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Continuous professional development for quality education: Teachers' experiences in quintile 1-3 schools in Katlehong, Gauteng Province.

By

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Declaration of Honesty

I, **Lutho Bobe**, declare that this dissertation is my own original work. Where there is the use of someone else's work (whether it is printed, internet or any other source) the correct acknowledgements have been made and the authors have been cited according to the requirements of the Department of Sociology, Faculty of Humanities, University of Pretoria. I understand what plagiarism is, and I am aware of the university policy and implications in this regard.

Signature:	**Date:**
Lutho Bobe	September 2024

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List of abbreviations and Acronyms

ANC	African National Congress
COLT	Culture of Learning and Teaching
CPTD	Continuous Professional Teacher Development
DAS	Developmental Appraisal System
DoE	Department of Education
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DH	Departmental Head
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
DTDC	District Teacher Development Centres
EPESTLE	Equitable Provision of an Enabling School Physical Teaching and Learning Environment
IFP	Inkatha Freedom Party
IQMS	Integrated Quality Monitoring System
ISPFTED	Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development
MRTEQ	Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications
NDoE	National Department of Education
NEIMS	National Education Infrastructure Management System
NICPD	National Institute for Curriculum and Professional Development
NMUSSI	National Minimum Uniform Standards for School Infrastructure
NNSSF	National Norms and Standards for School Funding
NPFTED	National Policy Framework on Teacher Education and Development
NSC	National Senior Certificate
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PLC	Professional Learning Communities
PTDI	Provincial Teacher Development Institutes
SACE	South African Council for Educators
SASA	South African Schools Act
TALIS	Teaching and Learning International Survey
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UN SDG	United Nations Sustainable Development Goal
UNISA	University of South Africa

Abstract

This study focuses on continuous professional training and development (CPTD) because teachers are part of debates about improving the quality of the schooling system in South Africa. The study considers both policy formulation and teachers' experiences of CPTD policy and workshop programmes. The policies are the National Policy Framework on Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED henceforth) in South Africa (2007) and the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (ISPFTED henceforth) (2011-2025). The study employed a qualitative research framework within a social constructivist paradigm. It draws on 24 interviews with teachers who have worked, and those who are currently working, in quintile 1 - 3 schools in Katlehong, Gauteng Province.

The study found that policy frames teachers as autonomous professionals who independently acknowledge and partake in their professional development. Their work is seen as a noble responsibility towards learners and South Africa at large in terms of developing future leaders. Within these frames, the policy ideals and images of teachers do in some instances match what teachers understand to be their responsibility and mandate. However, some teachers expressed dissatisfaction with workshop programmes. Teachers also encountered varied social conditions within the communities and schools, and these complicated their work. These conditions included poor infrastructure, overcrowding, limited resources, policy prescriptions, collapsing family structures and learner discipline issues, which hindered the teaching process and often called for teachers to employ different types of knowledge and skills to tackle them.

The study found that the persistent gap between policy formulation and implementation in South Africa is due to enduring legacies of societal inequalities and contemporary failures. The dissertation argues that, without meaningful engagement with teachers from the context of the teaching and learning processes, the CPTD policy and its associated workshop programmes become an obligation that does not serve teachers' professional needs or the education of learners. Therefore, the simultaneous consideration of policy and experiences helps us see policy as a process of struggle and contestation within education processes.

Keywords: Quality Education; Continuous Professional Teacher Development, Policy formulation; Policy implementation

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Chapter 1:
Improving South Africa's education system through the continuous professional development of teachers.

1.1 Introduction and Background

Teachers'[1] continuous professional training and development has become a central part of debate about improving the quality of the schooling system in South Africa. The *National Policy Framework on Teacher Education and Development* (NPFTED) of 2006 sets out government policy for teacher education and Continuous Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) workshop programmes for the achievement of quality education. In the NPFTED teachers are "the essential drivers of a good quality education system" (DoE 2006: 5)**.** The policy objective is to develop "a teaching profession that is ready and able to meet the needs of a democratic South Africa in the 21st century" (p. 4). The objective describes the overall strategy for the achievement of its end goal as "the successful recruitment, retention, and professional development of teachers" (p. 5). To achieve its objectives, the DBE collaborates with the South African Council for Educators (SACE) who are tasked, through the South African Council for Educators Act No. 31 of 2000 (amended), with enhancing the professional status of the teaching profession through the professional registration and licensing of teachers. Moreover, SACE develops and manages the CPTD policy and the implementation of its workshop programmes.

However, the DBE argues that, while the average time spent by teachers on professional development has improved since 2011 (from 36 hours to 40 hours in 2017), it remains far below the expected 80 hours per year (DBE 2020: 109). In the Action Plan to 2024: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2030, the DBE asserts that the capabilities of the teacher are one of the key factors influencing the learning chances of learners in South Africa (DBE 2020:22). To this effect, the plan emphasises the professionalism and capacity development of teachers to meet this need (Goal 16). This means that policy reforms see teachers as both the problem and the instruments through which reform can be made to the schooling system (Pesambili *et al.* 2022: 1).

[1] The study refers to teachers and their lived experiences. There may be instances where the term 'educators' is used, this is only in instances where a direct quotation from literature and policy documents is used.

The reviewed literature suggests that teachers are often blamed for the poor outcomes in the schooling system (Soudien 2007: 191; Bernstein & McCarthy 2011; Pesambili, Sayed & Stambach, 2022). In short, "The quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers" (Barber and Mourshed 2007: 16). Existing evidence shows that there are different ways to make sense of the problem of poor outcomes. Some suggest a knowledge gap problem. Key to the knowledge gap is content, which entails knowing one's subject matter as well as pedagogical knowledge which focuses on skills and methodologies for effective teaching and curriculum delivery (Jansen 2011: 107; Luneta 2012). Govender (2018) documented the experiences of teachers and found that teachers received poor support within schools and from officials in areas such as subject training, monitoring, and curriculum implementation.

Others have noted that there are more complex issues than mere teacher performance that contribute to the crumbling of South Africa's schooling system, such as racialised inequality, challenges with the language of instruction, inequality by geographic location and unequal financing, as well as poor infrastructure needs such as sufficient and safe classroom buildings, ablution facilities, libraries, science and computer laboratories (Soudien 2007; Bloch 2009; Murtin 2013; Spaull 2013; Spaull 2015; Kimathi & Rusznyak 2018; Hunter 2019; Le Grange 2021; Nakidien, Singh & Sayed 2021; Reimers 2022; Le Grange 2021). Teachers need adequate teaching materials, such as textbooks, adequate guides on how to deliver curriculum according to the DBE standards, and appropriate class sizes, all of which are lacking in some South African schools (Jansen 2011; Cross & Ndofirepi 2015; Sayed *et al* 2016; Botha & Rens 2018; DBE 2019; Nakidien et al 2021). Furthermore, Kgosimore (2012), Matoti (2013), Segalo and Rambuda (2018) all argued that school environments in which teachers operated were unsafe as there was violence and disrespect from learners in classrooms, which made it difficult for teachers to conduct their teaching as required. Working conditions of teachers in South Africa do not match the ideals set out in the policies that frame their work as being satisfactory and enabling the development of a quality education.

With the above background, this study was interested in determining the distance between policy statements and the experiences of teachers. It employed a qualitative research framework within a social constructivist paradigm. The study draws on 24 interviews with teachers who have worked in, and those currently working in, quintile 1 - 3 schools in Katlehong Township, Gauteng Province. The study also analysed key policy documents that focus on teacher professional development, the National Policy Framework on Teacher

Education and Development (NPFTED) in South Africa (2007) and the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (ISPFTED henceforth) (2011-2025). The study argues that education policies in South Africa do not account for the complex social realities that teachers are faced with in their differentiated schooling contexts.

The implementation of policy through workshop programmes is not always in line with the needs of teachers. Teachers reported a lack of relevance and relatability in the content covered in the CPTD workshop programmes owing to the decontextualised nature of the programmes and levels of school functionality within which teachers work. Moreover, the challenges teachers encountered in classrooms were tied to historical legacies of inequality within the education system. Driving a quality education for teachers in the quintile 1 - 3 schools in Katlehong sees the teachers shifting between various professional and other social identities to provide meaningful learning experiences. The study tells us about the distance between policy formulation and implementation.

1.2 Problem Statement

Jansen (2011; 2019) has argued that the key issue is that South Africa has a policy overload, whereby policies are constantly being formulated and amended, even though there is no astounding difference between each one and the implementation processes. This study was concerned with the gap between the formulation of CPTD policies and their implementation through workshop programmes as experienced by teachers in quintiles 1 - 3 in Katlehong Township, Gauteng Province.

Some of the existing qualitative studies on teachers' experiences with CPTD focus on the practical aspects of the training in terms of how the workshop programmes are conducted and the required improvements (Lessing & de Witt 2007; Steyn 2008; Mokhele & Jita 2010; Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015). Considering the reviewed literature, there is a gap in terms of how teachers perceive CPTD policy and workshop programmes as well as the value that the CPTD policies and associated workshop programmes play in equipping teachers as drivers of quality education. There is a necessity to read the policy documents alongside the experiences of teachers.

This study contributes to existing research through its qualitative inquiry that specifically looks into policy statements, teachers' understanding of policy statements, teachers' experiences of CPTD workshop programmes, and the general conditions within which they teach. To understand the mismatch between policy formulation and implementation, this study privileged teachers' everyday experiences and meanings concerning the policies that frame their work and the CPTD workshop programmes put in place by the DBE to support them as being the key drivers of quality schooling system.

1.3 Research Question (s)

This study seeks to answer the following main question:
What are quintile 1-3 school teachers' experiences of CPTD workshop programmes and do the teachers see the policy and associated workshop programmes as being able to enhance their ability to provide quality education?

Specific research questions:

1. What are the quintile 1-3 teachers' experiences of CPTD workshop programmes?
2. What meanings do teachers construct about CPTD policy and workshop programmes as means to drive a quality education?
3. Is there a gap in the formulation of the CPTD policies and their implementation?

1.4 Aims and Objectives of the Study

This study investigated the quintile 1-3 teachers' experiences of the implementation of the CPTD workshop programmes and the impact of policy and associated workshop programmes on developing quality education.
Specifically, the study sought:

1. To explore quintile 1-3 teachers' experiences of the CPTD workshop programmes;
2. To explore the meanings that teachers attribute to CPTD policy and workshop programmes as means to driving a quality education; and
3. To investigate whether there is a gap in the formulation and implementation of CPTD policy.

1.5 Rationale

The quintile ranking system in South Africa's schooling system groups schools that are similarly resourced in the same quintile, with quintile five being the schools that are the best resourced (these were historically racially segregated schools in the pre-1990s, which were well-resourced, and post-1990s where they raised funds from parents through higher school fees) and quintile one being the least resourced (these are schools located in poor areas and are no-fee-paying schools relying on the government subsidy alone) (White &Van Dyk 2019). Moreover, White and Van Dyk (2019: 6-8) argue that quintile 1 and 2 schools tend to be perceived as providing poor-quality education. This ranking and its association with poor-quality education are essential to this study's investigation as the rankings provide a lens for understanding teachers' experiences of CPTD policy and associated programmes as well as the possible hurdles to delivering quality education. Understanding teachers and their experiences is similar to understanding "troubles and issues, biography and history" (Bullough 2008:19). As such, this study explores and brings to light teachers' voices and experiences with CPTD workshop programmes in South Africa. By taking a sociological approach to the engagement between policy and teachers' experiences, this study seeks to add to existing knowledge on the persistent gap between policy formulation and implementation.

1.6 Outline of the dissertation chapters

Chapter one introduces the study by providing a background and context, highlighting the problem statement, objectives of the study, key research questions as well as the rationale of the study. Chapter two provides a literature review based on key literature. It focuses on the framing of South Africa's education system, the quality of the education system, teachers and their work, and CPTD globally and regional perspectives. Chapter three covers the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study. Chapter four reflects on the methodological processes undertaken to complete the study, which include all the various methods used to collect and analyse data as well as a detailed discussion of the setting for the study. Chapter five analyses two key documents outlining CPTD policies.in South Africa. It further provides teachers' understanding and experiences of CPTD policies through CPTD workshop programmes. Chapter six discusses the findings related to the context of teaching. Chapter seven summarises the findings. It also reflects on the limitations of the study and concludes by providing recommendations for policy interventions and future research.

