers' Developmental Appraisal system is supported by literature. In a study about the implementation of

the Developmental Appraisal carried out at the Matlosana AO in the North West Province, Letlhoo (2011:59) found that the management of Developmental Appraisal at AO level was not effective. Similarly, Biputh (2008:190) expresses a concern that the *discourse of compliance* has led many managers in education to overlook the main goal of the implementation of the Development Appraisal.

The poor management of the Developmental Appraisal has major implications for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Needless to say, any teachers' CPD activity based on unrealistic Developmental Appraisal outcomes is destined to fail in its tracts. Although not condonable, it can be assumed that this inadequate management had led most external planners of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation to deliberately disregard the value of the Developmental Appraisal outcomes. The perpetuation of such mismanagement may, in most probable terms, lead to the collapse of the Developmental Appraisal as teachers and other role-players may not see its greater sense of purpose and worth.

To tackle the problem of inadequate management of the implementation of the Developmental Appraisal, this study suggests that CPD managers should first own up and take responsibility of the relevant processes involved, with the view of bringing the purposes of Developmental Appraisal to fruition. In accordance with Biputh's (2008:236) recommendation, the teachers' Developmental Appraisal outcomes should first be addressed at school level, where possible. Where further support is required by teachers, this should be provided by AOs. Most importantly, this study suggests that CPD managers should receive specific training on how to manage the implementation of Developmental Appraisal at their respective levels.

4.3.3.1.4 Lack of school-based teachers' CPD activities for curriculum change implementation

The empirical evidence also revealed that there were no school-based activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation organised in the identified secondary schools. During data collection, no participant mentioned or even implied that any of the sampled schools organised programmes or activities sought to capacitate teachers for curriculum change implementation. Instead, reference was frequently made to the CPD interventions provided at the AOs. Analysis of the interview data suggested that the lack of school-based activities concerning teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was attributable to inadequate training of the SMTs, as CPD managers. Several participants believed that most members of the SMTs were lacking in the practical knowledge and ability to initiate and maintain the activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. In response to a question that sought to determine the methods

of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation available at their schools, the following participants said:

… *teacher development* is *almost non-existent in our school. We only attend workshops at APO [now AO]. Oh, yes… some have registered for [the] ACE* (Teacher L1-MOR).

The fact that teacher development opportunities are there at school level is just lip-service, we don't actually have them (HoD L2-RUS).

The lack of school-based teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was also found in previous studies (cf. 2.3.2.5). In his related study, Ramolefe (2004:51), for instance, discovered that SMTs did not bother to organise school-based workshops following district teacher development sessions on OBE. This, in many respects, contradicts the views of Mulkeen et al. (2005:26) who suggest that in order to be effective, any external form of teachers' CPD for curriculum change requires considerable follow-through and support by means of school-based workshops, seminars, and other means of sharing experiential knowledge and mutual support.

The foregoing exposition has shown lack of training as one of the main barriers to effective management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This finding is consistent with the previous related studies (cf. 2.6.1). Notably, Msila and Mtshali (2011:1), Mestry and Grobler (2002:21) and Fullan (in Geel, 2005:42) concur that many CPD managers are often not well prepared for the tasks they must undertake and are not supported with adequate training to equip them with the necessary knowledge and skills to perform their functions effectively. The present researcher believes that most of the impediments stemming from inadequate training can be minimised by greater awareness on the part of the NWED that such obstacles exist, and providing CPD managers with targeted and meaningful training. Such meaningful training should empower CPD managers with not only greater clarity around their precise role, but also providing them with the necessary skills to carry out their tasks successfully.

The next section explores the impact of shortage of resources as another impediment to managing CPD successfully.

4.3.3.2   Shortage of relevant resources

During data collection, it was revealed that CPD managers experienced the problem of limited resources. Although the shortage varied in degrees of severity, the majority of participants indicated that their AOs and schools were lacking in the following CPD-related resources: suitable

accommodation, and relevant instructional aids and official means of transport. These are discussed in detail in the next sections.

4.3.3.2.1 Lack of suitable accommodation

The empirical study showed that many AOs in this study did not have adequate and appropriate accommodation for the provision of activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Consequently, such activities were conducted in some schools. This is consistent with the essence of contingency theory (cf. 2.5.5). Nonetheless, the majority of the participants revealed that the venues were not suitable for teachers' learning. The most significant challenges mentioned included difficulty to access - especially on public transport; distraction-fraught environment; lack of basic facilities such as water, power and sanitation; and, insufficient sitting accommodation for the number of teachers attending the training workshops - resulting from shortage of chairs and tables; overcrowding and poor ventilation. The following three were among the comments captured concerning the CPD venues during data collection:

The venues that we used also were not conducive. In some instances, three subjects were accommodated in the same hall, one at that corner, the other at that corner (Subject advisor 1-MAH).

Our workshops are usually held at [a certain] primary school. The conditions there are not suitable. There is no proper ventilation. Some of the chairs and tables we use are meant for junior primary school kids. It is noisy. During (school) break and after school it is worse. So, you can't really pay attention to the subject advisor for a long time (Teacher T2 - MOR).

We attended our workshops in a classroom in one of the schools in our circuit. We filled the classroom to capacity… it was very hot. So, it was very difficult to concentrate for a long time on what was being said. What made matters worse, because of the issues of space, the classroom did not have tables. As a result, it was very difficult to take the notes…. (Teacher L2-MAH).

The findings on the lack of suitable accommodation for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in this study are consistent with related literature. In his thesis about the effectiveness of in-service training in rural school contexts, Conco (2004:80) also discovered that the condition under which the teachers were offered training workshops for curriculum change implementation was non-conducive, as the teachers were crammed into a small lecture hall. The Department of Education (2007:12) acknowledges that the pervasiveness of this limitation when stating that poor infrastructure and facilities for teachers' CPD still persist even after many years since the demise of the apartheid government in South Africa. Davids (2009:6) makes us aware that

the problem of delivering training workshops for curriculum change implementation at unsuitable venues is most keenly felt in rural areas and townships where there is grave shortage of teacher development centres, poor infrastructure and facilities. In endorsing the existence of this problem, Dean (1991:72) suggests that school premises may not always be available for the use of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

The provision of teachers' CPD in venues that reflect poor physical conditions has serious implications for the quality of teachers' learning. Instead of facilitating teachers' reception and conception of the new curriculum, the unsuitable venues are likely to elicit their negative attitude towards future CPD activities. Furthermore, the goals of teachers' CPD for curriculum change are unlikely to obtain under such poor physical conditions.

Reality-checks revealed that there is not enough to what CPD managers alone can do to improve the conditions of the venues used to accommodate the delivery of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in the sampled AOs. Besides, the interview data revealed that CPD managers have little to do with building infrastructure, especially for CPD purposes. Regardless of the above restriction, they should improve the issue of teachers' accessibility to the designated venues; tackle distractions caused by learners in the host schools; and ensure that the availability of potable water.

Concerning, the building conditions and other structural matters, the researcher suggests that they should solicit support from the NWED to face-lift the available venues in the AOs and designated schools to suit the facilitation of activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. As a long term solution, this study suggests that the NWED should establish Institutes for Continuing Professional Development of Teachers in each district. The ideal institutes should be sufficiently resourced and staffed. They should also be easily accessible to teachers. To this end, the unutilised or under-utilised buildings of former Colleges of Education in the Province should be utilised. Moreover, many of them had essential attributes such as residential facilities and easy access through public transport. The Department of Education (2011:13) indicates that in 2011 there were a total of 75 teacher development institutes and education resource centres across South Africa. During data collection, none of the participants mentioned the existence of such institutes in the North West Province. This implies that the Province should soon follow suit.

4.3.3.2.2   Paucity of instructional aids and official means of transport

The researcher discovered that the effectiveness of most CPD managers was also hampered by the shortage of instructional aids and official means of transport. The interview data revealed that there were inadequate laptops, data projectors and screens in all the sampled AOs to support the

facilitation of programmes and activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The reported shortage ranged from inadequacy to total unavailability and varied from one research site to another. Regardless of the variations, the lack of the above resources reportedly had adverse impact on the quality of teachers' learning. Nonetheless, the study found that as an interim measure, the curriculum coordinators pursued the idea of borrowing from the schools. The following quotation encapsulates the above views:

We are always struggling with resources. For example transport is always the issue. Um, data projectors, we don't have [enough] data projectors. We have in this AO one data projector, the laptops…. It's always a problem with resources. Currently we don't have [duplicating] paper, most parts of the year we don't have a photocopier. We always request schools to borrow [us]. And it's very bad. We are always on our knees. If we had resources it was going to be so much easier to do our jobs (Curriculum coordinator-4).

In the above comments, the participant also accentuated the lack of official means of transport as another barrier linked to the shortage of resources. Several subject advisors claimed that they failed to provide school-based follow-up support and monitoring owing to the shortage of official means of transport. They revealed that the issue was around the bureaucratic processes to access such means of transport. It could be deduced from some of their responses that the authorities did not necessarily give the subject advisors priority when allocating the official means of transport. The current situation is succinctly related in the following comments:

Not everyone has transport. We share. We are about eleven with five subsidy cars. Sharing of transport is a problem because you have to plan according to someone else's plans. When there are emergencies it means both plans fail. We end up not supporting schools as we want to (Subject advisor 1- DIT).

This finding contradicts the principles of teamwork in the TQM approach and interactive relationships in systems theory, which require the various units of the provincial education system involved in teachers' CPD to synergise their behavioural and cultural components so that they work together as a whole. Pheng and Teo (2004:11) maintain that the top management should support the TQM approach through the allocation of budget for the procurement and provision of the requisite resources at the beginning of implementation. The above authors aptly argue that if it is clear that top management was committed to the programmes through implementing the TQM approach, subordinates would naturally follow suit.