Chapter 2:
Teachers' professional development within a complex education system

2.1 Introduction

The reviewed literature on the professional development of teachers in South Africa points to historical continuities and discontinuities within the education system which impact the implementation of educational policy reforms. Chisholm (2012: 84) suggests that to understand legacies within education "it is necessary to situate educational development within broader economic and social processes and to see educational change as part of a complex social reality". It is this 'complex social reality' of South Africa that this study highlights in understanding the connection between teachers' everyday experiences and the implementation of the CPTD policy and workshop programmes. This chapter contextualises South Africa's schooling system, unpacks the framing of quality education, discusses the framing of the work of teachers, reviews CPTD policy roots in South Africa and discusses teachers' experiences of CPTD globally and in South Africa.

2.2 Contextualising South Africa's education system

The starting point for this section is apartheid South Africa (i.e. 1948) because the period coincided with the massification of schooling and the official takeover of schooling by the state. In line with its segregationist laws, the apartheid regime used education as an instrumentto reinforce its economic, social, and political dominance, while advancing white superiority (citation). This segregation was institutionalised through various laws and policies defined through racial lines, which included The Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953 [focusing on Black African people], the Coloured Persons Education Act No. 47 Of 1953 [focusing on Coloured people], the Indian Education Act No. 61 of 1965 [focusing on Indian people] and, finally, the National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967 [focusing on White people] (Hyslop 1989; Christie 1991; Hyslop 1999; Chisholm 2012; Sayed, Kanjee and Nkomo 2013; Thobejane 2013). Consequently, funding for schooling was unequally distributed and racialised, with the education for white people being superior and that of Black people in general inferior.

South Africa's transition towards democracy in 1994 sought to transform the schooling system and ensure equity and access to education for all. Policy reform has been at the centre of the efforts towards this (Jansen 2002; Jansen 2011; Chisholm 2012; Sayed & Kanjee 2013). One of the key tasks for the government was to dissolve eighteen racially segregated education departments into one unified system[2] that was institutionalised under the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996. Goddard (2018) suggests that regime change, and socioeconomic inequalities are two constant contexts informing the development of education policies. Along with these, some studies (Christie 1997; Clercq 1997; Jansen 2004) also argue that education policy in South Africa is influenced by international trends and philosophies, which further complicate the education policy landscape. Education policies in South Africa are riddled with complications such that some scholars have considered South Africa's policy overload and the distance between policy formulation and implementation in the education system (Jansen & Sayed 2001; Jansen 2002; Jansen 2004; Jansen 2011; Chisholm 2012; Sayed & Kanjee 2013; Jansen 2019). The key issue is that of a mismatch between policy intentions, practice and effects of policy (Jansen & Sayed 2001). Jansen (2019) continued to argue that there is a persistent gap between policy formulation and implementation.

2.2.1 Quintile ranking of schools

This section briefly outlines the quintile ranking system of schools in South Africa to lay a foundation for the study's specific context for teachers and their experiences. Moreover, this section highlights how the historical inequalities in the schooling system persist in the post-apartheid era.

Existing literature (Khumalo 2014; White & Van Dyk 2019; Maistry & Africa 2020) defines the quintile ranking system as a policy reform within the post-apartheid era aimed at redressing imbalances and redistributing resources where the expenditure by racial group had been unequal. Dass & Rinquest (2017) and Adams (2020) argue that, in 1992, the expenditure on White learners was four times what was allocated to Black learners[3]. Consequently, the post-apartheid government sought to 'level the playing field' and bring about equality and justice.

[2] The one unified system refers to the National Education Department that consists of nine provincial departments serving as a sub-system to the national system (Reviews of National Policies for Education 2009; Sayed & Kanjee 2013)
[3] As of 1994, the annual *per capita* expenditure was R5403 for White learners, R4687 for Indian learners, R3691 for Coloured learners and between R1053 and R2184 for Black learners *(Department of Education Report of the committee to review the organisation, governance, and funding of schools (1995)*

As such, the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 mandated the state to fund all public schools to ensure adequately that all learners have access to education, which is a constitutional right for all. Through the National Norms and Standards for School Funding (NNSSF) policy, the government initiated the quintile ranking system to ensure equitable financing of schools.

The quintile system ranks schools based on the poverty levels where they are located, with quintile 1 - 3 schools being the poorest and designated no-fee-paying schools. The quintile 1 – 3 schools are allocated more funding from the government, while quintiles 4 and 5 are fee-paying and are more affluent schools (Mestry & Ndlovu 2014; Khumalo 2014; White & Van Dyk 2019; Maistry & Africa 2020). The specific criteria include three key factors: the poverty level of the community; the geographical area in which the school is located; and the literacy level of the community (Mestry & Ndlovu 2014; Khumalo 2014; Maistry & Africa 2020).

While the quintile ranking system may seem like a transformative policy reform to redress and redistribute, its drive towards equality still affirms the inequalities embedded in the apartheid schooling system. For instance, the criteria consider the location of schools and rank them according to the poverty levels of that location, which is similar to the spatial segregation under apartheid whereby good facilities were located in specific areas meant for specific races[4]. Khumalo (2014: page number) also argues that under apartheid "good schools were located in selected areas". As highlighted in studies by Mestry & Ndlovu (2014) and White & Van Dyk (2019), there is a perception that well-off schools in quintiles 4 to 5 provide quality education, while schools in the lower quintiles are often associated with providing poor quality education. These perceptions are visible in parental choices in schooling, whereby some parents take their children to quintile 4 to 5 schools, which are commonly located in well-off and suburban areas in pursuit of better education opportunities (Hunter 2016; 2019).

Essentially, the family and community economic levels have an impact on a learners' schooling experience. In pointing out the complexities of socio-economic mobility and the various strategies families use to attain better educational opportunities, Hunter (2019: 200) argues that in post-apartheid South Africa "the quality of education a learner experiences is still largely

[4] This was done through two key Acts: The Group Areas Act No 41 of 1950 which reinforced segregation by designation specific geographic areas according to race. The Separate Amenities Act No 49 of 1953 which racially divided access to public facilities such as buildings and transport.

determined by where they live and by what racial group the school was originally built for", affirming the legacy of racial segregation in schooling.

The literature on the quintile ranking of schools speaks to issues of resource allocations, economic inequalities within the system and the overall impact of these on the quality of learning and teaching in various schools. However, one also finds that it provides a complex context through which teachers' experiences with their work and the CPTD policy reform can be understood, with the consideration of schools as key sites for learning and teaching processes.

2.2.2 Framing quality education

With post-apartheid policy reforms aimed at transforming the quality of education, Chisholm (2012); Murtin (2013), and Spaull (2013) note some progress in the access to education for a majority of South Africans. Yet, the quality of education remains low for the majority of Black Africans (Murtin 2013; Spaull 2013; Khumalo 2014; Hunter 2019; Adams 2020). This points back to Boisserie's (2004: 1) argument that "in today's world, simply getting children into schools is not enough". Given the consideration of the various contexts and trajectories in South Africa's education system, it is important to reflect on the framing of quality education briefly.

2.2.2.1 Global perspective on quality education

From a global perspective (UNICEF 2000), the quality of education is characterized by dynamic political, cultural, and economic contexts that place the well-being of the learner at the centre. In its framing, UNICEF (2000) identifies learners, environment, content, process and outcomes as key dimensions of focus to ensure quality education. These dimensions tackle learners' health, well-being, safety, and protection. Additionally, it focusses on the safety and resourcing of schooling environments, as well as a curriculum that provides learners with skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their positive participation in society. Finally, these focus on ensuring that teachers are well-trained and equipped with effective teaching approaches to facilitate learning and reduce inequalities (UNICEF 2000; UN 2021).

2.2.2.2 South African perspectives of a quality education

In defining its vision for quality education through the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996, the democratic government set out to "provide an education of progressively high quality

for all learners and in so doing lay a strong foundation for the development of all our people's talents and capabilities, advance the democratic transformation of society" (SASA Act No. 84 of 1996: 5). The framing of quality education in South Africa is embedded in ideals of progress, transformation, equity and justice considering its history with inequalities. As much as these ideals seem progressive, they lead to greater inequalities instead of eradicating them. This is because the policy constructions of quality education are symbolic of a redress culture rather than being value-laden for the learning individuals (Motala 2001, Jansen 2002). For instance, the emphasis on learners having access to education does not speak to the long-term impact this access has on their lives and overall society. It is what they do with this education which should define the quality of the education system.

Similarly, Spaull (2015: 34) defines quality education as "the acquisition of the knowledge, skills, and values that society deems valuable". All of these are linked to an individual's ability to contribute impactfully to society. The knowledge acquired in education includes both content and a social knowledge set to prepare learners for their prospective career paths and interactions with others. However, scholars point to a content knowledge gap in South Africa's schooling system that is linked to the inequalities in resources and the funding of schools (Jansen 2011; Luneta 2012; Venkat 2019). Moreover, the skills that learners acquire from education include critical and independent thinking. The values fostered within education are those of a transformative society, including social justice, humanity, diversity and fairness (SASA 1996, Chisholm 1999).

Further, existing literature (Spaull 2013; Murtin 2013; Arends, Juan & Reddy 2019) argues that the quality of education is measured through learner outcomes, particularly in Mathematicsand Literacy. In South Africa, these outcomes are evaluated through the annual National Senior Certificate (NSC) exams and international assessments for educational outcomes. The international assessments include the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), Progress in International Reading and Literacy Studies (PIRLS), and, regionally, through the Southern and Eastern Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SAQMEC). An in-depth analysis of the outcomes of these assessments reveals the social and economic disparities across provinces, the need for quality teacher training, the need for adequate infrastructure and learning deficits, among other things. These, in turn, affect the learner's access to further education and sustainable employment opportunities (Soudien 2007; Chisholm 2012; Spaull 2013; Murtin 2013; Arends, Juan &Reddy 2019; Reddy *et al* 2019).

While improvements in some learner outcomes over the years are noted, the outcomes in Mathematics and Literacy are still at an all-time low in comparison to the world and the African continent. The TIMSS 2019[5] report places South Africa at the bottom three out of 39 countries that participated (Reddy *et al* 2019). Nonetheless, there were some improvements in Mathematics and science. Learners improved with 41% having acquired basic Mathematics knowledge and 36 % having acquired basic science knowledge (Reddy *et al* 2019). PIRLS (2021) shows South Africa's performance for grade 4 learners at 288 points and grade 6 learners at 384, both below the international average of 500 points in comparison to other countries taking part in the evaluation. The NSC results for 2023 at 82,9% boasted a 2,8% increase from 2022 (DBE 2023). Scholars question the quality of NSC results arguing that the quality of the passes is skewed as most learners do not achieve a Bachelor pass, which enables them to access further education and work opportunities (Murtin 2013; Spaull 2013; Spaull 2015). For context, 40,9 % of the 82,9% pass rate of 2023 achieved bachelor passes, which qualify them for university education. Even so, not all will be able to access University education without adequate funding to receive full admission to universities. Spaull (2013: 3) wrote that "South Africa's education system is grossly inefficient, severely underperforming and egregiously unfair". Two years later, Spaull argued that poor learners perform poorly meaning that "the poor quality of education that learners receive helps drive an intergenerational cycle of poverty" (Spaull, 2015: 34).

The schooling system in South Africa, at least in many schools in townships and rural areas, is also characterised by infrastructure challenges. Amsterdam (2010: 1) argues that "just as conceptions of school infrastructure differ across contexts, so do priorities for school infrastructure provision and maintenance". For example, many township and rural schools do not have sufficient classrooms, ablution facilities, libraries, science laboratories and technological infrastructure for teaching and learning (Bloch 2009; Spaull 2015; Kimathi & Rusznyak 2018; Hunter 2019; Meier & West 2020; Le Grange 2021; Nakidien, Singh & Sayed 2021; Reimers 2022). Importantly, these are the same schools where teachers are required to drive quality education. However, conducive working conditions for teachers in terms of infrastructure, safety and resources are not adequate in these marginalized geographicalsettings (Luschei & Chudgar 2013; Sayed *et al* 2016; Nkambule 2022).

[5] South Africa recently participated in the TIMSS assessment in 2023. However, results for this will only be published and accessible from December 2024, according to the TIMSS timeline.

2.2.2.3 A quality education within complicated social realities

> "The psychosocial well-being of learners from early childhood to higher education is also central to the success of a good quality education system. Other government policies, such as the provision of housing, basic services, and social security, are therefore critical for building an education system that benefits all learners" (NDP 2011:263).

The discussion on the framing of a quality education system in South Africa thus far reveals that this ideal is located within a complex history of inequality affecting broader society. Another key factor that becomes a compelling aspect in the framing of quality education within the provided framework is the issue of family, which stems from the complex social realities within which quality education is framed for South Africa.

Rabe (2014: 221) argues that the family as an enduring social institution is the "primary source of the most powerful process, socialisation". Hunter (2019) argued that learners' socioeconomic background and where they come from play a part in the quality of learning they receive. This speaks to families. The families that learners come from play an important role. Furthermore, Hall & Mokomane (2018) indicate that children in South Africa live withincomplex family dynamics shaped by ever-changing societal functions. Importantly, these complex family dynamics affect children's educational experiences in schools. As such, someof the societal dynamics that play out in communities and within families manifest as limitations for meaningful educational processes. Moyo, Khewu & Bayaga (2014) reveal issuesof violence and vandalism within schools, which mirror what happens within South African societies carrying a difficult history of violence. Additionally, Ndofirepi, Makaye & Ndofirepi(2012) point to issues of ill-discipline in schools. These dynamics reveal that the framing of quality education within a South African context is difficult and must consider notions of socialjustice and redress.

Other complexities regarding framing a quality education in South Africa include issues with learning capabilities and problems with dropping out. As such, the DBE set a learner progression policy. According to Mogale and Modipane (2021: 1), the policy was "intended for learners who had been retained for more than 4 years in a phase". Kika and Kotze (2019) pointed out that the dropout rate is higher around grade 9.

2.3 Framing teachers' work

Teachers are framed as both subjects and agents of change within struggling education systems across the world (Thomas 2005; Seetal 2006; Pesambili, Sayed & Stambach, 2022). This dual framing presents an opportunity to engage meaningfully with teachers' experiences and understanding of their work. It also reveals the nature of education policy and practice in South Africa, which is "complex, contradictory and faced with dilemmas" (Welch 2002: 17). This section outlines the various ways in which teachers and their work are framed.

Historically, the experiences and constructions of teachers across the racially divided apartheid schooling system were underpinned by their relation to the state in terms of representation and participation. Sebakwane (1997) and Chisholm (1999) argue that teachers in white schools benefited from autonomy and representation in state policymaking. The experience of teachers in Black schools was embedded in negotiation, consultation, and participation, with no representation in state-level policymaking (Sebakwane 1997; Chisholm 1999). Moreover, the control of Black teachers' work was characterised by bureaucracy, hierarchy, authoritarian relations as well as patriarchal dynamics. The patriarchal framing was evident in that departmental officials were mostly male rather than female (Chisholm 1999; Welch 2002). Additionally, Chisholm (2019: 3) argues that the university training of teachers was involved in preparing "white male secondary school teachers" and "women as primary school teachers" (ibid.). The system did not encourage teacher autonomy and agency, but rather teachers were pushed to work and remain loyal subjects to the state. This control was also evident in the training of teachers, which was characterised by monitoring and surveillance rather than support and professional development through inspection policies (Chetty 1993; Sebakwane 1997; Chisholm 1999; Welch 2002; Gallie 2006; Chisholm 2019; Shalem & De Clercq 2019). Shalem & De Clercq (2019: 255) argue that "real meaningful pre- and in-service education for most Black teachers was not on the agenda and contributed to severe inequality in the distribution of teacher development". This affirmed racial segregation in the low statusafforded to Black teachers in the apartheid era.

The DBE website defines teaching as "a noble profession that requires passion, commitment, tolerance, perseverance, character and the dedication to make a difference in the lives of a diverse group of young and older children" (DBE 2022: np). This provides an optimistic and value-laden perspective of teachers and their work. This framing of teachers' work as a noble

profession presents a prescription for what is required of teachers to make a difference in society. It further resembles the notions of 'performativity' and 'accountability' in the regulation of teachers' work and their professional identities (Pesambili *et al.* 2022). Teachers are expected to demonstrate particular values listed in the definition and are evaluated according to these. Moreover, this framing does not acknowledge the realities and conditions that teachers have to deal with in schools. Weber's (2007) use of "globalisation" and "glocalisation" as conceptual frameworks to understand the framing of teachers' work within the context of globalisation and neoliberalism further affirms the foundations of the symbolic framing of teachers' work within South African policy.

The reviewed literature (Kimathi & Rusznyak 2018; Botha & Rens 2018; Pesambili *et al.* 2022) reveals the complex and intricate nature of teachers' work evident in their day-to-day practice in schools and classrooms. Kimathi & Rusznyak (2018) posit that teachers' work requires expert and specialised knowledge and skills which are to be maintained through continuous study (Kimathi & Rusznyak 2018; Botha & Rens 2018). Kimathi & Rusznyak (2018) see teaching as a knowledge-based and professional endeavour rather than routine work, which means that the work of teaching is dynamic and involves varied interactions between teachers and learners regularly. Additionally, Botha and Rens (2018:2) argue that teachers have to deal with academic and emotional realities that involve an overwhelming workload that extends beyond their academic responsibilities and includes extensive administrative work and emotional work in teachers' daily interactions with learners. They further argue that these complex responsibilities are then coupled with a lack of the support that should be given to ensure that teachers meet these demands. This lack of support and provision includes adequate infrastructure, safety from violence, and adequate material to assist with carrying out their work of teaching in classrooms as well as a lack of support for teachers themselves (Jansen 2011; Sayed *et al.* 2016; Botha & Rens 2018; Kgosimore 2018; Segalo & Rambuda 2018; Nakidien *et al* 2021). The literature demonstrates the need not only to view the work of teaching as a simple task of conveying curricular-based knowledge but see it also as relational and emotional work.

Connell (2009: 214 - 215) provides global perceptions of what makes a good teacher and argues that, in the Chinese Confucian tradition, a teacher is seen as a moral authority, while in contemporary England the teacher is perceived as a competent craftsperson, a reflective practitioner and a charismatic practitioner. In the South African context, the teacher was seen

as a subject of policy framings as well as "compliant technicians", implying that teachers' competence is based on their compliance with the state's notions and assertions of their work (Jansen 2001; Connell 2009). Connell (2009) further argues that perceptions of teachers have shifted as schooling systems have evolved from colonial rule, especially in the South African context. This shows the contextual nature of how teachers and their work are perceived (Connell 2009; Jansen 2011; Chisholm 2012; Cross & Ndofirepi 2015; Nakidien *et al* 2021). However, these framings still mirror the legacies of apartheid hierarchies and a lack of autonomy for teachers. This is demonstrated in the continued framing of teachers' knowledge capabilities in relation to quality education (Jansen 2011; Luneta 2012).

Interestingly, the 'Action Plan 2020: towards 2024' acknowledges problems with teachers' lack of subject content knowledge and demonstrates how these impact South African teachers' capacity to enable quality learner outcomes. The Action Plan also argues that teachers' capabilities go beyond content/subject knowledge and require a focus on improved professionalism, which aids teachers in effectively delivering quality content in classrooms and ultimately leads to a quality education system that enriches both learners and teachers (DBE 2020). CPTDs have been developed to help meet the goal of a quality education system.

2.4 Continuous Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) in Context

2.4.1 Defining CPTD, its place and importance in education

Existing literature (Luneta 2012; Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015; Kempen & Steyn 2016; John 2018, Bernadine 2019) argues that professional development aims to enhance learning outcomes through improving teacher quality and further develop teacher skills and competencies to address concerns around the quality of education. In practice, this involves teachers supporting learning processes (Postholm 2012). Beyond this, scholars (Lessing & de Witt 2007; Steyn 2008; Mokhele & Jita 2010; Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015; Kempen & Steyn 2017) suggest that intensive professional development helps improve classroom practices and schools. These arguments point to the idea that the professional development of teachers helps in the enrichment of the learning experience reflected in improved classroom practices and the functioning of schools. Specifically, Coetzer (2001) defines CPTD as "any activities aimed at enhancing the knowledge and skills of teachers by means of orientation, training and support" (Coetzer 2001, as cited by Lessing & de Witt 2007: 55). It is apparent

from the reviewed literature that professional development is aimed at training and supporting the teacher for the benefit of the learners.

Jansen (2011) contends that South Africa invests heavily in teacher training compared to other African countries. Yet, there remains a knowledge problem in the South African education landscape where teachers lack the knowledge required for effective teaching and learning processes in schools (Jansen 2011: 107). Similarly, Luneta (2012) argues that professional development specifically targets the improvement of teachers' pedagogical and content knowledge, which are key to effective learning processes within schools.

While the content and pedagogical knowledge are at the centre of professional development training, Jansen (2011) lists various examples of knowledge that are at play and key to effective and impactful teaching and learning processes. These will vary owing to the differentiated schooling context and learners' social conditions. These include *Psychology* [the knowledge of learners], *epistemology* [the knowledge about knowledge], *anthropology*, s*ociology of learning* [the knowledge of the communities in which learners come], and, lastly, *managerial knowledge* [classroom organisation and discipline] (Jansen 2011:107). This shows that teaching and learning processes are inherently complex. It also demonstrates the complexity of teachers' work and the idea that they are the drivers of quality education. As such, effective professional development programmes for teachers ought to address the complexities of teachers' work, especially the various knowledge competencies (Jansen 2011; Luneta 2012).

2.4.2 Origins and development of CPTD policy in South Africa

The history behind the development of CPTD policy can be located within South Africa's history with apartheid. Chisholm (2012: 93) affirms that poor quality of schooling is a legacy of apartheid where "teachers were unequally schooled, qualified and trained". Sebakwane (1997) argues that, from 1954, teacher training in the various Bantustans was monopolised by the Nationalist government. As such, the training produced agents for segregated schooling and further downgraded the status of the Black teacher (Sebakwane 1997). Gallie (2006: 2) argues that professional development and policy reforms have their origins in the "strained relationship between the government and teachers". This argument is made in the context of a study Gallie (2006) conducted on the lack of implementation of the Development Appraisal System (DAS) which was formulated in 1998 as a means to advance the professional status of the teaching profession and the professional development of teachers. Gallie (2006: 2) further

argued that, during the apartheid era, the relationship between teachers and the government was characterised by mistrust and punishment. Chetty (1993) and Gallie (2006) argue that the appraisal policy in place during apartheid was an inspection policy aimed at control and surveillance of teachers instead of their professional development, especially of Black teachers.

The CPTD policy in South Africa is a result of the quality assurance activities within the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) (Singh 2011; Johns 2018). The IQMS system is a performance management system that focuses on the appraisal of teachers' work and performance. According to Kimathi & Rusznyak (2018: 10), the IQMS was developed as a response to the "unsatisfactory results seen in terms of learner achievement in South African schools". The IQMS system comprises development appraisal, performance measurement and whole school evaluation (Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015; Johns 2018; Kimathi & Rusznyak 2018).

Specifically, CPTD is a policy initiative from the government that is targeted towards improving the quality of in-service teacher education as there were gaps within teacher training which affected teaching in schools and schooling cultures (Singh 2011; Onwu & Seehole 2015; Johns 2018). However, the assertion that CPTD is aimed at improving the quality of in-service teacher training points to a deeper problem with teachers' professional development and this stems from their initial training. CPTD, as it is framed, ought to update teachers' knowledge and skills in line with the developing societal needs and changes, not merely to improve the quality of in-service teachers.