The shortage of resources and official means of transport has implications for managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Overall, the shortage of such resources militates against two of the major mandates of the subject advisors in the North West Province. As outlined in section 1.2 of this study, the subject advisors have a role to train teachers for the implementation of curriculum; and also to provide school-based curriculum implementation support to teachers. It, therefore, becomes discernible that without the above resources, the subject advisors are unlikely to be effective in facilitating teachers' training for curriculum change implementation and providing school-based follow-up support. Again, such shortage is most likely to contribute to the affected subject advisors' job dissatisfaction. Inevitably, the lack of resources would have adverse effects on the learning of teachers. Consequently, the goal of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is most unlikely to be addressed effectively.

The researcher holds the view that the lack of resources is likely to continue unabated in most of the identified research sites. During the study there was no clear notion of accountability from CPD managers for the lack of resources. In actual fact, none of the curriculum coordinators suggested the procurement of such resources as their responsibility. This may suggest the lack of interest or ideas on the part of the curriculum coordinators to deal with this problem directly. Their common indifference towards tackling this challenge was suggestive of the view that many curriculum coordinators tend to have accepted the problem as part of their professional life.

The problem of limited resources to support the delivery of CPD activities was also found in other related studies (cf. 2.6.3). Bubb and Earley (2007:29) mention that CPD of teachers is not always prioritised and adequately resourced in most education systems. In a concurrent view, Brew (in Lethoko, 2002:1) and Rothman (1996:78) remind us that the provision of adequate and relevant resources for CPD to township and rural schools was negligible under the old apartheid regime. Nonetheless, it still persists even after many years since the demise of the apartheid government (Department of Education, 2007:12). Phorabatho (2010:107) suggests that the majority of subject advisors in the North West Province are unable to provide on-site and follow up support to teachers due to lack of transport.

To minimise the problem of shortage of resources such as laptops, data projectors and screens, CPD managers should approach NGOs, donor agencies, foundation, etc. (Geiger in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:127). Furthermore, Archibald et al. (2011:13) suggest that CPD managers may consider a strategy of reallocation of resources from other units that do not specifically aim to improve the quality of curriculum change implementation to purchase the requisite resources.

While the shortage of resource made managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation a complex task, there was also mounting evidence from the collected data to suggest that the role was impeded by the problem of finding the right day or time for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This barrier and its implications are discussed in the subsequent section.

4.3.3.3   Difficulties of finding suitable day and time for teachers' CPD

Another important challenge faced by CPD managers was finding a suitable time in the demanding life of teacher to organise teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The analysis of the interview data indicated that this problem was quite a mystery to all CPD managers in this study. They showed a lot of confusion over whether to organise such activities in the afternoon of regular working days, at the weekends or during the holidays. It appeared that much of their confusion stemmed from the unavailability of teachers due to excessive professional and personal commitments. This study found that in many of the identified schools, teachers taught at least two different subjects in two or more grades and classes. In addition to that, they were required by the local education authorities to go an extra mile by conducting afternoon, weekend and school vacation classes. Moreover, it was revealed that teachers in the selected schools marked the learners' termly examination scripts during school holidays. Conversely, the majority of participants revealed that teachers had serious aversion to attending activities related to their CPD for curriculum change implementation in the afternoons, at the weekends and during school vacations. They regarded the above periods as their time to address personal commitments. The above inferences were drawn from comments such as:

I can't really say what the best time to organise the workshops. If it is during the week, we are being criticised for stealing the learners protected time, and by that we also defeat the ends of our own work schedules. In the afternoons, the teachers are complaining that they are tired. Some are genuine in this. You will find a teacher literally sleeping during the PSFs. During the holidays, the teachers are untouchable. The unions fight viciously saying [that] the teachers are on leave during that period (Curriculum coordinator-2).

I teach three classes of LO and four of English. Two of my English classes are in grade 12. During March holidays I usually mark NATED [old syllabus offered at ABET Centres] Examination scripts. At the same time, I must mark my own learners' quarterly exam scripts. From there in June, I teach at the matric vacation camps organised by the department for a

week then come back and join the winter vacation classes at our school for another week and a half. I did that for the past two years and this year as well… (Teacher T1-MAH).

The above views, in short, imply that the teacher's daily life offers limited time upon which CPD opportunities may be planned. Confusion over appropriate time to hold activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation were reported in the existing literature (cf. 2.3.2.4). Various scholars uphold two divergent opinions regarding this matter. One category espouses teacher's CPD activities that are held at the weekends and during school holidays (Engelbrecht, 2008:50; Nonkonyana, 2009:70; Day & Sachs, 2004:80; Chisholm et al., 2005:3; Chisholm, 2000:89). The other group of scholars advocates the idea of giving teachers time for CPD activities within regular working days (Mizell, 2010:7; Masoge, 2008:175). The existence of these contending views is not intended to deepen the confusion of CPD managers further.

Related literature suggests ways to allay the perceptible confusion. First and foremost, CPD managers should be aware that as part of their conditions of service, the teachers are obligated to attend CPD activities organised or sponsored by the department, up to a maximum of 80 hours per annum (Employment of Educators Act in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C63). This provision suggests that CPD managers should organise related programmes to be conducted outside the formal school day or during weekends and school holidays, notwithstanding similar research findings concerning teachers' aversions to this approach (cf. 2.3.2.4). The point is to avoid interrupting the teaching and learning processes and calls for the undivided attention of teachers (Chisholm, 2000:89). In terms of this approach, teachers are not required to sacrifice their free time after hours when they are tired of teaching to attend CPD lessons (Engelbrecht, 2008:50; Nonkonyana, 2009:70).

In addition to the weekends and school holidays, the literature suggests that CPD managers should allow teachers to attend CPD activities related to curriculum change implementation during regular school days (cf. 2.3.2.4). Similarly, the Employment of Educators Act (Brunton & Associates, 2003:C128) states that the teachers qualify for leave of absence, which may not exceed three working days per year, during normal teaching-learning contact time to participate in professional development activities. In order to circumvent possible misconceptions, the present researcher wishes to highlight the point of view that CPD managers should not perceive this provision as an alternative, but rather as complementary to the approach of conducting CPD activities outside normal school days. In this regard, CPD managers should structure a regular school day per term to allow the release of a certain portion of teachers to attend CPD activities on certain days. Since a part of the teachers will be attending well-organised CPD activities, it is

assumed that such interventions may not cause unwarranted disruption in schools. Masoge (2008:175) emphasises that, for this approach to be effective, CPD managers should inform the SGBs, parents, district officials, teacher unions and community groups of the necessity for rescheduling.

Another strategy to tackle the noticeable confusion about the timing of teachers' CPD is through implanting CPD for curriculum change in the daily work of the teachers. Clarke (2008:131) suggests that CPD should be an integral part of teachers' professional lives, and not just remediation which implies that teachers are not doing their job adequately. Mizell (2010:7) and Masoge (2008:176) contend that when CPD constitutes the school day, all teachers may be encouraged to engage in growth, rather than learning being limited to those who volunteer to participate on their own. In support of the above contention, the researcher believes that job-embedded CPD for curriculum change implementation is capable to provide opportunities for collaboration among teachers, which, according to Archibald et al. (2011:5), is an effective way to generate high-quality professional learning.

The ensuing section focuses on work overload of CPD managers as another major impediment.

4.3.3.4   CPD managers' work overload

The empirical evidence showed that work overload on the part of CPD managers as another major impediment to discharging their role effectively. This problem seemed to be felt more by the members of SMTs than curriculum coordinators in this study. The majority of HoDs and principals, in their different homogeneous focus group interviews, stressed that they were experiencing heavy teaching and administrative workloads as a result of the on-going processes of the government to improve the post-1994 education system. Consequently, they found it extremely difficult to devote time to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Reflecting their heavy workloads, these participants remarked:

Being a principal in a small school is not worth. The new curriculum is demanding. I have three classes: one for Geography and two for LO [Life Orientation]. I also head the Humanities subjects. So, I prepare lessons, teach, assess my learners, mark, record their marks and compile the marks for CASS [continuous assessment] and for the reports at the end of the term. At the same time I moderate the term tests, learners' scripts, and compilation of CASS marks of the teachers in my department. I also ensure that parents get their children's report cards at the end of each term. Over and above that, I must make sure that I arrange Saturday and vacation classes. So there is no time for me and my teachers (Principal L2-MAH).

It is tough for us. You know there are so many things that battle for our attention. Often these things keep us away from classroom business. We are no longer just school principals. To mention but a few, some of us have heavy teaching workload, in addition to that we are expected to manage the Resolution 2, IQMS, learner feeding scheme, QLTC [Quality of Learning and Teaching Campaign] and rationalisation of schools at the same time as the ever-changing curriculum. We are always called for meetings at the AO to discuss these things. So, where do we get time for teacher development in our schools? The department must come to the party (Principal L1-MOR).

This study's finding of limited time for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation owing to work overload of CPD managers is consistent with the review of literature (cf. 2.6.3.3). A number of scholars agree that SMTs face a lot of onerous administrative responsibilities and accountability that often erode their time for managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:214; Chisholm et al., 2005:141; Robins & Barnwell, 2002:295).

The literature review is devoid of plausible solutions to work overload of CPD managers that result from systemic reforms. Nonetheless, the present researcher suggests that CPD managers should delegate some of their tasks and responsibilities to capable subordinates. In this way, they may have time to focus on carrying out their role effectively.