In July 2009, the DBE, SACE, teacher unions and various other education stakeholders held a first-of-its-kind summit focused on working through the challenges faced by teachers in the area of teacher training and development. A key outcome of this summit was a collaborative plan in the form of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, 2011-2025 (ISPFTED). A key goal of this framework is "to improve the quality of teacher education and development to improve the quality of teachers and teaching" (DBE & SACE 2011: 4).

Additionally, the argument from participants in the summit in relation to the development of the ISFPTED 2011 - 2025 was that the problem with South Africa's poor-quality education was teachers' incompetence, their lack of "subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content

knowledge" (DBE & SACE 2011). This conception brought into light how the work of teaching is largely perceived as being knowledge-based work, where teaching is about providing and conveying particular sets of knowledge in schools. The DBE and SACE (2011) thus acknowledged that there was a need for training and professional development for teachers to improve their knowledge.

While a vast majority of literature focuses on teachers' experiences and perceptions of CPTD programmes across different levels, there needs to be literature focusing on the availability/creation of conditions necessary for the effective professional development of teachers. Darling-Hammon, Hyler & Gardner (2017: vi) argue that "conditions for teaching and learning both within schools and at the broader, system-level can inhibit the effectiveness of PD". This emphasises the need for policy development to consider the conditions and varied contexts within which teachers teach and which need to be engaged through professional development programmes. This will ensure that the programmes are meaningful for teachers and have a lasting impact on school practices.

2.4.3 CPTD in practice

SACE, as mandated by the SACE Act 31 of 2000 (amended), organises and manages CPTD in South Africa. For teachers to practise in South Africa, they need to be registered with SACE, and, by their registration, they are required to earn professional development points which count towards the enhancement of their professional skills. Teachers have to select approved activities, as provided for by SACE, to meet their professional growth needs (Steyn 2008; Mokhele & Jita 2010; Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015). The practice of the CPTD policy takes the form of various models, which are "categorised according to the sites where they take place" (Luneta 2012: 367). These models and sites include off-site programmes (such as workshop programmes and seminars), school-based, school-focused, university and school partnerships and distance education (Bantwini 2009; Luneta 2012).

South Africa's model for CPTD programmes involves three key activities/models (Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015). These models are based on activities led by various stakeholders. The first activity is "teacher priority activities", which are activities that teachers choose for themselves as being key to their development and enhancing their professional skills. These activities speak to teachers' agency in defining their professional development and needs. The

second group is "school priority activities", which are set by school management (including principals and school governing bodies) and the teachers. These activities focus on improving learning conditions and processes from a school development and institutional perspective. The third and final group includes "profession priority activities" that are specific to enhancing a teacher's professional status and practices. Moreover, teachers have a choice with regard to addressing CPTD challenges at their level. It is not a blanket approach to the general professional needs of teachers. Therefore, CPTD is meant to be a collaborative effort between schools and teachers to drive the initiative of developing teachers' knowledge and professional skills, but research shows this is not always the case (Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015).

2.4.4 Teachers' CPTD experiences

This section aims to highlight the experiences of professional development in different contexts briefly to ascertain how professional development is understood and how it plays out in different teaching and learning contexts.

2.4.4.1 Global Framings of CPTD: Perspectives from UNESCO, China, Australia, and Bangladesh

The Global Report on Teachers by UNESCO (2024) demonstrates the importance of having a qualified teaching force to achieve SDG 4, and, most importantly, to attain quality education for all. To this effect, UNESCO also acknowledges that, for the effective attainment of SDG 4, together with the international community, UNESCO has the role of ensuring that "teachersand educators are empowered, adequately recruited, well-trained, professionally qualified, motivated and supported within well-resourced, efficient, and effectively governed systems" (UNESCO 2024:16). International research studies emphasise the connection between professional development and quality teaching practices in classrooms. Reflecting on global studies conducted in China, Australia, and Bangladesh, Xaso, Galloway & Adu (2017) demonstrate that professional development aimed at enhancing teachers' professional knowledge and skills should be collaborative, continuous and committed to preparing learners for the contemporary societal needs and values (Dall' Aba & Sandberg 2006; Doecke *et al* 2008; Alam *et al* 2010; Xaso *et al* 2017).

2.4.4.2 African/Regional CPTD experiences: The case of Zimbabwe and Ghana

South Africa employs a substantial number of migrant teachers, the majority being from Zimbabwe (Weda & De Villiers 2017; 2019). A key reason for this is the need to alleviate teacher shortages in Mathematics and science in the South African schooling system. Studies on professional development in Zimbabwe point to the emphasis on teachers' autonomy and agency in teacher training, which includes opportunities and experiences that promote teachers' professional growth and development (Kangai & Bukaliya 2011; Mukeredzi 2013; Xaso *et al* 2017). Importantly, Kangai & Bukaliya (2011) suggest that teacher training and the continuing professional development of teachers in Zimbabwe take on various models, such as school-based, district-based and distance training programmes. All are aimed at ensuring that Zimbabwe's teaching force is qualified and skilled enough to provide quality teaching and learning in their classrooms. The qualification is focused on key subject areas.

Similarly, Ghana places emphasis on subject knowledge, particularly for Mathematics and science teachers as these subjects are seen as being key to economic development and technological advancement (Abreh 2018). As such, the CPTD opportunities provided to Maths and science teachers focus on capacity building in the form of training workshops offered by schools and the Ghana Education Service. The training includes conferences, specifically the Mathematical Association of Ghana (MAG) conference, aimed at providing teachers with "new sets of knowledge, skills and aptitudes" (Abreh 2018:92). Therefore, the CPTD of Mathematics and science teachers in Ghana takes different forms and opportunities aimed at improving teachers' knowledge and skills to help them improve their teaching practices for improved learner outcomes.

2.4.4.3 South African teachers' experiences of CPTD

The implementation of the CPTD system in South Africa is often the focus of many empirical studies (Lessing & de Witt 2007; Somo 2007; Ntloana 2009; Gulston 2010; Mestry & Singh 2010; Mokhele & Jita 2010; Steyn 2010; Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015; Roux 2018; Johns 2018; Smit 2020 among others). The studies explore teachers' experiences of the CPTD system. There is consensus in the literature that CPTD workshop programmes are valuable for enhancing learning experiences in classrooms. The studies also show the differences in teachers' experiences with the CPTD policy and its workshop programmes. Three key issues that are discernible from these differentiated experiences are: 1. Lack of support and planning

from school leaders; 2. CPTD activities offered do not meet teachers' professional needs; and 3. Difficult conditions within schools hinder teachers' participation in the CPTD programmes. These issues tend to overlap, given that the teachers investigated worked in schools within marginalised contexts.

The first discernible issue is in the leadership and management of schools. In their study within the Limpopo province, Somo (2007) investigated foundation-phase teachers' experiences of professional development programmes in their schools within the Limpopo Province. Somo found that teachers were not provided with any professional development support. Moreover, the author argues that the DHs and deputy principals, assigned with the responsibility of ensuring that these activities were initiated and that teachers received the necessary support and professional development, were not trained nor were they supported in their roles as DHsand Deputy principals to carry out this aspect of their role effectively. This, in turn, impacted the overall experience of teachers' professional development.

Similarly, Mestry & Singh (2007) and Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen (2015) in their studies also argue that principals, the custodians of school management, ought to be exposed to effective and innovative management and leadership skills so that they can manage schools effectively and address the educational and teacher needs in their schools, as these are directly linked to the CPTD needs of teachers. In a study investigating teachers' challenges with CPTD workshop programmes, Gulston (2010) also found that schools did not have proper plans to lead the CPTD of teachers. Moreover, the principals, who are mandated by SACE, did not adequately support the professional development of the teachers and so teachers had to navigate aspects of their professional development entirely on their own. It was a challenge for new teachers who had to figure out their professional development.

Key evidence in the studies discussed above is a gap of adequate knowledge and support from school leadership who manage the running and provision of professional development activities at a school level. The CPTD policy outlines various CPTD activities that teachers must participate in for their professional development. While some activities are at a district level, the school management is meant to support teacher's professional development. Moreover, the reviewed studies by Somo (2007), Gulston (2010), and Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen (2015) were conducted in the rural and township areas across various provinces, such as Limpopo, Gauteng (Mamelodi-West), Eastern Cape, highlighting the disparities across

different provinces and the continued marginalisation of rural and township schools in South Africa.

Given the disparities in teachers' experiences with CPTD training in their schools, the literature (Luneta 2012; Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015; Kempen & Steyn 2016; Feldman 2016; Feldman 2020; Van der Merwe & Dasoo 2021) suggests collaborative systems for effective teacher professional developments, fostering networks between teachers and schools to enhance both learning outcomes and quality teaching. Specifically, Luneta (2012), Feldman (2016, 2020), and Van der Merwe & Dasoo (2021) see teachers as carriers of practice, arguing that teachers are socially situated and so are their practices which are (re)produced within teaching and learning processes in schools. As such, their studies call for the collaborative practice of Peer Learning Communities (PLCs) as effective ways to implement effective and meaningful CPTD programmes that place teachers as role players and adult learners within their professional development. Moreover, the literature argues that CPTD practice centred around PLCs fosters meaningful pedagogical development for teachers, which aligns with policy requirements of teachers' enhanced knowledge based on pedagogy and subject knowledge. Similarly, Nhlumayo (2022; 2024) calls for school-based CPTD practice that engages teachers in their specific schooling contexts together with their school management to enhance teachers' skills and professional capacity in responding to crises and poor learner outcomes. The studies calling for collaborative and school based CPTD systems speak to deliberate intentions to change education processes on the ground effectively, a consideration lacking in South Africa's education policymaking that is underpinned by political intentions (Jansen 2001).

The reviewed literature also affirmed that, while teachers were eager to participate in CPTD programmes, some of the CPTD programmes they were offered did not address their professional needs. Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen (2015) found that, often, CPTD did not address teachers' needs and, therefore, was not meaningful to them. Johns (2018), who investigated the implementation of the CPTD policy in the rural and urban contexts of the Western Cape, argued that the implementation is rushed and takes on a one-size-fits-all approach, which leads to the activities being meaningless and not serving teachers' professional needs. However, Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen (2015) point out that, while this may have been the case for some teachers, others saw it as being fruitful. Those with positive views were often more reflective about their teaching career and their involvement with CPTD programmes and workshops.

The study by Smit (2020) focuses on the experiences of teachers with the implementation of Type-2 CPTD activities in public high schools. Type 2 CPTD activities are school-led initiatives towards teachers' professional development. In investigating this aspect of the CPTD programmes, Smit (2020) argues that teachers found a gap where their developmental needs were not addressed by the school activities. Specifically, teachers in the study criticisedthe poor quality of the professional development initiatives provided as well as no follow-up measures for the development and appraisal of teachers. It can, thus, be argued that, in terms of implementation, the CPTD policy is put into effect in the schools, but it does not align with teacher's needs specifically for continuous support in their development to ensure effective change in their teaching practices, knowledge and skills.

While many Gauteng schools have set up PLCs, this remains uneven across schools and provinces (DBE 2020: 109). There appears to be a great challenge and disparity with professional development initiatives across different schools. As asserted in the Action Plan to 2024: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2030, it is telling that the provinces with "the greatest burdens of poverty and the worst learning outcomes among learners are precisely those provinces whose teachers experience the largest subject knowledge gaps" (DBE 2020: 110).

Similarly, in their study on the extent to which the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Professional Development (PD) orientation for Intermediate Phase teachers was successful, Ntloana (2009) found that, while the NCS PD programme achieved its intended outcomes, the majority of teachers were still struggling to implement the policy in line with its requirements. They argued that the planning for the PD activities was conducted by subject advisors and not by the teachers. Ntloana (2009) further argues that this created a dependency on teachers, taking away their agency in their professional development. Moreover, Ntloana (2009) found that the same plans developed by the subject advisors required teachers to customise them as they did not consider the teacher's schooling contexts. This demonstrates how the agency of teachers in planning their professional development in line with the CPTD policy may be ableto create effective and easy-to-implement professional development programmes.

Taking a similar stance, Roux (2018) investigated the perceptions and experiences of Cohort 3 teachers regarding the CPTD system managed and implemented by SACE. In the study, Roux (2018) focused on the technical and practical aspects of the CPTD system by looking at

teachers' experiences. The questions asked to teachers ranged from their experiences with the registration, to choices of activities and the reward system in the CPTD system. The study found that teachers met with difficult social and economic issues inside and outside their classrooms, and these required their attention. As a result, the teachers were not focused on their professional development, nor did they plan or engage with the professional development activities provided. Roux (2018) argued that, while this was the case, the situation was largely attributed to the complicated context within which South African schools operate. Roux (2018) alludes to this in their study but does not provide an account of these difficult and complex conditions that impede teachers' participation in CPTD activities.

By investigating teachers' experiences in a particular province or metropolitan area, researchers can ascertain the contextual conditions within which teachers have to operate. Teachers' experiences with the CPTD programmes must be situated within their differentiated schooling contexts. The empirical studies have alluded to a mismatch between policy intentions and implementation. Ntloana (2009), Roux (2018) and Johns (2018) raise the issue of not considering teachers' schooling contexts as a cause for the failure of some of the professional development programmes in the schools. Policy formulation and implementation ought to situate teachers within their contexts to achieve impactful progress.

2.5 Chapter summary and positioning within key literature

The South African schooling system is one marred by complexities tied to its difficult history with apartheid. This history carries continuities of inequality and racial division into the contemporary democratic context. Given this, this chapter has offered a comprehensive insight into South Africa's complex and complicated education system. The review has discussed the quintile ranking system and the framing of quality education to provide insights into the specific contexts within which to situate and make sense of the conditions within teachers work. Moreover, the review engaged with the framing of teachers and their professional development to pull together the complex nature of their work and the policy prescripts framing them as subjects and agents of policy reforms toward developing a quality schooling system. While extensive studies have been carried out on the professional development system in South Africa, research does not provide accounts of the complex and difficult conditions prevalent in schools, particularly those located in marginalized communities. There is, however, extensive, and continuous research into the persistent distance between policy formulation, intentions and

policy implementation, given the extensive development of education policies. The focus of the current study is on CPTD policies as well as teachers' experiences with CPTD policies and associated workshop programmes.

Chapter 3:
Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

A theoretical framework serves as a "blueprint" for a research inquiry as it provides a supportive guide and structure for thinking and planning for an entire research process (Grant & Osanloo 2014). This study is located within the subfield of the sociology of education, which studies social institutions and individual experiences, exploring how the connection between the two affects educational processes and outcomes (Ballantine, Stuber & Everitt 2021). The sociology of education provides unique and critical perspectives in understanding schools, the different individuals within schools (e.g., learners and teachers), and how interactions between the different actors impact the outcomes within the education system (Ballantine *et al* 2021). Moreover, this unique perspective also helps us to understand the implications of education for broader society more effectively (Ballantine, *et al* 2021).

This study is concerned with the functioning of the social institution of education. Ordinarily, there should be a connection between policy formulation and implementation. However, this study points to a disconnection between the CPTD policy statements and teachers' experiences of the CPTD programmes in quintile 1 - 3 schooling contexts. To explore the gap, the study analyses the official CPTD policy and considers the experiences of teachers with the CPTD workshop programmes. This chapter discusses frameworks and concepts that are important for making sense of CPTD policies as well as teachers' experiences. The chapter discusses Gallie's (2006) Implementation Readiness Conditions Framework (IRC) as an important tool to analyse CPTD policy and the implementation context. It also makes use of Jansen's conceptualisation of policy as political symbolism to think about the policy formulation and implementation gap. From Chapter 2, evidence showed that teachers had differentiated experiences of the CPTD workshop programmes. The review highlighted the centrality of teachers in the construction of quality education. However, teachers face a paradoxical situation in which policy frames them as the essential drivers of quality education and barriers to quality education. The last part of this chapter provides a conceptual framework for the construction of teachers' identities in relation to their work and their role in developing a quality education.

3.2 Policy as an instrument

Given that this study is concerned with the analysis of policy and its practice, it is important to outline the different ways policy can be understood in the formulation and implementation processes. Scholars on public policy specifically define policy as "whatever governments choose to do or not to do" (Dye 1995: 4), while Easton, cited in Roux (2002: 242), argues that "policy is a projected programme of goals, values and practices". These two definitions present policy as an authoritative course of 'varied' actions driven, mainly by the government, towards a particular goal. Critical approaches to policy in the 1980s shared a similar framing of policy. Ozga (2021: 296) argues that "policies were understood as existing in the world as concrete objective entities that reflect the decisions of rational authority and then have effects in terms of action to solve problems and produce agreed solutions". Moreover, drawing from the conception of policy of sociologist Michael Burawoy (2008), it can be understood as an instrument used to achieve the goals set out by a stakeholder seeking to solve a problem in the social world, and that stakeholder is the government serving as a custodian for societal change and reform.

However, there is a need to account for two key actors, those affected by the problem the policy intends to address and those who will initiate solutions to the problem. In the broader context of the study, teachers face problems with schooling processes and some of the problems require policy action. Additionally, policy as an instrument makes it possible to investigate the representation of the problems within policy in conjunction with the set-out solutions. Ball (2013: 271) argues that policies "do not normally tell you what to do; they create circumstances in which the range of options available in deciding what to do is narrowed or changed or particular goals or outcomes are set". Policy, as an instrument, conceptualises a problem and offers a range of solutions. The specific course of action around implementing the policy lies with those who need to implement it, and they are those affected by a particular problem. However, in the context of this study, the DBE and SACE are the chief implementors of the CPTD policy and associated workshop programmes while teachers are set as beneficiaries of the policy.

This study sees the CPTD policy and its programmes as policy instruments for driving quality education. Moreover, it is important to note that the CPTD policy can also be seen as a process. This is because the formulation of the CPTD policy may involve negotiations and contestation

from various stakeholders, the most important of these being the DBE, SACE, Unions, and teachers. The following section outlines how policy can be conceptualised as a process.

3.3 Policy as a process

In the process, policy moves beyond its written form into enactment, which in this study is the implementation element. In its enactment, a policy can be made and (re)made (Ball, Maigure & Braun 2013; Ozga 2021). This is through the interpretation, translation, and comprehension of policy before its implementation. Histories, ideologies, and political ideals are embedded in both policy statements and the policymakers (Mestry & Dzvimbo 2014; Apple 2019). In policy, the investigations can look into structures and institutions that have set policy. In doing so, they uncover the power relations and dynamics that exist between social beings, social processes, and the policy that regulates these processes (Ball 2013). Moreover, sociology looks at interactions between policy actors and the institutions they represent within the broader policy process. Thus, policy implementation can be seen as a process of contestation and struggle that involves identity shifts, negotiations and even formulation among people who are at the centre of both policy formulation and policy implementation (Ball 2013; Maigure *et al* 2014). For instance, in the policy process the interactions between actors direct the policy process. As such, actors negotiate and build alliances to drive policy work and settle on desired policy actions (Ozga 2021). Policymakers are human beings with a sense of identity, worldview and positioning that inevitably plays into how they engage with the policy processes. Similarly, the teachers in this study must also contend with their own identities, histories, and perspectives as they navigate implementing policies. In using the idea of policy as a process of contestationand struggle, the study makes it possible to see the complex nature of the policy formulation and implementation processes.

3.4 Implementation Readiness Conditions Framework (IRC)

Gallie (2006) established the Implementation Readiness Conditions Framework (IRC). Gallie used the framework in a study investigating the gap between policy intentions and the policy implementation of the Developmental Appraisal System (DAS) policy of teachers through a critical engagement with the functionality levels and components of the schools in which the teachers operate. In developing the study, Gallie (2006), being an educationist and having been part of the policymakers of the DAS policy, found that the DAS policy had much potential to

impact the professional development of teachers positively as well as, inadvertently, the quality of teaching, yet it remained unimplemented. This followed the rejection of the inspection policy which was punitive and presented a top-down, hierarchical approach to the power relations between teachers and government (Gallie 2006).

Policy implementation in the South African education policy landscape is fraught with complexities, particularly between policy intentions and practice. Gallie used the framework to argue that "the different levels of schools affect the potential of implementation of a 'one-size-fits-all' policy" (Gallie 2006: v). In essence, the development of policies ought to speak to the specific context and conditions of schools for there to be effective implementation of these policies. Using the IRC framework, Gallie (2006) reflected on the policy formulation process and the implementation of the DAS policy in conjunction with the functionality of theschool by paying extra attention to what was going on at the schools, a factor that is often neglected in the formulation of policy. Gallie did this as a way to establish the disconnection of the formulated policy from its implementation. From this, Gallie (2006) argued that the disconnection is between the "effect, relevance and implementability of the policies from the operational contexts of the schools" (Gallie 2006: v). The framework demonstrates that different school's function at different capacities and conditions and this needs to be accounted for in both the formulation and implementation stages of policymaking.

For this study, the IRC is important because it focuses both on the actual content of the policy and who is impacted as well as where the policy will be implemented (Gallie 2006). In terms of the content of the policy, it enables one to look into the policy and the problem for which it was formulated, and, most importantly, how the policy represents the problem. In terms of where it is implemented and those impacted by the policy, the study frames schools as social sites made up of people who carry their own subjective experiences, and, together, these individuals negotiate their subjective realities to make sense of the environment in which they find themselves (Gallie 2006).

Furthermore, the IRC acknowledges that schools, as social sites within which the implementation of key education policies takes place, have unique conditions and characteristics that impact the implementation of policy. The IRC employs three dimensions of focus, namely: *1. the level of complexity, depth, and intensity of reform policy*; 2. *Policies vary in the challenges they pose to schools;* and 3. *Level of school functionality* (Gallie 2006:

65). The IRC enables the study to analyse effectively both the teachers' experiences within the schools in which they teach and the various conditions they are met within the schools that either serve as barriers or opportunities for their being able to develop a quality education system.

The complexities found in the implementation stage are the capacity and working conditions of teachers. These complexities speak to the need for a holistic understanding of what teachers experience within their schools as social sites of practice. Specifically, capacity speaks to teachers' ability to implement the policies and meet the demands of their work as professionals given the conditions and contexts within which they work. Their working conditions are mainly linked to schools being conducive environments for effective teaching from a resource and infrastructural perspective aimed at the effective implementation of policies in schools. Thus, understanding the complex issues and contexts around capacity and working conditions helps us understand the continuing gap between policy formulation and implementation of reform policies in South Africa's education system.

Importantly, through the IRC, Gallie (2006) considers how specific policies are applied to schools, based on their capacity and readiness for each specific type of policy. This is to ensure that policies are effectively implemented and meet the intentions for which they are created and so, ultimately, contribute to the reform of the education system. In this way, the IRC enables us to engage with the two policies used in this study, namely the *National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development* (NPFTED) of 2006 and the *Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development 2011-2025* (ISPFTED), looking at the type of policies they are as well as the level of functionality of the schools within which these policies are implemented as per the CPTD policy framework. However, in this study this is done through the consideration of the accounts of teachers' experiences within schools, and the various social and economic conditions they grapple with in the schools.

3.4.1 The level of complexity, depth, and intensity of reform policy

This dimension is key to understanding policy as both an instrument and a process, specifically with regard to the actual policy and its intentions and ideals and also as to how it is enacted and implemented. The key assumption with this dimension, according to Gallie (2006), is that

policies will vary in the challenges they pose to schools which means that there are different types of reform policies for different challenges being faced by schools. For instance: *Type 1 (Single Component reform)* policies call for change that challenges individual practices through training programmes; *Type 2 (Comprehensive reform)* policies call for change that challenges individual and team practices which could include school subject teams; *Type 3 (Organisational Development reform)* policies call for change that challenges individual, team and institutional practices and this includes an entire school; *Type 4 (Redesign reform)* policies call for change that challenges individual, team, institutional and systematic practices meant to transform schooling comprehensively within and beyond schools; and, finally, *Type 5 (Rethinking reform)* policies call for change that challenges individual, team, institutional and systemic role players in re-defining the purpose of education, the role of actors within the system and systematic changes at different structural levels. Therefore, the energy and effort required for each type of policy varies with regard to the intensity and complexity of the issues being addressed in that particular policy. The focus of this study is level 5 analysis of two CPTD policies, viz. the NPFTED and ISPFTED.