Teachers' symptoms of change weariness also emanated from the empirical data as a challenge to CPD managers. This impediment is discussed in the next section.

4.3.3.5 Teachers' change weariness

The majority of participants mentioned change weariness on the part of teachers as another major hindrance to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change. In confirming this finding, Principal T2-MOR responded: *Teachers are tired of change.* It was discovered that the rapidity of curriculum reform and the resultant rushed implementation caused many teachers and some members of the SMTs from the selected schools to lose confidence in the certainty of what it was that they were supposed to do. In this regard, Teacher T1-DIT said: *I no longer know what I should do or not do. Today is this, tomorrow is that, especially about assessment*. Some participants revealed that due to a history of radical curriculum changes in this country, they experienced hidden resistance and recalcitrant behaviour in some teachers, especially the most experienced teachers. In the next quotation, one HOD related her encounter with a teacher who was lethargic towards activities associated with teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation because of the rapidity of curriculum reforms:

I head one elderly teacher. He looks very tired and no longer wants to learn anything anymore. You can tell from how he prepares his lessons, his teaching methods and how he marks the learners' work. He still believes in the stick as a way to discipline learners. He will tell you that he has been through many changes: Bantu Education, PEUP of the then Bophuthatswana, NATED 550, OBE, RNCS, NCS and now CAPS (HoD L2 MOR).

The problem of teachers' lack of enthusiasm to participate in CPD has been reported in previous literature. In further literature review, Parker (in Robins & Barnwell, 2002:295) cautions that the goals of the new curriculum are unlikely to be met if those who are responsible for its implementation are experiencing "systemic fatigue". The literature abounds with possible causes for teachers' lack of interest in CPD activities. These may include perception of CPD activities as a waste of time (McCarthy, 2006:45; Fullan, 2001:315), the lack of significant rewards (Day & Sachs, 2004:81) and policy overload (Robins & Barnwell, 2002:295).

What the practical solution to the challenge of teachers who display change weariness is, remains a mystery in the literature. Nonetheless, although the outcomes might be modest, the researcher suggests that CPD managers may rekindle and sustain such teachers' interest in CPD for curriculum change implementation through the deployment of participative management approach and motivation. The advantages of the above variables to managing the CPD for curriculum change implementation were extensively explained in the preceding sections 4.3.2.1.2 and 4.3.2.4.4 of this study.

The discussions in this subcategory included a few of the problems facing the CPD. Nonetheless, based on the best data collected, they seem to be the major ones. Most significantly, the intensity of these challenges raised further questions about the ability of CPD managers to discharge their tasks successfully. Moreover, most of what the CPD managers apply seems to contradict the management theories that underpin this study (cf. 2.5.3; 2.5.4; 2.5.5 & 2.5.6). Doubts about the effectiveness of CPD managers were, nevertheless, initially cast in section 4.3.2 of this study. It cannot, however, be expected of CPD managers to be effective when they grapple with limited understanding and skills about the core of their functions in practice. Exacerbating the situation is the finding that CPD managers experience a plethora of impediments. Moreover, the interview data revealed that most of the challenges remain insoluble at AO and school levels. Hence, they are likely to perpetuate the general poor quality of the organising and presenting CPD initiatives in the concerned sites. While these situations presented in this section do not necessarily obtain in all the AOs and secondary schools in the North West Province, there is substantial evidence to suggest that these problems could persist in some degree in districts where (managing) teacher development is not effective.

A summary of the above findings follows in the next section.

4.4   SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

This study found that the teachers, subject advisors, HoDs, principals and curriculum coordinators had notable conception of the constituent elements of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.1). It was discovered that their conceptions in this regard were supported in the literature review.

Another important finding in this study was that the participants had limited understanding of what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs, as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.2). They appeared to be unaware or adhering to no particular management theory and or a combination thereof. During data collection, some of the participants went as far as disclosing that they were not aware that CPD managers were required to follow a set of formal processes of management in order to bring about teachers' CPD of better quality. Based on the findings, the researcher concluded that CPD managers that lack basic understanding of what they are expected to do cannot be perceived as effective in their role.

The empirical investigation also illuminated a litany of practical challenges faced by CPD managers at Mahikeng, Ditsobotla, Rustenburg and Moretele AOs and selected secondary schools (cf. 4.3.3). Among the most significant impediments, the following were enumerated and discussed:

- The inadequate training for CPD managers (cf. 4.3.3.1)

The intensity of this challenge was evidenced by the participants' consistent attribution to it of other identified problems such as CPD managers' role ambiguity and lack of role collective ownership (cf. 4.3.3.1.1); ignorance about the relevant CPD policies (cf. 4.3.3.1.2); inadequate management of teachers' Developmental Appraisal (cf. 4.3.3.1.3); and lack of school-based activities concerning teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.3.1.4).

- The shortage of relevant resources (cf. 4.3.3.2)

Analysis of the collected data revealed that this problem was dual-faceted in nature. The study found that managing teachers' CPD in the sampled research sites was beset by the lack of suitable accommodation (cf. 4.3.3.2.1); and paucity of instructional aids and official means of transport (cf. 4.3.3.2.2). In spite of being aware of the above problems, the study found that the majority of identified CPD managers pursued no workable means to tackle them. Instead, the empirical evidence indicated that many of them used the adapting tactics such as borrowing from schools equipment such as laptops, data projectors and screens. The interview data indicated that the stifling bureaucratic processes made it difficult for CPD managers to overcome the above problems.

- Finding suitable day and time for teachers' CPD (cf. 4.3.3.3)

The empirical data evinced that CPD managers found it difficult to decide about a suitable day or time to organise teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Specifically, CPD managers were puzzled as to whether to organise such during or outside regular school days. The teachers' hectic professional and personal commitments were presented as the crux of the matter.

- Work overload for CPD managers (cf. 4.3.3.4)

The study found that the selected CPD managers and teachers were facing heavy workload, which inevitably eroded their time for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

- Teachers' change weariness (cf. 4.3.3.5)

The study found that the rapidity of curriculum reform and subsequent radical implementation caused many of the sampled teachers and some members of the SMTs to lose confidence and certainty of what it was that they were supposed to do. As a result they were no longer felt enthusiastic to learn anything new anymore. Consequently, they were seen as lethargic and lacking enthusiasm towards their CPD for curriculum change implementation.

To fulfil its main aim of this study (cf. 1.4), this chapter provided guidelines in every aspect where the participants showed lack of knowledge. The guidelines were also provided as strategies to tackle the majority of the abovementioned challenges, one by one.

4.5   CONCLUSION

This chapter presented and discussed the results of the empirical study. Tesch's open coding method was used to analyse the collected data. The presentation of the findings was structured into three main categories: conceptions of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation; understanding of the role of CPD managers; and barriers to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Emanating from the above categories, relevant subcategories were identified and described.

The next chapter provides a general overview of this study, summary of the key findings and recommendations drawn from the key findings of this study. The limitations of this study, possible areas for further study, and conclusion are also provided in the ensuing chapter.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented and discussed the data that emerged from the empirical study. The purpose of this concluding chapter is to summarise the study. To this end, the current chapter presents a general overview of the preceding chapters, a summary of the key findings and conclusions emanating from the key findings of this study. These are followed by recommendations for the effective management of teachers' CPD in relation to curriculum change implementation. The important limitations to this study are identified and possible areas for further research conclude this chapter. These aspects are discussed sequentially in the next sections.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS ONE TO FOUR

This study was organised into five chapters. This section presents a summary of each chapter.

Chapter one provided the basis for the current study. It succinctly introduced the argument (cf. 1.1), stated the background to the study (cf. 1.2), the research problem (cf. 1.3), the research aim and objectives (cf. 1.4), the rationale behind the study (cf. 1.5), the research methodology and design (cf. 1.6), delimitations of the study (cf. 1.7), ethical considerations (cf. 1.8), elucidation of key concepts (cf. 1.9) as well as the chapter layout of this study (cf. 1.10).

In chapter two, the researcher explored and presented extant literature related to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This chapter commenced with the presentation of the overview of curriculum change in South Africa (cf. 2.2). This section highlighted pertinent aspects such as the rationale behind curriculum reform in South Africa after apartheid (cf. 2.2.1), the principles underpinning curriculum change in a democratic South Africa (cf. 2.2.2), the general aims and purposes of the NCS, as the current curriculum change in South Africa (cf. 2.2.3) and the kind of teacher envisaged to implement the NCS (cf. 2.2.4).

Sections 2.3 and 2.4 sought to address the first of the four research objectives of this study from a theoretical perspective, namely, *to explore what entails effective teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.* Section 2.3 discussed the unique nature of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, focusing the following aspects: the definitions of teachers' CPD (cf. 2.3.1), the variables that determine the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.3.2), the need for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.3.3), the purposes of

teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.3.4) and the various approaches to the teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.3.5). Focus in section 2.4 was on the important policies that underlie teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in South Africa. The pertinent policies included the Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE), 2000 (cf. 2.4.1); the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED), 2006 (cf. 2.4.2); the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), 2003 (cf. 2.4.3); and the Personnel Administration Measures as embedded in the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (cf. 2.4.4).

Having established the constituent components of a successful teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, Chapter two, continued to explore existing literature related to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5). The intention was to address the second research objective of this study, viz., *to establish what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.* This section highlighted the core duties and responsibilities of the curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in the light of extant literature, which included their respective job descriptions (Employment of Educators Act in Brunton & Associates, 2003: C64-66; 69). Among other functions, CPD managers are responsible for creating a positive climate that engenders teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5.7.1), providing sound planning (cf. 2.5.7.2), organising structures, (cf. 2.5.7.3), leading the people (cf. 2.5.7.4) and controlling to determine organisational success (cf. 2.5.7.5).

In section 2.6, the study highlighted what the literature presented as challenges facing CPD managers and appropriate strategies to overcome them. This was an attempt to address another key research objective of this study, namely, *to find out the nature of limitations, if any, that CPD managers encounter in their tasks, and possible strategies to tackle them*. Notably, this section illuminated the following as some of the major impediments to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change and apposite strategies to tackle them: lack of training opportunities for CPD managers (cf. 2.6.1), CPD managers' role confusion (cf. 2.6.2), inadequate resources to support teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.6.3), teachers' lack of interest in their own CPD (cf. 2.6.4) and increasing workloads for CPD managers (cf. 2.6.5). Subsequent to the illumination of a specific obstacle, the researcher presented possible strategies to overcome that particular impediment in pursuance of empowering CPD managers to discharge their functions successfully.

Chapter three indicated *how* the researcher obtained the empirical data that was needed to address the research questions. The qualitative case study research was adopted (cf. 3.2 & 3.3). This chapter

further explained the procedure for sampling and sample selection (cf. 3.4), data collection procedure (cf. 3.5), data analysis process (cf. 3.6). An account for the study's credibility and trustworthiness (cf. 3.7), ethical considerations (cf. 3.8) and delimitations of the study (cf. 3.9) were also presented in this chapter.

Chapter four focused on the presentation and discussion of the key empirical findings. Section 4.2 provided a brief recap on the data analysis process followed in this study. The presentation of the findings (cf. 4.3) was structured around the research questions (cf. 1.3) and the emergent categories. Three categories emerged from data analysis. The first category highlighted the participants' conceptions of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.1). The second illuminated the participants' understanding of the role of CPD managers (cf. 4.3.2). The third and last category highlighted the major impediments encountered by CPD managers in the execution of their tasks (cf. 4.3.3). A discussion of each of the identified obstacles was followed by specific strategies that could be applied to deal with that particular barrier. This was partly in pursuance of the principal aim of this study (cf. 1.4). It is worthy to note that each chapter included its own introductory section as well as its own conclusion, and is clearly linked to other chapters of this study.

The next section gives attention to the summary of the important findings drawn from the literature and empirical research in this study.

5.3   SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

This section seeks to present a synthesis of the key literature and empirical findings, in relation to the research aim and objectives (cf. 1.4). In investigating how curriculum coordinators and SMTs respectively managed teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at the selected area offices and secondary schools in the North West Province, this study set out to address the following objectives:

- to explore what entails effective teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;

- to establish what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;

- to determine the nature of impediments, if any, that CPD managers encounter in performing their tasks effectively, and possible strategies to tackle them; and,

- to develop recommendations that may serve as guidelines to enhance the effectiveness of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum implementation at AO and school levels.

Before delving into the summary of major findings, it is important at this juncture to highlight that subsequent to the outline of key findings, the researcher aims to present the recommendations based on the literature and empirical findings that may serve as guidelines to enhance the effectiveness of the role of CPD managers. This is done in consummation of the main aim of this study (cf. 1.4).

5.3.1 Findings from related literature review

A literature review provided the theoretical basis for this study (cf. Chapter two). Deriving from the literature study, a summary of the main findings is presented in accordance with this study' objectives as follows:

5.3.1.1 Objective one: to explore what is entailed in effective teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

To address the above objective, the following conclusions were drawn:

5.3.1.1.1 Uniform definition of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

It was established from the literature review that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation refers to formal and informal activities undertaken by practising teachers either individually or collectively throughout their careers to enhance the capacity of their professional knowledge, competence and attitude for the effective implementation of curriculum change in schools (cf. 2.3.1).

5.3.1.1.2 Various related variables influence the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

From the literature review, it was concluded that several basic aspects contribute towards the effectiveness of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. These, among others, include design principles (cf. 23.2.1), relevant content (cf. 2.3.2.2), adequate time (cf. 2.3.2.3), appropriate timing (cf. 2.3.2.4) and follow-up support (cf. 2.3.2.5).

5.3.1.1.3 Teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation serves multiple purposes

Findings from the literature review also revealed that any reforms to school curriculum assume CPD of teachers for its implementation to be successful (cf. 2.3.3). In this regard, the literature revealed that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation serves several purposes, which involve: strengthening the capacity of professional teachers (cf. 2.3.4.1), improving the quality of students'

learning and performance (cf. 2.3.4.2), pursuing the principle of lifelong learning (cf. 2.4.3.3) and sustaining curriculum change initiatives (cf. 2.3.4.4).

5.3.1.1.4   Teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation can be provided through numerous complementary methods

The literature review illuminated the various methods to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.3.5). The different methods are organised into two main categories: formal and non-formal (Gulston, 2010:22; Bubb & Earley, 2007:3; Craft, 1996:13). The formal CPD approaches such development opportunities which require teachers to come together for varying lengths of time, away from their schools for training activities (Craft, 1996:14), which typically require delivery through outsourcing external expertise (Mizell, 2010:5; Ono & Ferreira, 2010:60; Sparks & Hirsh in Church et al., 2010:44). These include: training workshops (cf. 2.3.5.1.1), courses/ distance learning (cf. 2.3.5.1.2), conferences and seminars (cf. 2.3.5.1.3).

On the one hand, different scholars describe the non-formal CPD approaches in different ways (Guskey & Yoon, 2009:496; Engelbrecht, 2008:14; Desimone, 2009:182; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:76). Regardless of the varied descriptions, the above scholars were unanimous that non-formal CPD approaches involve those CPD activities that happen during the normal life of a school and usually within a school context. Such activities include, coaching/mentoring (cf. 2.3.5.2.1), observation of best practices (cf. 2.3.5.2.2), clusters (cf. 2.3.5.2.3) and the cascade model (cf. 2.3.5.2.4). Steyn (2008:24) stresses that the methods of training teachers for curriculum change implementation should be differentiated to meet learning styles of different teachers. In this sense, she aligns with Ono and Ferreira (2010:60) in criticising the common trend of "one size fits all" approach to teacher development for curriculum change implementation.

5.3.1.1.5   Several policy documents guide teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and the role of CPD managers in South Africa

It was concluded from the literature that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation and the role of CPD managers are guided by a number of policy documents in South Africa. These include: the Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE) of 2000 (cf. 2.4.1); the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) of 2006 (cf. 2.4.2); the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) of 2003 (cf. 2.4.3); and the Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM) embedded in the Employment of Educators Act (EEA) of 1998 (cf. 2.4.4).

5.3.1.2   Objective two: to establish what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation

The following findings were reached from the literature review in pursuance of the above objective**:**

5.3.1.2.1   Curriculum coordinators and SMTs are responsible for managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5)

From the literature review it was concluded that managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation constitutes one of the basic duties and responsibilities of curriculum coordinators and SMTs at AO and school levels, respectively (Employment of Educators Act in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C64-C65 & C69; Jones in Somo, 2007:3; Dean, 1991:101; Department of Education 2000b:6). The findings from the literature review revealed that the role of CPD managers involves the following:

5.3.1.2.1.1 Creating a positive organisational climate (cf. 2.5.7.1)

The literature revealed that CPD managers have a duty to modify organisational climate in order to foster effective and sustainable teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:206; Bipath, 2008:67; Miles in Morrison, 1998:166). The ideal organisational climate should reflect a number of attributes including goal focus, synergised systems, communication adequacy, decentralised power, effective resources utilisation, cohesiveness, adaptation and sound morale (Kruger, 2002:20; Bitzer in Munonde, 2007:48; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995:598). The literature review revealed that in order to modify the organisational climate to reflect the above attributes, CPD managers are required to transform the organisational culture (cf. 2.5.7.1.1), to promote teachers' access to CPD (cf. 2.5.7.1.2) and to adopt participative management approach (cf. 2.5.7.1.3).

5.3.1.2.1.2   Providing sound planning (cf. 2.5.7.2)

It was established from the literature study that CPD managers have a role to provide sound planning of activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The planning process involves thinking into the future to determine in advance what and who it is that is needed, when, where and how to attain the vision of the organisation (Smit et al., 2011:9; Van Deventer, 2008a:80; Fullan, 2001a:71; Steyn, 1999:212). To this end, the literature revealed that planning for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation involves assessing teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5.7.2.1), formulating pertinent objectives (cf. 2.5.7.2.2),

determining the implementation plan (cf. 2.5.7.2.3) and formulating policy pertaining to teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5.7.2.4).

5.3.1.2.1.3   Organising CPD facilitating structures (cf. 2.5.7.3)

The literature revealed that the success in implementing the plans hinges on the effectiveness of organising as a management function. Several scholars concur that organising is a task of managers and involves a process of allocating resources, roles and responsibilities to people in a framework or structure to achieve the goals as identified in the planning phase (Smit et al., 2011:9; Lussier, 2009:11; Swanepoel, 2009a:96). It was concluded from the literature review that effective organising requires CPD managers to create steering committees (cf. 2.5.7.3.1), form CPD organisational structures (cf. 2.5.7.3.2), delegate certain tasks, responsibilities and authority (cf. 2.5.7.3.3) and coordinate relevant activities (cf. 2.5.7.3.4) in order to effectively put the plans into action. Van Deventer (2008b:117) avers that ineffective organising contributes to unsuccessful implementation of the organisational plans.