In this study, the fifth level of the framework makes it possible to understand the complex nature of the policies aimed at addressing challenges concerning the work of teachers. The policies under consideration address the continuous professional development of teachers and their work as well as their role in developing a quality education at multiple levels from an individual to an institutional level. Therefore, this level of the framework enables one to investigate the formulation of the various education policies holistically by laying out the foundations of the policy, the resources and support invested with each policy, as well as the various stakeholders and role players being mandated in each policy to implement the CPTD programmes effectively. It will be clear that the CPTD policy, while focusing on teachers, is used to target broader educational challenges.

3.4.2 Policies vary in the challenges they pose to schools.

This dimension focuses mainly on the conditions necessary for the successful implementation of a reform policy. Gallie (2006) argues that the same policy cannot be applied to all schools in the same way as schools differ in their capacity to meet the prescriptions and prerequisites of a policy targeted at tackling its challenges successfully. Citing the work of Schwahn and Spaddy (1998), Gallie (2006: 67) argues that "policies often do not take into account the context

where policies need to be implemented, especially in relation to the human commitment and institutional support needed". Gallie (2006) further argues that policies need to make provision for five necessary conditions for the successful implementation of policy within schooling systems. These include: 1. *Purpose - of the policy*; 2. *Vision - for the desired change*; 3. *Ownership* "for the change among those affected by it"; 4. *Capacity* - "for implementing the change"; and 5. *Support* - mainly organisational support to make the change happen (Gallie 2006: 66-67). Without these conditions, Gallie (2006) argues that policy implementation will not be successful. These conditions are relevant for this study because of the inequality that characterises the South African schooling system in terms of resources and infrastructure with the most privileged schools having the capacity to meet the policy demands successfully (Gallie 2006; Bloch 2009; Bantwini 2010; Jansen 2011; Heystek & Lethoko 2011; Reddy *et al* 2019). For this study, the conditions engaged with are 3 - 5 (Ownership, Capacity, and Support). These dimensions helped unearth the various dynamics that exist in the work of a teacher. Moreover, the study engages with these conditions through the quintile ranking system context of the schools taught in, as these frame the ownership, capacity, and support differently from other schooling contexts.

3.4.3 Level of school functionality

This dimension addresses functionality among schools. This is not linked to whether the school is primary or secondary nor is it linked to their type (public or private, for instance). The level of functionality speaks to the "quality of organisational capacity available to perform effective change management functions" (Gallie 2006:71), specifically, focusing on the management functions of the schools and, more, on the activities within the school that enable the school to function at either a high level or low level, despite the level of resourcing. Moreover, different schools need different kinds of support and different solutions, unique to their challenges. Therefore, non-functioning, and low-functioning schools will require much more support to carry out the prescriptions from a policy effectively for there to be a successful implementation of the policy.

These are two broad themes Gallie (2006:135) uses to assess the functionality of schools. One is the internal differences within the school which consist of the support structures, the enabling environment, the availability of resources, the community being served, the capacity of individuals and collective, leadership and relationships between individuals and groups. The

other theme focuses on the internal differences among teachers, which consist of their work, interests, development, beliefs, and reasoning. Again, these differences for this study are looked at within the specific context of quintile 1 - 3 school teachers in the Katlehong township.This specific context tells a particular story about teachers' experiences within their schools, providing insights into the persistent mismatch between policy formulation and implementation. While the methodological explorations focused mainly on teacher's reflections outside of their schools because the work of teaching occurs in schools, teachers inevitably reflected on what was happening in their schools, thereby providing insights into the contexts and realities that informed their lived experiences. The various factors, from an organizational perspective, reflected on by the teachers showed that management and school functionality can serve as motivating and demotivating factors in teachers' participation in the CPTD programmes at any activity level, thus placing functionality is an essential element in investigating the persisting mismatch in the formulation and implementation of policy in South Africa's education policy discourses.

3.5 Political symbolism as policy craft

If policy can be understood as an instrument and process, how might failure in both aspects be understood? Apple (2019) understands policy reforms as being driven not only by technical and instrumental considerations. Apple also sees policies as having particular histories, cultural, political and economic projects, as well as "often ideological visions of what schools should do and whom they should serve" (2019: 277). It is these projects and ideologies driving policy that must be engaged to ascertain the failure of policy as both process and instrument.

Jansen (2002), working within a South African context, identified a policy overload as the country moved into a democratic era. The policies were set to transform the racially, socially and economically fragmented system. However, differentiated changes could be seen with these policies. Jansen (2002) argued that policy was used more as political action concerned with affirming legitimacy both nationally and internationally with no or little concern for actual educational practice. Through the concept of "political symbolism", Jansen (2002) attempted to answer the question of the gap between policy statements and implementation in South Africa's schooling system. With policy formulation, political symbolism shows that policy can be created as a means to demonstrate activity in transforming the state of education and also

that the policymaking process demonstrates the "preoccupation of the state with settling policy struggles in the political domain rather than in the realm of practice" (Jansen 2002: 200).

Political symbolism reveals how much focus, attention, and even funding is included in the formulation of policy whereas implementation is neglected. Jansen (2002: 202) argues that "when policy implementation does appear on the agenda, it is often as a last-minute concession". Moreover, in connecting political symbolism with the IRC, the gap between formulation and implementation can be attributed to a lack of accounting for the varied contexts of the key stakeholders/drivers within schooling. The concept enables the study to engage with issues of power in the framing of teachers' work in policy and their everyday experiences as they constantly negotiate various conditions.

Jansen (2002) highlighted the importance of understanding the political, social and economic context, and history that informs the presence of policy and its intentions for the re-imagination and shaping of the future in a given field. Attempting to study and understand the distance between policy formulation and implementation that exists in South Africa's education system, it becomes imperative firstly to acknowledge the historical and political discourse surrounding it as well as the social and historical contexts that inform the policy-making process. Moreover, "political symbolism" aids in understanding CPTD policy in terms of formulation and implementation. Teachers' accounts in this study show the neglect of implementation through discussions of their experiences of CPTD workshop training programmes. Their accounts point to reform aimed at presenting a perceived image of progress and action.

3.6 Constructions of Teachers and their work

The formulation and implementation of CPTD policies can tell us about the constructions of teachers concerning their role in achieving quality education. Importantly, our conceptions of teachers and their work are essential in how we understand teachers' experiences within complex schooling contexts. This section considers some constructions of teachers and their work through various acts and legal documents, key stakeholders within education such as unions, and findings from academic literature. These constructions include teachers as *service providers, militant workers, professionals, liberators, performers, heroes and gendered caregivers*. Khin (2002) argues that teacher identities are dynamic in that they are shaped and reshaped by dominant ideologies and beliefs. These ideologies and systems of control over the

work of teachers "impact how teachers teach and act and how they organise" (Khin 2002: 325). These will be evident in Chapters 5 and 6 of the findings, as teachers share how they make sense of their work and their teacher identities.

3.6.1 Context for teacher constructions

Hartshone (1999) and Jansen (2001) posit that teachers under apartheid were conceived as state functionaries and compliant civil servants who carried out their tasks according to the State's prescripts. This study specifically focused on the construction of teachers in post-apartheid South Africa. Resemblances with the apartheid constructions may be found in some of these constructions. The dialogue between policy discourses and teacher identities is crucial in understanding teachers' experiences of their identities, their work and practice, as well as the meanings they make of policy (Seetal 2006).

By the 1980s and early 1990s, schooling in many South African townships was in crisis from the escalation in the resistance against apartheid as well as the under-resourced schools and under-skilled teachers (Christie 1998). Christie (1998) argues that the transformations to education policy in South Africa came as a result of the disintegration and 'breakdown' of the Culture of Learning and Teaching (COLT henceforth) within South African schools. With the resistance to the apartheid government, schools became sites of mobilising political reform, such that learning was negatively impacted. Heystek and Lethoko (2001: 223) asserted that teachers were key stakeholders and were responsible for the restoration of the COLT in South African education. The central role played by teachers in the schooling system is also seen in the ways that they are framed in policy.

3.6.2 Multiple constructions of teachers

3.6.2.1 Teachers as service providers

The South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 defined teachers as "any person who teaches, educates, or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and educational psychological services at a school" (SASA Act No.84 of 1996).

3.6.2.2 Teachers as Professionals

According to Saks (2012), the taxonomic definition of professions is "the possession of a diverse range of characteristics differentiating them from other occupations" and these are

characterised by specialised expertise and knowledge as well as "playing a positive role in the community" (Saks 2012: 2). Common examples of professions include doctors and lawyers. However, if we consider the characteristics outlined by Saks (2012) on professions, teachers are also professionals whose work extends beyond what is given in the contracts and the policies that govern their work. They have the specialised knowledge and skills to teach, and they have the qualifications and must be registered which enables them to be teachers. In policy, teachers are not seen as self-realising and independent actors (Thomas 2005; Soudien 2007; Connell 2009). The social, cultural and historical contexts that they each bring into the school and classroom setting are not considered. Jansen (2011: 108) argued that the policy "treats teachers as if they were learners in a classroom", and he termed this the "infantilisationof teachers".

Heystek and Lethoko (2001: 223) asserted that teachers are the key stakeholders and are responsible for the restoration of the COLT in South Africa. They further argued that the enhancement of the COLT relies on the attitudes and perceptions of teaching as a profession. They propose the following as characteristics of professionalism:

> "A high income, prestige and respect; Specialist knowledge based on scientific research and theories; A long period of training and high qualifications; Autonomy and mechanisms created by its members in respect of control, entry standards, and selection; Administration by members and control of their own rules of conduct; A highly rated and indispensable service and ethos to others; and Conditions of service are laid down for the practitioner of the occupation" (Heystek & Lethoko 2001:223-224).

The South African Council for Educators (SACE) is a professional body that works with the licensing and formal registration of teachers to ensure they are eligible to work within South African Schools under South African laws. Moreover, its criteria stipulate that teachers need to be eligible to teach in South Africa. SACE serves as a vetting institution for teachers in South Africa to ensure that the supply and demand of teachers in the country are met sufficiently and with precision. It further means that no-one can simply teach without being registered with SACE. Should they be in breach of the laws of teaching, their license to teach can be revoked at any time. Moreover, one's successful registration with SACE is contingent on their qualifications as a teacher in South Africa as well as their adherence to SACE's code of professional conduct. SACE works with the unions in that the code of conduct that is set up by

SACE is used by the unions to define professionalism, even though each of the organisations has its own unique set of codes of conduct that are in line with SACE stipulations (Heystek & Lethoko 2001).

Most importantly, the establishment of SACE was precisely fully to professionalise the work of teaching by creating "autonomy and mechanisms created by its members in respect of control, entry standards, and selection" (Heystek 2001: 223). SACE also makes calls for teachers to be excellent in their work and makes provisions for workshop programmes as well as strategic plans and frameworks that dictate the type of teacher required to drive the policy changes affecting the work of teaching. One such strategic framework is SACE's ISPFTED 2011-2025 which is meant to "improve the quality of teacher education and development to improve the quality of teachers and teaching" (DBE & DHET 2011: 1).

3.6.2.3 Teachers as liberators, facilitators, performers, and heroes

Jansen (2001: 242) asserts that "every education policy document contains powerful images of the idealised teacher." This shows how policy idealises the role and place of the teacher within the field of education and how teachers make sense of their place and identity in education institutions. How teachers are identified in the literature is strongly tied to the instrumental role they play in the classroom. Jansen (2001) provides a background of how teachers were viewed within the apartheid system and post-apartheid versus their identities which are influenced by the emotional, professional and political spheres of their lives. The policy images are linked to how the teachers' identity was viewed within the constraints of policy, which set out the guidelines for how teachers would then perform their duties as state functionaries (Chisholm 2012).