5.3.1.2.1.4   Leading organisations to pursue the CPD goals (cf. 2.5.7.4)

The literature revealed that CPD managers should positively influence, persuade and guide the members of their organisations to pursue the goals set during the planning phase. It was concluded from the literature review that to elicit the above behavioural responses from their subordinates, CPD managers should, among others, carry out two main tasks: communicating with staff and other role-players (cf. 2.5.7.4.1) and motivating their subordinates (cf. 2.5.7.4.2).

5.3.1.2.1.5   Controlling the implemented plans to determine organisational success (cf. 2.5.7.5)

The review of related literature indicated that the implemented activities and programmes related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be controlled in order to determine their consistence or otherwise with the organisations mission and goals. It was also concluded from the literature that effective controlling of the executed plans assumes the role of CPD managers to undertake the following successive steps: establish standards for measuring performance (cf. 2.5.7.5.1), measure the actual performance (cf. 2.5.7.5.2), compare actual performance against set standards (cf. 2.5.7.5.3) and apply corrective measures, where required (cf. 2.5.7.5.4). However, several scholars noted that effective controlling poses a great challenge to many education managers (Davids, 2009:11; Church, in Church et al., 2010:45), to the degree that some neglect it entirely (Conco, 2004:50; Rebore, 2001:179).

5.3.1.2 Objective three: to determine the nature of impediments, if any, that CPD managers encounter in performing their tasks effectively, and possible strategies to tackle them

From the literature review, it was found that managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation is riddled with obstacles that are most likely to impair the effectiveness of CPD managers (cf. 2.6). The most significant of these impediments, illuminated in the literature review, include: lack of training opportunities for CPD managers (cf. 2.6.1); limited resources to support the provision of teachers' CPD (cf. 2.6.3); teachers' lack of interest in CPD (cf. 2.6.4) and increasing workloads of CPD managers and teachers (cf. 2.6.5). These obstacles are outlined, in sequence, in the next sections.

5.3.1.2.1 Lack of training opportunities for CPD managers (cf. 2.6.1)

The literature review revealed that many CPD managers lack sufficient knowledge and skills to provide quality leadership and management to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (Bubb & Earley, 2007:2; Phorabatho, 2010:9; Mabitsela, 2004:3). It was also evident from the literature that the limited insight of CPD managers into their role is exacerbated by the lack of relevant training opportunities to prepare them for the role they must undertake. It can be assumed that CPD managers that lack opportunities for relevant capacity-building cannot be expected to be effective in discharging their role. They often display role confusion (cf. 2.6.2). In this instance, they may jeorpadise the goal of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation by overlooking or completely disregarding important aspects of their role.

To tackle this problem, the literature suggests that CPD managers should be provided with relevant specific and in-depth training (Munonde, 2007:47; Mizell, 2010:7; Department of Basic Education, 2009:57). Such training should not only seek to equip CPD managers with appropriate knowledge concerning their role, but also with relevant skills and attitude to develop them to be positive forces of change (Mafora & Phorabatho, 2011:209).

5.3.1.2.2 Limited resources to support the provision of teachers' CPD (cf. 2.6.3)

The literature revealed the lack of adequate and relevant resource as another major obstacle to the effective management of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. It was established from the review of literature that CPD managers face lack of material, physical and human resources such as, respectively, limited financial support (cf. 2.6.3.1), lack of facilities for teachers' CPD (cf. 2.6.3.2) and shortage of subject advisors (cf. 2.6.3.4). Moreover, the literature indicated that the above problems are keenly felt in township and rural areas. Regardless of the location, the

objectives of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation are unlikely to be achieved where there is shortage of relevant resources.

As a means to overcome the challenges associated with lack of financial support, the literature suggests that, rather than leaning on the senior education authorities, CPD managers may take initiatives of requesting donations of any form related to teachers' CPD from NGOs, donor agencies, foundation, etc. (Geiger in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:127). As regards the lack of facilities and the shortage of subject advisors, the literature implied that they are a systemic or rather bureaucratic issue, and therefore, CPD managers have limited roles to address them effectively.

5.3.1.2.3   Teachers' lack of interest in CPD (cf. 2.6.4)

It was discovered from the literature review that the teachers' disinterest in their own CPD for curriculum change implementation poses another major challenge to the role of CPD managers. The literature review also revealed that teachers' lack of enthusiasm in their own professional development initiatives precedes the current South African democratic government. Biputh (2008:2) and Day and Sachs (2004:180) and Rampa, (2005:1) inform us that this problem could be traced to the days of resistance against the apartheid education system (cf. 2.6.4.1). Day and Sachs (2004:81) add the lack of significant rewards (cf. 2.6.4.2) as another significant causal factor. The literature further highlighted policy-overload (cf. 2.6.4.3), as another major contributing factor to teachers' lack of interest in their CPD related to curriculum change implementation. CPD managers who manage the teachers that lack interest in activities aimed to develop them (the teachers) professionally are likely to encounter problems associated with resistance.

The literature suggests that CPD managers should provide sound leadership (cf. 2.5.7.4) to circumvent or overcome the problem of teachers' lack of interest CPD activities related to curriculum change implementation.

5.3.1.2.4   Increasing workloads of CPD managers and teachers (cf. 2.6.5)

It was concluded from the literature review that the effectiveness of the role of CPD managers is hampered by increasing workloads on the parts of CPD managers and teachers. The government's on-going endeavours to improve the quality of the post-1994 education system appear to be the root cause of increasing workloads (Jansen, 1999:151; Chisholm et al., 2005:130-141; Department of Basic Education, 2009:64). The CPD managers that experience work overload may not be able to devote adequate time to their role. This is likely to be exacerbated by conditions where the people (the teachers) who are expected to undertake CPD for curriculum change implementation are

themselves swamped by increasing teaching workloads and administrative burdens related to the OBE-curriculum (Jansen, 1999:151).

Having presented a summary of the important findings derived from the related literature review, the next section outlines the major conclusions drawn from the empirical data.

5.3.2 Conclusions from the empirical investigation

The conclusions from the collected data were presented against the backdrop of this study's main research question, research aim and objectives (cf. 1.3). To ensure that this section is clearly presented, the conclusions are given in accordance with the three categories that emerged during data analysis (cf. cf. 4.3). The identified categories were:

- Conceptions of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.1);
- Perceptions of the role of CPD managers (cf. 4.3.2); and
- Barriers to managing teachers' CPD effectively and possible solutions to these barriers (cf. 4.3.3).

In this section, an outline of the above categories and pertinent subcategories are synthesised with prior literature review to reflect conclusions that relate to how teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation was managed in the selected AOs and secondary schools of the Bojanala and Ngaka Modiri Molema districts in the North West Province.

5.3.2.1 CONCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS' CPD FOR CURRICULUM CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

The empirical investigation revealed that the participants possessed considerable similarities in their ideas of the basic features of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.1). In the main, the participants' conceptions were consistent with the literature. This conclusion was drawn from the participants' responses concerning:

- Purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation **(cf. 4.3.1.1)**;
- Methods used to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation **(cf. 4.3.1.2)**;
- Relevant content component of CPD programmes and activities **(cf. 4.3.1.3)**;
- Enough time for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation **(cf. 4.3.1.4)**; and
- Quality of CPD facilitators **(cf. 4.3.1.5)**

5.3.2.1.1 Purposes of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.1.1)

The majority of participants were aware that curriculum change presupposed adequately trained, skilled and knowledgeable teachers for its implementation to succeed. Likewise, they emphasised

that teachers required on-going professional development to provide them with the necessary skills and knowledge to improve their performance in the classroom, which might drop due to the rapidity of curriculum reforms and subsequent radical implementation. Furthermore, the participants expressed the view that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation presented the majority of teachers that held only the old college teaching diploma as their main qualification with a golden opportunity to upgrade their qualifications.

5.3.2.1.2 Methods used to deliver teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.1.2)

The participants had limited knowledge of the various methods through which teachers' CPD may be provided. They were only aware of the training workshops, the clusters (which they referred to as Professional Support Forums- PSFs), and the distance learning/course approaches. Their limited knowledge suggests that the teachers in the selected research sites had only the above as opportunities for CPD related to curriculum change implementation. Implicitly, CPD managers concerned applied the "one size fits all" approach to teacher development for curriculum change, which the literature denigrates as not always effective (cf. 2.3.5).

The approaches to provide teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should be differentiated to meet learning styles of different teachers (Steyn, 2008:24). CPD managers should explore other CPD-related models in order to cater for the different teachers' needs and thereby, expanding the teachers' options. These options include conferences and seminars, coaching and mentoring, observation of best practices, networking, group, and the cascade model, etc. (cf. 2.3.5).

5.3.2.1.3 Relevant content component of CPD programmes and activities (cf. 4.3.1.3)

Empirical data indicated that the majority of participants had significant ideas regarding what should constitute the content component of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. They collectively mentioned that they had expected teachers to be trained on the new subject-specific content, the new methods of teaching and learner assessment. They disclosed that to their dismay, the previous encounters sought to empower teachers for the implementation of curriculum change were inadequate to address the above expectations.

5.3.2.1.4 Enough time for teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.1.4)

The collected data also revealed that the majority of participants knew that sufficient time has considerable influence on the success of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. They revealed strong aversions towards symptoms of poor time management on the part of CPD

managers, which caused them to attend brief, once-off, "hit-and-run" training workshops and the "twilight" PSFs. This finding supports ideas from previous studies concerning the issue of sufficient time as a determining variable of teachers' CPD success (Engelbrecht, 2008:42; Chisholm, 1999:45; Villegas-Reimers, 2003:125).

5.3.2.1.5   Quality of facilitators (cf. 4.3.1.5)

Finally, the interview data also revealed that most participants also perceived the quality of facilitators as another constituent element of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. They highlighted that among others, facilitators of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation should showcase attributes such as a superior level of knowledge about training content, thorough grasp and command of specific-subject content knowledge and excellent presentation skills.

The second section seeks to present summary of the empirical conclusions in the light of "Understandings of the role of CPD managers", as another category that emerged from data analysis (cf. 4.3).

5.3.2   PERCEPTIONS OF THE ROLE OF CPD MANAGERS (cf. 4.3.2)

It was concluded from the empirical investigation that the majority of the participants had limited understanding of what constitutes the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. In most instances, their responses were inarticulate and lacked depth and range, particularly when they outlined the specific activities and aspects involved in the role of CPD managers. Based on the collected data the following conclusions were drawn:

5.3.2.1   Inadequate modification of organisational climate (cf. 4.3.2.1)

The empirical investigation revealed that teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation happened in a non-conducive organisational climate. Other role-players perceived the curriculum coordinators' sectarian decision-making as impositions, authoritative and excluding in nature (cf. 4.3.2.1.1). The participants were of the view that the prevalence of poor physical environment militated against teachers' learning for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.2.1.2). The evidence from the interview data indicated that the organisational climate was also blemished by the teachers' low morale precipitated by job insecurity emanating from the on-going redeployment of teachers in accordance with the ELRC Resolution 2 of 2003 (cf. 4.3.2.1.3). These conditions, which evidently had a demoralising effect on teachers, may militate against the goals of CPD.

5.3.2.2   Ineffective teachers' CPD needs assessment (cf. 4.3.2.2.1)

It was concluded from the empirical investigation that the assessment of teachers' CPD needs for curriculum change implementation by the Provincial PSFs, using the matric learner performance constitutes ineffective needs assessment methods (cf. 4.3.2.2.1). This approach is inconsistent with the principles of customer focus and input-transformation-output; respectively, enshrined in the TQM approach (cf.2.5.3) and the systems theory (cf.2.5.4). CPD activities based on tools that do not involve the input of teachers are not likely to help in addressing the teachers' actual needs, and therefore, may do too little improve the teachers' classroom practice.

5.3.2.3   Inadequate organising (cf. 4.3.2.3)

The collected data revealed that the CPD managers were not organising effectively. CPD managers monopolised their role (cf. 4.3.2.3.1). There were no steering committees formed at the level of area office to facilitate the activities involved in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.2.3.1). Similarly, the existing staff development teams (SDTs) were reportedly inactive and ineffective (cf. 4.3.2.3.1). Furthermore, CPD managers did not delegate any portion of their tasks, responsibilities and authority to their subordinates (cf. 4.3.2.3.2). Poor organising implies that the CPD managers were in conflict with the conceptions of TQM (cf. 2.5.4), systems theory (cf. 2.5.4) and behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6). Similarly, this finding also contradicted the views of different scholars concerning organising as a management function (cf. 2.5.7.3). The CPD managers that do not organise effectively run the risk of failing to implement the plans effectively as they may encounter poor cooperation from other role-players.

5.3.2.4   Ineffective communication and lack of motivation (cf. 4.3.2.4)

The empirical investigation revealed that the function of leading was performed inadequately. Participants were of the opinion that CPD managers were not communicating effectively with the role-players. (cf. 4.3.2.4.2 & 4.3.2.1.1). They also expressed views regarding their inability or rather ineffectiveness of CPD relating to persuading, inspiring and motivating the teachers to engage in their own CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.3.4). This was inconsistent with the concept of behavioural management theory (cf. 2.5.6). It also contradicted the views of author scholars concerning effective communication (cf. 2.5.7.4.1) and motivation (cf. 2.5.7.4.2) as the constituent elements of leading. Professionals that experience excessive top-down communication (cf. 4.3.2.4.2) and limited motivation may not willingly contribute to the achievement of the goals and objectives of the organisation**.**

5.3.2.5   Poor controlling of activities pertinent to teachers' CPD (cf. 4.3.2.5)

The collected data revealed that the implementation of activities pertinent to teachers' CPD for curriculum change was not adequately controlled (cf. 4.3.2.5). Although this finding was consistent with findings in previous studies (Davids, 2009:11; Conco, 2004:50; Rebore, 2001:179), it vehemently conflicted the idea of feedback in terms of the systems theory (cf. 2.5.4), which requires CPD managers to have proper control measures that regularly inform the system whether the CPD programmes provided to teachers were worthwhile, need some improvements or should be discarded altogether. The lack of effective controlling increases the chances of repeating the same mistakes that contributed to the inadequacies of the current CPD activities when planning future interventions aiming to develop teachers' for the implementation of curriculum change.

In general, it was concluded that CPD managers that lack basic understanding of what they are expected to do cannot be perceived as effective in their role. Such CPD managers are prone to overlook certain responsibilities, perform them wrongly or even entirely omit them.

The researcher discovered through empirical investigation the perceptible partial understanding and application of their role were further exacerbated by practical impediments encountered when managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. An outline of these barriers follows in the next section.

5.3.3   Barriers to managing teachers' CPD effectively and possible solutions to these barriers (cf. 4.3.3)

It was concluded from the empirical investigation that the sampled CPD managers faced a litany of barriers that impaired their effectiveness (cf. 4.3.3). The most significant of these included limited training of CPD managers (cf. 4.3.3.1); shortage of relevant resources (cf. 4.3.3.2); difficulties of finding suitable day and time for teachers' CPD (cf. 4.3.3.3); CPD managers' work overload (cf. 4.3.3.4) and teachers' change weariness (cf. 4.3.3.5). These are briefly outlined, in turn, next.

5.3.3.1   Limited training of CPD managers (cf. 4.3.3.1)

The interview data revealed that the sampled curriculum coordinators and SMTs were not adequately trained (cf. 4.3.3.1). The participants were of the opinion that as a result of inadequate training, CPD managers experienced a plethora of impediments to the effectiveness of their role. These, among others, included CPD managers' role ambiguity and lack of role collective ownership (cf. 4.3.3.1.1); ignorance about the policies that guide teachers' CPD (cf. 4.3.3.1.2); inadequate management of the implementation of the teachers' Developmental Appraisal (cf. 4.3.3.1.3); lack of

school-based activities concerning teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.3.1.4). These impediments are summarised, in turn, next.

5.3.2.3.1.1   CPD managers' role ambiguity and lack of role collective ownership (cf. 4.3.3.1.1)

It was concluded from the collected data that CPD managers were not certain and clear about what constitute their role (cf. 4.3.3.1.1). The collected data also revealed that, in addition to role ambiguity, the two structures that form SMTs demonstrated inconsistent opinions regarding role ownership. Many HoDs denied the role, while principals acknowledged it as part of their duties and responsibilities, amidst the concerns of limited know-how and heavy workloads. CPD managers that exhibit role uncertainty imply that they have limited understanding of what actually constitutes their role. Mafora and Phorabatho (2011:211) conclude that such managers cannot be seen as effective in carrying out their responsibility.

5.3.2.3.1.2   Ignorance about the policies that guide teachers' CPD (cf. 4.3.3.1.2)

The empirical data revealed that the participants had limited knowledge about the relevant policies that guide teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in South Africa (cf. 4.3.3.1.2). The participants also revealed that none of the participant AOs and schools had policies in place related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. It is unintelligible to imagine how CPD managers may function effectively without the guidance and support of a relevant policy document**.**

5.3.2.3.1.3   Inadequate management of the implementation of the teachers' Developmental Appraisal (cf. 4.3.3.1.3)

The interview data revealed that managing the implementation of the teachers' Developmental Appraisal was negligible (cf. 4.3.3.1.3). In particular, the participants expressed a common view that the development aspect of the Developmental Appraisal, as enshrined in the IQMS policy, was not forthcoming from the SMTs and the AOs. None of the participants indicated the view to suggest that there were CPD activities based on curriculum change implementation organised at AO or school levels to address the outcomes of the teachers' Developmental Appraisal. The negligence of the teachers' Developmental Appraisal outcomes when assessing the needs may constitute the detachment, and therefore, inadequacy of the planned activities sought to develop teachers for the implementation of curriculum change implementation.

5.3.2.3.1.4 Lack of school-based activities concerning teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.3.1.4)

The empirical evidence also revealed that there were no school-based activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation organised in the identified secondary schools. Among other advantages, school-based CPD opportunities engender collaborative learning among the teachers (Mizell, 2010:7; Masoge, 2008:176).

5.3.2.3.2 Shortage of resources (cf. 4.3.3.2)

The empirical investigation also showed that the identified CPD managers grappled with shortage of relevant resources to support the provision of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The shortage of resources manifested itself in two main forms including the lack of suitable accommodation (cf. 4.3.3.2.1) and paucity of instructional aids and official means of transport (cf. 4.3.3.2.2). These are concisely discussed, in that sequence, in the next sections.

5.3.2.3.2.1 Lack of suitable accommodation (cf. 4.3.3.2.1)

It emerged from the collected data that the lack of suitable venues to accommodate the delivery of the activities sought to develop the teachers for the implementation of curriculum reforms posed a significant challenge to the surveyed CPD managers (cf. 4.3.3.2.1). The provision of teachers' CPD in venues that reflect poor physical conditions militates against teachers' learning. The goals of teachers' CPD for curriculum change are unlikely to be attained under such poor physical conditions.