The policy images given by Jansen (2001) include the teacher as a liberator, facilitator, and performer. As a liberator, the teacher was a knowledge producer in the sense that they would create knowledge set on the premises of liberating, empowering, and advocating for change in a democratic climate. This policy image of the teacher is more focused on the political arena of South Africa which infiltrates the personal identities of teachers. As a facilitator, the teacher serves more as a guide. Jansen (2001) alludes to the change in pedagogy that required the classroom space to be more learner-centred in that the learners would be given more room and centre stage in their learning, while the teacher would guide them along their learning processes in an attempt to encourage independent thinking and work for learners. As a performer, the

teacher is regulated through a set of standards that are set by a given institution. In the South African context, these standards are tied to teacher professional standards given by SACE and by the Department of Basic Education.

In addition to the teacher's being seen as a liberator, Wright (2012) also asserts that teachers are seen as heroes, which alludes to the fact that teachers play an emancipatory role in the education received by learners. Wright (2012: 140) argues that "the hero teacher recognises what the quality of education could be and should be and does everything in their power to move from the shabby and unsatisfactory to the present towards that high goal".

3.6.2.4 Teachers as gendered caretakers

Furthermore, Connell (2009: 220) defines teaching as "a form of labour undertaken in specific workplaces and in certain employment relations". This definition denotes that the work of teachers, just like any other type of labour, is subject to workplace rules and regulations that control it as a profession. However, the work of teachers is also gendered around assumptions of female teachers as caretakers while their male counterparts make good managers (Connell 2009). Ideas of a good teacher are linked to ideas of a good mother (Connell 2009; Daniels 2020). The gendered construction of teachers and their work enables an understanding of the various processes within the profession and school settings that plays a role in the ways teachers are represented in policy and how they experience their work.

Moreover, Heystek and Lethoko (2001) bring to light a key issue associated with the gendering of the work of teaching and the lack of recognition and prestige as any other profession. They argue that the difficulty in recognising teaching as a profession, stems from it being associated with two groups of low status in society, namely "women and children" (Heystek & Lethoko 2001). As such, in their argument, Heystek and Lethoko (2001) continue to state that other professions do not require the assistance of layman workers, whereas teaching is heavily reliant on parental involvement to drive education further. This brings one to the realisation that teaching is not like any other profession; it involves deep and interpersonal human interactions.

3.7 Chapter Summary

Policy, within the context of education and the sociology of education, requires a holistic view of the policy process and its actors. Specifically, given that the study sought to engage critically

with the question of the disconnection between the formulation of the CPTD policy and its implementation, the framework that I made use of included Gallie's (2006) Implementation Readiness Conditions Framework which was particularly important for understanding and engaging with CPTD policy. I then made use of Jansen's (2001) conceptualization of policy as Political Symbolism to make sense of how policy formulation and policy implementation tend to be disconnected. Furthermore, the chapter included the conceptualization of policy as both an instrument and process. The framework provided unique insights into an understanding of the complexity of policy in addressing societal issues consistently from the inception to the implementation of the policy. Moreover, as seen in the literature review, the attainment of a quality education in South Africa is centred around teachers and their work in classrooms and schools. Thus, the framework engaged with the various constructions of teachers and their identities given the role that they play in classrooms and the broader education system. A look into policy processes and the constructions of teachers within the context of formulation and implementation helps in mapping out where the policy gap within South Africa's education policies lies.

Chapter 4:
Methodology

4.1 Introduction

At its core, this study has been concerned with CPTD policy analysis and teachers' experiencesof the policies and associated workshop programmes. The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What are the experiences of quintile 1 - 3 teachers with CPTD workshop programmes?
2. What meanings do teachers construct about CPTD policy and workshop programmes as means to drive quality education?
3. Is there a gap in the formulation of the CPTD policy and its implementation?

In this chapter, I outline in detail the specific research methods and tools I used in the study, the reflections on how each method unfolded during fieldwork, the challenges that arose, and how I mitigated those in a qualitative fieldwork context.

4.2 Research Design

Qualitative research, for Silverman (2020: 3), distinguishes itself from quantitative research through its ability to "understand what is important for people" as it investigates people's experiences. Qualitative research makes use of interviews, focus-group investigations, observations, and many other methods to make sense of people's experiences and the meanings they attribute to their experiences (Silverman 2005; Chilisa & Kawulich 2012). Key advantages of this research design are that, through its approaches, qualitative research is concerned with subjective meanings, rather than seeking 'objective facts' which neglect people's varied contexts. Qualitative research then accounts for these contexts and subjective experiences (Silverman 2020). Researchers also acknowledge how these subjective experiences become a limitation in the work that is underpinned by this design in that it becomes difficult to generalise the experiences (Silverman 2020). Olmos-Vega, Stalmeijer, Varpio & Kahlke (2023) argue that reflexivity is important in addressing the subjective nature of qualitative inquiry. They argue that engaging in reflexivity helps to account for "how subjectivity shapes their inquiry" (Olmos-Vega *et al* 2023: 241).

At its core, this study was focused on exploring how teachers experienced and engaged with CPTD programmes provided by the DBE and SACE to equip them to deliver quality education effectively. The qualitative research design, thus, enabled me to explore with depth and detail the barriers experienced by teachers.

4.3 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is a specific worldview within which researchers base their understanding of the world, and these understandings then frame their assumptions of the phenomena they seek to investigate as well as the processes they employ for investigation (May 2001; Creswell and Poth 2018). This study adopted a social constructivist paradigm. According to Creswell and Poth (2018: 24), social constructivism assumes that "individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experiences".

The ontological understanding of the world is based on the idea that realities are socially constructed (Kim 2001; Chilisa & Kawulich 2012). This understanding also filters into the epistemological understanding where knowledge is subjective as it is acquired through subjective experiences (Chilisa & Kawulich 2012; Creswell & Poth 2018). Even with the policy provisions on CPTD, teachers' interpretations of the policies and their prescriptions regarding their work and professional development are subjective and reflective of their multiple realities, which may include their race, gender, class, age, context, and other factors that influence their subjective realities.

A key advantage of social constructivism is that it acknowledges that reality is socially constructed and how individuals make sense of it is subjective in the negotiations through language and daily interactions (Chilisa & Kawulich 2012; Creswell & Poth 2018). However, this perception of social constructivism does not explicitly account for the fact that there is a disadvantage in having certain subjectivities and experiences being privileged over others. Those in privileged positions and spaces may have their realities dominating discourse (Andrews 2012; Chilisa & Kawulich 2012; Creswell & Poth 2018).

Thus, social constructivism, as understood and employed in this study, considers teachers to be individuals with subjective cultural, historical, and political contexts which they bring into their professional work of teaching. They experience and make sense of their work in varied

ways, which the CPTD policy needs to account for in the framing of the training programmes. The qualitative approach, coupled with the social constructivist paradigm, helped the study in "creating depth, detail, nuance and context to research issues" (Sarantakos 2013: 39). The following section will discuss the setting of the research study.

4.4 Study setting

Initially, this study was set in the broader Gauteng Province as its focus was on teachers' understanding and experiences of the CPTD policy and workshop programmes in quintile 1 - 3 schools. However, owing to the sampling methods used in the study (to be discussed in the following section), the primary setting inevitably became Katlehong Township, with teachers reflecting on their experiences with teaching in the q1-q3 schools in Katlehong. Notably, 3 of the 24 participants now teach in Johannesburg but, in the interviews, they reflected on their previous experiences in the Katlehong township. The schools were, however, not the main setting or focus of the study. The following section provides an in-depth discussion and contextualisation of the Katlehong Township as a research site for this particular study.

4.4.1 Contextualising Katlehong Township

Katlehong is "a space marked and contoured, inevitably, by some of the critical social and economic processes of the 20th and 21st century in South Africa, namely mining, urbanisation, segregation, and apartheid" (Barolsky 2005: 22). This section details the framing of townships broadly and the historical and contemporary context of Katlehong Township to help us understand Katlehong as a context for the study's investigation. Moreover, the section provides an overview of the performance rates of a few of Katlehong's secondary schools to highlight the educational context which paints a picture of the type of schools in which the interviewed teachers work.

South African townships, according to Swartz (2007: 21) are defined as "physical locations of crowded housing and meagre services for the poor". This is often the general assumption around townships, which leads to the marginalisation, discrimination and pathologizing of township areas as social settings as they are often described as dangerous (Swartz 2007). Furthermore, townships are also seen as:

> "Symbols of past economic and social exclusion and inequality. Townships speak of 'racial' cleavage, separation, Apartheid, discrimination, and the policing of bodies and social movements. They were primary sites where Apartheid's immoral laws were played out. In post-Apartheid South Africa, while retaining its physical character created under Apartheid, 'township' is also an explanatory framework. 'Township' education is poor, 'the township' is dangerous, and 'township men and women' are unemployed" (Swartz 2007: 22).

Katlehong Township has a history and shows the economic and spatial inequalities that run rampant in the South African education landscape. Swartz (2007: 22) argues that "*'township'* is also a style. Township style reflects the music, recreation, fashion, indulgences, and moral stances characteristic of township living".

Katlehong means "place of success" (Statssa 2023). It is a peri-urban area consisting of different sections. It is situated in the Ekurhuleni metropolitan district, which is part of the East Rand. The East Rand was argued to be "the heart of South Africa's manufacturing economy with up to 51% of Gross Domestic Product" (Barolsky 2005: 23). Katlehong forms part of the Kathorus townships under the Ekurhuleni district, namely Katlehong, Thokoza and Vosloorus, which were founded between 1950 and 1964. Taylor (2021: 4) argues that Katlehong was founded around 1945 as a mixed-race settlement called Dukatole at the time. Considering East Rand's positioning as an economic hub at the time, the Kathorus townships had the largest concentration of settlements which housed the labour force from Soweto, Vaal, and further townships (Barosky 2005). The Katlehong township was made up largely of hostels, three of the most prominent of which included Kwesine, Monise, and the 'Compound' (Taylor 2021: 7). Hudson (1997), as cited in Barosky (2005), recorded 29 hostels housing 59000 people in 1997.

The hostel feature of Katlehong was due to the migrant labour system, which necessitated the building of hostels to house cheap migrant labourers from rural Bantustans (Barosky 2005). It is also argued that the first residents in Katlehong were victims of forced removals from Germiston which was then a mixed inner-city slum (Barolsky 2005; Taylor 2021). Broadly, in South Africa, the apartheid government established the Group Areas Act of 1950 which entailed the forced removals of Black Africans, Coloured and Indian South Africans into townships from cities and towns which were more developed. That is how the move of people

from Germiston to Katlehong took place. Katlehong consisted of, and continues to consist of, a diverse population in terms of ethnicity, culture, and language. Taylor (2021: 4) argues that Katlehong's "original… population was mixed with Zulu, Xhosa, Swazi, Venda, North Sotho, South Sotho, Tswana, Tsonga and even Chinese". In summation, the Katlehong Township resulted from rapid industrialization and urbanisation and a displacement process of Black people away from the city centre and white-designated areas.

The East Rand was a site of violence and political conflict during the apartheid era. In detailing the transitions from violence in East Rand, Barosky (2005) argues that "the East Rand was the epicentre of the internecine violence that spread from Natal to the Witwatersrand after 1990" (Barosky 2005: 32). As such, the East Rand reported "36,3% of total deaths and 67,7% of total injuries" (Bonner 1999: 1, as cited in Barosky 2005: 32). Much of this violence in the East Rand took place in Kathorus, which consists of Katlehong, Thokoza, and Vosloorus. The violent conflict included a taxi war, an ethnic war between the amaZulu and amaXhosa people, and the war between the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) and the African National Congress (ANC). The Kathorus area became characterised by violence and conflict owing to its consisting mainly of hostels and informal settlements (Barosky 2005). In her dissertation, Mzendana (2020) describes Katlehong as "a site of inequalities and violence".