5.3.2.3.2.2 Paucity of instructional aids and transport (cf. 4.3.3.2.2)

This study established that the sampled CPD managers found it exceedingly difficult to manage the delivery of CPD activities with limited or total unavailability of instructional aids such as laptops, data projectors and screens resources. Similarly, the lack of transport had reportedly caused several subject advisors to fail in providing school-based monitoring and support. Based on the evidence from the interview data, it appeared that the bureaucratic processes made it difficult for CPD managers to overcome this problem. Moreover, none of the CPD managers suggested the procurement of such resources as their responsibility.

5.3.2.3.3 CPD managers' work overload (cf. 4.3.3.4)

The empirical data evinced that the sampled CPD managers experienced heavy workloads which made it difficult for them to devote time to managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change

implementation (cf. 4.3.3.4). With limited time at their disposal, it is highly improbable that the surveyed CPD managers may be effective in discharging their functions.

5.3.2.3.4   Teachers' change weariness (cf. 4.3.3.5)

As the last of the major empirical findings, this study revealed that the selected CPD managers found it difficult to deal with teachers that displayed lack of enthusiasm to their own development emanating from change weariness. Regardless of the root cause, teachers' inertia towards CPD may, inevitably, pose a serious impediment to managing their CPD for curriculum change implementation.

The foregoing exposition indicates that the intensity of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation assumes a capacity in most curriculum coordinators and SMTs that this study has found not to be there in the selected AOs and secondary schools. The next section presents the recommendations that may serve as guidelines to strengthen the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs, as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in schools.

5.4   RECOMMENDATIONS

This section is devoted to the elucidation of the recommendations in accordance with the main research aim and the last of the four objectives of this study. The concluding objective of this study states thus: *to develop recommendations that may serve as guidelines to enhance the effectiveness of the role of CPD managers*. The recommendations made in this section are a triangulation of the related literature study, the empirical research results and conclusions. They are, however, organised in two categories: recommendations for CPD managers, and recommendations for the North-West Education Department.

5.4.1   Recommendations for CPD managers

In this category of recommendations, the study provides guidelines with a view to improve the quality of managing teachers' CPD at AO and school levels. The recommendations follow:

5.4.1.1   Orchestrate organisational climate

The empirical investigation revealed that the organisational climate in the majority of the research sites militated against the goals of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (cf. 4.3.2.1; 4.3.2.4.2). Therefore, CPD managers should start with the transformation of their individual organisational climate in order to engender the smooth provision of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. This may be achieved through the adoption of participative management

approach (2.5.7.1.3). Participative management system encourages a sense of collective ownership and accountability, among other advantages. The most effective way to achieve collective ownership, through participative management systems, is by establishing functional steering committees that deal with teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation (2.5.7.3.1). This study discovered that such structures did not exist in the sampled AOs; and also the existing School Development Teams (SDTs) were not active and therefore, ineffective in many of the sampled schools (cf. 4.3.2.3.1). Therefore, the curriculum coordinators should initiate the establishment of a functional steering committee, in the form of a professional development committee (PDC), at AO level.

The above structure should be democratically established. Ideally, PDC, at the area office level, should comprise representatives from bodies or associations of principals and teacher unions, respectively, subject advisors, circuit managers, curriculum coordinator and the AO managers (Dean, 1991:33). It is assumed that all schools have the School Development Teams (SDTs), which consist of the principal and elected staff members, since they implement the Developmental Appraisal on annual basis (Education Labour Relations Council, in Brunton & Associates, 2003:C68). Nonetheless, the SDTs should be resuscitated and empowered to carry out their mandates effectively. Aside from improving the quality of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation, the above structures may be instrumental in addressing the problem of heavy workloads on the part of CPD managers (cf. 2.6.5 & 4.3.3.4).

5.4.1.2   Ensure that planning for teachers' CPD is context-specific

Mafora and Phorabatho (2013:118) state that the planning process should be context-specific to ensure that the anticipated activities help address the unique circumstances of the individual organisation. This was not the case at the Mahikeng, Ditsobotla, Rustenburg and Moretele AOs and the sampled schools. The empirical investigation revealed that planning for teachers' CPD based on curriculum change implementation happened at the national and provincial levels, and excluded the input from teachers (cf. 4.3.2.2.1). Often, the planning was generalised and based on wrong assumptions about the context in which such CPD initiatives were expected to be operationalised. This study recommends that planning for teachers' CPD related to curriculum change implementation should be done at levels that are as close to the teachers as possible. Ideally, the planning should be carried out at AO and school levels. In this sense, the democratically established Professional Development Committees (PDCs) at different AOs and the Staff Development Teams (SDTs) in schools should take charge of the coordinating processes.

5.4.1.3   Tie CPD programmes and activities to the teachers' actual CPD needs

CPD managers should ensure that all programmes and activities aim at addressing the actual CPD needs of the teachers. This can be achieved through proper assessment of teachers' CPD needs related to curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.5.7.2.1). This study strongly recommends that the outcomes of the Developmental Appraisal should be considered during the needs assessment phase (cf. 2.4.3& 2.5.7.2.1.2). However, the outcomes of the Developmental Appraisal may be supplemented by other methods such as the SWOT analysis (cf. 2.5.7.2.1.2) and learner performance per subject according to grade. This may strengthen the quality of teachers' CPD needs assessment; while at the same time, it may serve as an attempt to address the effects of the limitations associated with the inadequate implementation of the Developmental Appraisal (cf. 2.4.3 & 4.3.3.1.3). The needs assessment should be done by the different PDCs and SDTs (Dean, 1991:66).

5.4.1.4   Provide leadership

The leadership of CPD managers should prevail throughout the processes related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. The collected data revealed that the sampled CPD managers did not provide effective leadership (cf. 4.3.2.4). This study recommends that CPD managers should communicate effectively and inspire teachers' interest in the relevant CPD programmes and activities through motivation and leading by example practices (cf. 2.5.7.4.1; 2.5.7.4.2).

5.4.1.5   Apply effective control measures

This study discovered that the activities pertinent to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation were poorly controlled (cf. 4.3.2.5). CPD managers should ensure that all relevant activities are controlled to determine their consistency with the pre-set goals. Hellriegel <u>et al.</u> (2008:415) state that the controlling process aims to detect and eliminate or minimise deviations from the original plans of the organisation. When controlling, CPD managers should apply the following consecutive steps, derived from the literature review (cf. 2.5.7.5):

- establish standards for measuring performance;
- measure the actual performance;
- compare actual performance against set standards;
- identify deviations;
- analyse causes of deviations;
- plan corrective measures; and
- implement corrective measures.

It is anticipated that the implementation of the above guidelines may ensure improvement in the functions of CPD managers, and further enable them to discharge their role in a planned and coordinated way. This expectation may fully materialise provided the set of recommendations made for the North-West Education Department in the next section are also considered.

5.4.2 Recommendations for the North West Education Department

The present study revealed that CPD managers, on their own, lacked capacity to address several challenges that they faced (cf. 4.3.3.1; 4.3.3.2; 4.3.3.3 & 4.3.3.4). Therefore, the North West Education Department (NWED) should provide relevant support that may enhance the effectiveness of the CPD managers. To this end, this study makes the following recommendation:

5.4.2.1 Provide specific training to CPD managers

Emphasis on the notion of continuing professional development in education should embrace curriculum coordinators and members of SMTs, particularly on their role in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum implementation. Ideally, the training should be targeted, on-going and offered at least once per year. Such training should be expansive in content and be focused on several aspects, including:

- showing CPD managers the importance of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation successfully;

- explicitly clarifying the role and responsibilities of CPD managers, including how to: create a healthy organisational climate (cf. 2.5.7.1 & 4.3.2.1, plan (cf. 2.5.7.2 & 4.3.2.2), organise (cf. 2.5.7.3 & 4.3.2.3, lead (cf. 2.5.7.4 & 4.3.2.4)and control (cf. 2.5.7.5 & 4.3.2.5) all activities related to teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation;

- acquainting CPD managers with the different CPD approaches that can be used to address different teachers' CPD needs related to curriculum change implementation (cf. 2.3.5 & 4.3.1.2);

- familiarising CPD managers with the relevant and current CPD-related policies in South Africa and the implications of the individual policy on their roles, as CPD managers (cf. 2.4 & 4.3.3.1.2). Relatedly, the training should prepare CPD managers to develop, adopt and implement CPD policies for their respective institutions; and,

- encouraging the SMTs, in particular, to organise school-based presentation of CPD activities, of course with the support of the AOs (cf. 2.3.5 & 4.3.3.1.4).

It is further recommended that the annual training of CPD managers should be outsourced to Education faculties of the recognised universities. To incentivise the candidates, the programmes should carry credits towards a formal qualification, and they should also be endorsed by the South African Council for Educators so as to enable the members of the SMTs to earn the Professional Development Points (cf. 2.4.2). Similarly, the NWED should come up with mechanisms that will make compulsory the induction of the newly appointed curriculum coordinators and SMTs. Training on managing teachers' CPD, according to the above aspects, should form a central feature of the induction programmes and not be peripheral or overlooked as it was revealed in the present study (cf. 4.3.3.1). This may help reduce the possible chances of failure emanating from inexperience.

5.4.2.2   Support the provision of CPD activities with relevant and adequate resources

The NWED should speed up the provision of sufficient laptops, data projectors and screens in all the sampled AOs to support the facilitation of CPD activities (cf. 2.6.3.1 & 4.3.3.2.2). The Directorate of Information, Communication and Technology Services should be engaged to provide technical support. Furthermore, the relevant sections that deal with official means of transport should prioritise the availability of such to the subject advisors (cf. 2.6.3.2 & 4.3.3.2.2).

The conditions of the buildings of the *makeshift* CPD venues should be face-lifted. This should be the responsibility of the NWED's Directorate of Physical Resources and Facilities Planning and Management Services. As a long term solution to the problems related with CPD accommodation, the NWED should consider the establishment of an Institute for Continuing Professional Teacher Development in each of its four districts (cf. 2.6.3.2 & 4.3.3.2.1).

5.5   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher identified the following as some of the possible limitations that pertain to this study:

▪ A choice of qualitative case study design appeared as a compelling limitation to the current study. The findings are of limited value for scientific generalisation because the study focused on in-depth understanding of the dynamics of a particular case: the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at the selected area offices and secondary schools of the North West Province;

▪ Related to the above limitation, the use of purposive sampling approach also constituted a major limitation to the current study. The study delimited its focus to gaining information from the presumed information-rich sources from the surveyed AOs and secondary schools. It is possible that many information-rich samples may have been overlooked and excluded from this

study. Possibly, different findings might have existed if the study was extended to other AOs, secondary schools, teachers, subject advisors, principals, curriculum coordinators and probably other NWED officials responsible for personnel development like the HRD and the WSSES directorates. Gray (2009:153) notes that the researcher using purposive sampling may inadvertently omit vital characteristics or may be subconsciously biased in selecting the sample;

▪ The unavailability of some of the initially proposed participants and research sites for data collection. This drawback was especially encountered in the Rustenburg and Mafikeng secondary schools. Their explanations for not being available varied from busy work schedules to total lack of interest. However, the researcher secured interviews with their counterparts and examined relevant documents from their respective sites. The inaccessibility of the initially ear-marked informants might have had adverse effects on the wealth and variation of views needed to provide the study with the richest possible sources of information to answer the research question (Silverman, 2010:141; Creswell, 2009:179; Nieuwenhuis, 2011:79);

▪ The unavailability of documents for intensive analysis. In most cases the participants were not willing to provide the documents, despite the initial consents made. This limitation affected the quality of the findings and reporting as the majority of the interview data could not be corroborated with the desired documentary evidence; and,

▪ Finally, the employment position of the present researcher could form another limitation. The researcher is an official at the head office of the NWED. There are, therefore, strong probabilities that this position might have influenced the perceptions and opinions of some of the participants. A variation of power relation could be detected during the data collection phase. For instance, the individual interviews with curriculum coordinators and subject advisors were typically dominated by features of collegiality. Conversely, the responses of many interviewed teachers were to the point as if they were being interviewed for a particular post. Furthermore, the responses in most focus groups, particularly of the principals', resembled a sense of expectation for immediate change in the way the Department organises the workshops, PSFs and the teachers' registration for the ACE.

5.6 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Although the current study has, to a great extent, achieved its goals and objectives that were mentioned in Chapter 1, the researcher is of the view that further research could be necessary to improve on some of the unintended oversights of this study, thereby making further contributions

that can strengthen the task of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation. Therefore, the following areas can be taken into consideration for additional investigation:

- Extending the present study over a larger area, thereby including larger population. Officials from the NWED who deal with IQMS and HRD could also be included in the sample;

- Conducting a comparative study could be conducted using a quantitative approach. This can enable elements of generalisation; and,

- Undertaking a research of this type to establish how teacher unions could meaningfully contribute towards managing CPD.

The researcher does not, however, imply that these recommendations should be implemented in their original form, but the intention is that the NWED, individual AOs and schools should customise the guidelines according to their own unique situations, the teachers CPD needs and expectations. The recommendations therefore could be used as useful guidelines. Furthermore, the researcher is also of the view that the components of the contribution can be applied in other AOs and secondary schools, districts, province, country-wide and internationally by institutions that experience polarity of decontextualised CPD.

5.7   CONCLUSION

The primary aim of this study was *to examine how curriculum coordinators and SMTs manage teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) for curriculum change implementation, respectively, at the selected area offices and secondary schools in the North West Province, with a view to developing guidelines that may be used to strengthen the role of curriculum coordinators and SMTs, as managers of teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation in schools* (cf. 1.4). This aim was adequately achieved. The study established that managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation constitutes one of the primary responsibilities of curriculum coordinators and SMTs. After carefully examining the participants' responses, the researcher came to a conclusion that the sampled curriculum coordinators and SMTs were not effective in carrying out their roles. They displayed limited understanding of what was involved in their role as CPD managers. Their ineffectiveness was further compounded by a range of practical hindrances that the majority of them found difficult to overcome. Accordingly, the study developed recommendations to address the above limitations as a means to suggest ways to improve the quality of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation.

The findings of this study should, however, be considered as tentative. The highlighted perceptions of the sampled participants about the roles of the curriculum coordinators and SMTs, as the local managers of the teachers' CPD, were bounded by time and may, in many respects, be subjective. For instance, the participants' perceptions might have been influenced by personal prejudices against- and favours for – particular individuals or a collective responsible for managing teachers' CPD.

In conclusion, the researcher wishes to pose a challenge to the authorities in the NWED system. The perpetuation of the negligible approaches used to organise and deliver CPD activities in the surveyed AOs and this study's exposé of the non-existence of the organisation of CPD in many of the sampled secondary schools suggests the presumptions on the part of the systems of the Provincial Education Department that all is well. This study has revealed that all is not well in some AOs and secondary schools. Managing teachers' CPD is riddled with impediments that impair its effectiveness. The NWED should, therefore, desist from resting on its laurels. The NWED - as well as other Education Departments in other provinces with similar background conditions regarding the management of teachers' CPD - needs to priorities support for the local CPD managers. Importantly, the envisaged support should be in the form of intensive and on-going training and the provision of relevant and adequate resources and facilities. With this support, it is believed that CPD managers will contribute substantially to the professional development of the teachers, the ultimate results of which will be the improved learner attainments.

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Phorabatho T.A
30 Danie Malan Street
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0182

The Acting Superintendent-General
North West Education Department
MMABATHO

Date: 10 August 2012

Re: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY

I am presently engaged in my thesis for Doctor in Education (specialising in Educational Management) with UNISA under the mentorship of Dr Pat Mafora. My topic is: "*Managing teachers' continuing professional development for the implementation of curriculum change".* The study seeks to make contributions that can strengthen the roles of curriculum coordinators and SMTs in managing teachers' Continuing Professional Development for curriculum change implementation.

I, therefore, request your permission to collect research data from the Area Offices and secondary schools in the Bojanala and Ngaka Modiri Molema districts.

I will maintain strict confidentiality and anonymity of all participants at all levels of this research project.

For more information regarding the study, kindly contact my supervisor. His contact details are:

Doctor P. Mafora

University of South Africa

Department of Educational Studies

Tel   :   +27 (0)12 429 6962.

E-mail   :   pmafora@unisa.ac.za

I am confident that my request to conduct the study is viewed favourably

Yours faithfully,

_____

Phorabatho T.A (Mr)   Student No.   : 30655196
Persal No. : 90259688

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CHIEF DIRECTORATE: QUALITY ASSURANCE

TO: **CHIEF DIRECTORS (BOJANALA & NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICTS)**

AREA MANAGERS (SELECTED AREA OFFICES)

PRINCIPALS (SELECTED SCHOOLS)

From: Dr MC Teu

Director – Whole School Development Services

07 November 2012

Sir /Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

This serves to inform you that Mr T.A Phorabatho from UNISA (registered Doctoral degree student) has requested and has been granted permission to conduct research in the selected Area Offices and school in Bojanala and Ngaka Modiri Molema Districts.

The collection of data is subject to the following conditions:

- that it should not interfere with teaching and learning at schools;

- that no area office or school-based personnel shall be coerced to participate in the study; and

- that the Department will receive a final copy of the research and summary of the research findings be made available.

Your cooperation in this regard will be appreciated

Thanking in you in anticipation

……………………………………….
Dr MC Teu
Director-WSD

APPENDIX 3

INTERVIEW GUIDE: Individual interviews of curriculum coordinators and subject advisors

1.   Basic Interview Questions

1.1   In your opinion what do you understand by continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers concerning the implementation of the new curriculum?

1.2   Can you please share your views on what you perceive as the role of curriculum coordinators and School Management Teams (SMTs) in managing the CPD of teachers for the implementation of the new curriculum?

1.3   What challenges, if any, do you think your curriculum coordinator and SMTs experience in managing the teachers' CPD; and which strategies are being or can be applied to address them sufficiently?

1.4   As far as you are aware, how do the District and/or Provincial Offices provide support to area offices and schools regarding managing continuing professional development of teachers for the implementation of the new curriculum?

1.5   How do you perceive the effectiveness of your role in managing the CPD?

1.6   In your opinion, what should be done to enhance the quality of managing teachers' CPD for curriculum change implementation at area office level?

It was an informative experience interviewing you. Thank you for your time and for your invaluable contributions.

APPENDIX 4

INTERVIEW GUIDE: Teachers' Individual and HoDs' and Principals' Focus Group Interviews

1.   BASIC INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1.1   In your opinion what do you understand by continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers for curriculum change implementation?

1.2   Can you please share your views on what you perceive as the role of curriculum coordinators and School Management Teams (SMTs) in managing continuing professional development of teachers for the implementation of the new curriculum?

1.3   What challenges, if any, do you think curriculum coordinators and SMTs experience in managing continuing professional development of teachers for curriculum change implementation; and which strategies are being or can be applied to address them sufficiently?

1.4   How do you perceive the effectiveness of your SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for the implementation of the new curriculum?

1.5   What, in your view, should be done to improve the role of SMTs in managing teachers' CPD for the implementation of curriculum change implementation?

It was an informative experience interviewing you. Thank you for your time and for your invaluable contributions.