In outlining the historical context of Katlehong, especially its history and relation with the apartheid system of segregation, migration, urbanisation, and violence, I seek to show that Katlehong as a space has a history and context that helps both insiders and outsiders (researchers) understand the various social dynamics and social conditions within the Katlehong township.

According to the census report of 2011, which specifically outlines demographic information for Katlehong, the total population was 407, 294 (124, 841 households) with the average household size being 3, 1. 33, 4 % of the households were female-headed. The percentage of formal dwellings was at 74, 6%, and housing owned or paid off at 38, 6% (Statssa 2023). In terms of infrastructure: access to flush toilets connected to sewage is 91, 9%; weekly refuse removal at 94, 9%; piped water inside the dwelling at 41, 8%; and electricity for lighting at 80, 6% (Statssa 2023). These characteristics show the state of development in Katlehong.

The recent census report of 2022 gives an idea of what Katlehong looks like 11 years on. The total population is 406 6691 (142 100 households) and formal dwellings are at 88, 2 %, while informal dwellings are at 11, 2%. The average household size is 2, 9. The percentage of formal dwellings is at 88, 2%. In terms of infrastructure, the flush toilets connected to sewage is at 91, 2%. Weekly refuse disposal service is at 88, 6%. Access to piped water in the dwelling is at 73, 8%, and electricity for lighting is at 93, 1 % (Statssa 2023).

Mzendana (2020:14) argues that Katlehong is a place of "great inequalities, poor service standards, and lack of development". The statistics above cannot adequately speak to the complex socio-economic issues in Katlehong, issues which inform the experiences of its residents. Having this information helps to put into context what type of township Katlehong is, and it helps us position it as a relevant site for research of this nature.

Key to the study is that Katlehong Township consists of a diverse number of schools within which one can find diverse learners and teachers, diversity in terms of language, culture, thoughts, social class positions and even race. Katlehong is part of the Ekurhuleni Municipality, whose schools fall under the Ekurhuleni North and Ekurhuleni South Districts. Ekurhuleni district will be the key site of focus for this research study. The Ekurhuleni South District consists of 71 secondary/high schools, according to the National Senior Certificates Report 2023 (NSC 2023). The high schools in the Katlehong location are diverse; there are new schools and old schools.

Below is a table outlining the performance rates of some of Katlehong's schools. The performance rates include results from 2020 to 2023. It must be noted that I am highlighting the results to show the performance rates at the schools in Katlehong where some teachers who participated in the study work. Important to note is that the participants consisted of both high school and primary school teachers. The table below highlights only the school performance of high schools in Katlehong because there is no such data for primary schools. The table is meant to give a sense of some of the official outcomes in schools around Katlehong.

Table 1: School Performance rates for Ekurhuleni South District high schools located in Katlehong. Data is from the National Senior Certificate 2023 School Performance Report.

School Name	Quintile Ranking	% Achieved			
		2020	2021	2022	2023
Alafang Secondary School	3	69,9	91,9	83,1	80,1
Buhlebuzile Secondary School	3	61,2	71,3	75,7	79,2
Edenpark Secondary School	4	67,7	74,6	67,7	71,3
Edenridge Secondary School	2	85,3	90,1	90,8	87,2
Eketsang Secondary	4	81,9	79,8	73,2	74,1
Fumana Secondary School	3	67,8	72,7	78,5	80,4
Greenfields Secondary School	2	74,7	77,2	82,3	83,7
Katlehong Secondary School	3	89,4	85,5	92,7	89,1
Katlehong Technical Secondary School[6]	5	98,5	90,2	99,4	96,6
Kwadukathole Comprehensive School	4	77,2	88,0	81,9	66,2
Landulwazi Comprehensive School	3	92,1	94,8	86,7	91,8
Lethukuthula Secondary School	3	95,9	89,3	84,8	93,9
Mpilisweni Secondary School	3	92,2	96,8	97,7	99,2
Mpontsheng Secondary School	3	84,3	87,9	88,5	92,0
Palmridge Secondary School	2	92,6	93,8	91,3	91,0
Phumlani Secondary School	3	91,4	89,0	89,3	88,7
Ponego Secondary School	4	92,3	79,6	82,7	83,1
Sijabulile Secondary School	4	89,9	95,8	97,0	90,8
Thabo-Ntsako Secondary School	3	87,2	89,5	93,0	91,2
Thoko Thaba Secondary	3	86,7	82,7	75,7	77,6
Zonkizizwe Secondary School	2	86,3	77,4	73,5	67,8

Interestingly, Katlehong does not only consist of quintile 1 - 3 schools. Though it is a township, it does also consist of quintile 4 and 5 schools, which are often associated with wealthy

[6] Note: The Katlehong Technical Secondary school, ranked as a quintile 5 school, is a specialist school focused on mainly technical subjects such as Technical Mathematics and Engineering related subjects.

neighbourhoods within the township. One will also notice that on the table there are no quintile 1 high schools. The quintile rankings provided in the table are the most recent and indicated in the NCS report for 2023. White and Van Dyk (2019: 6) argue that the quintile ranking of a school indicates a school's status about fees and funding. The criteria used to determine a school's quintile ranking is based on poverty indicators determined by "income; the unemployment rate and the level of education of the community" (White & Van Dyk 2019: 3).

Owing to social and economic mobility, these indicators will change and, at times, the quintile ranking of a school may not reflect the true financial standing of the community as some pupils may be coming from communities with different poverty indicators as to what the school is. For instance, one of the participants indicated that their school was a quintile 1 school, but it was classified as a quintile 2 school. This is due to the community it was located in, especially its economic advancement over time. White and Van Dyk (2019) also highlight that, although a school may be in a relatively affluent community, parents in those communities prefer to take their children to much more affluent schools, owing to the belief that education in township schools is poor.

The table above paints a rather complex picture that challenges the perceptions of failure in township schools. On the one hand, we see that township areas also house quintile 4 and 5 schools, which, as seen in the literature (White & Van Dyk 2019), are considered to be of good quality in terms of results. But, when one looks at the table closely, one finds that the schools in lower quintiles perform well. For instance, Palmridge in quintile 2 has performed consistently well from 2020 with percentage achievements of 92, 6%; 93, 8%; 91, 3%, and 91, 0%, though with a slight decline from 2022-2023. The quintile 2 school performs at a relatively higher or even similar rate compared to a quintile 4 school such as Ponego Secondary School with pass rates of 92, 3%; 79, 6%; 82, 7%, and 83, 1%. Considering the above, what is the determining factor for quality education if quintile 2 - 3 schools perform similarly to higher quintiles? The conditions within the schools and the teaching strategies employed by the teachers are factors that are not explicitly indicated in the table.

4.5 Study Participants

The targeted population for the study was teachers working in quintile 1 to 3 schools in the Gauteng Province, which ended up being a focus on Katlehong Township. The target

participants were diverse and various characteristics, such as the number of years in the teaching profession, subject streams, grades they teach, school quintile and gender identity were considered. A total of 25 participants were interviewed. One participant is a School Governing Body member at a quintile 2 school that participant's reflections were not included in the discussions as they were not relevant for the broader finding themes. Two teachers are school principals who teach in their schools, two are deputy principals and three are departmental heads (DHs). In summary, the age range is between 25 and 55. The number of males is 12 and females 12. All the participants have a teaching qualification; bachelor's degrees were nine and postgraduate (Honours and Masters) degrees were 6. Other qualifications were Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) - six teachers. One teacher had an Advanced Certificate in Education; two teachers had teaching diplomas. The teachers taught Mathematics, Sciences, Languages, Technology, Social Sciences, Economics, Business and Consumer Studies, Cultural Arts and Life Orientation streams. The average years of teaching is 13, 6 years. Of the 24 teachers, 15 were high school teachers and 9 were primary school teachers. Of the quintiles, 8 taught in quintile 1, 10 taught in quintile 2, and 7 taught in quintile three schools. Table 2 below provides detailed demographic attributes of the research participants.

Table 2: Background information of participants.

Participant name (Pseudonym)	Demographic criteria						
	Age	**Gender**	**Highest Qualifications**	**Subject area (current)**	**Years teaching**	**Schooling level: Primary or High School**	**School Quintile**
Mkhokheli	50-55	Male	BSc Honours	Physical Sciences, Technology	24	High School	Q3
Zwelethu	50-55	Male	Master's in education	History and Life Orientation	27	High School	Q2
Mthetho	40-45	Male	Teaching Diploma	Economics, Business studies	16	High School	Q1
Mandla	45-50	Male	Bed Degree	Not practicing.	20	High School	Q3
Sechaba	45-50	Male	PGCE	Geography	11	High School	Q3
Lethabo	20-25	Female	Bed Degree	Technology, Consumer Studies	1	High School	Q2
Tshepang	60-65	Female	Bed Degree and EGD Remedial	Maths, Natural Sciences, Consumer Studies, and Technology	41	High School	Q2
Zingisa	50-55	Female	Bed Honours: Laws and Policies of Education	English (FAL), Natural Sciences, Technology	27	Primary School	Q1

Tshidiso	20-25	Female	Bed Degree	Civil Technology, Design, Technical maths, and Engineering Graphic Design (EGD)	1	High School	Q2
Zolani	25-30	Male	BCom Honours, PGCE	Maths Literacy	4	High School	Q2
Thulani	30-35	Male	PGCE	Mathematics, Electrical Technology	2	High School	Q2
Msizi	40-45	Male	Bed Degree	Geography	9	High School	Q2
Luthando	25-30	Female	Honours in Education: Curriculum Studies	Geography and Social Sciences	8	High School	Q2
Mlungisi	30-35	Male	Bed Economics and Accounting	Economics, Accounting, Business Studies	7	High School	Q2
Bandile	30-35	Male	Bed Degree: Mathematics	Mathematics, Technical Maths	7	High School	Q2
Nombulelo	40-45	Female	PGCE	IsiXhosa home language	12	Primary School	Q1
Xoliswa	40-45	Female	Bed Honours	English, IsiXhosa, Mathematics, and Literacy, Life Skills.	16	Primary School	Q1
Thandekile	50-55	Female	Bed degree	English, IsiXhosa, Mathematics, and Literacy, Life Skills.	21	Primary School	Q1

Sisipho	25-30	Female	PGCE	Physical Sciences	2	High School	Q1
Mphathi	50-55	Male	Bed Honours	Mathematics	28	Primary School	Q3
Mbalenhle	35-40	Female	Bed Degree	English and Cultural Arts	11	Primary School	Q3
Zanele	50-55	Female	Diploma in Education	English Home Language, Natural Sciences	17	Primary School	Q3
Kholeka	50-55	Female	Advanced Certificate in Education (Maths and Science)	Mathematics	8	Primary School	Q1
Phumlani	35-40	Male	PGCE	English and Technology	6	Primary School	Q3
Andile (SGB)	50-55	Male	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Q1

4.6 Sampling

Sampling and selection are used to identify, gain access to, and employ relevant sources from which data for the study will be collected (Silverman 2005). This study made use of two sampling methods, namely purposive and snowballing techniques. I will discuss these two sampling methods in detail, outlining what they entail, their advantages and disadvantages and how these played out in my fieldwork process with my participants.

4.6.1 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling is broadly explained as theoretical sampling as it makes use of theoretical perspectives to select study participants that meet the study objectives. Additionally, Mason (1996), in Silverman (2005:130-131), argues that theoretical sampling is more about "selecting groups or categories to study based on their relevance to one's research questions and theoretical position". An advantage of using purposive sampling is that one already has a set purpose and clear intention for the research and, thus, chooses a sample population on known criteria based on theoretical assumptions on the issue being investigated (Silverman 2005; Sharma 2017). However, purposive sampling is heavily dependent on the researcher's judgement in selecting the criteria for the participants, which means that it is prone to bias. Notwithstanding this, Sharma (2017) argues that, although bias becomes a major disadvantage, if the selection criteria and theoretical framework are considered clearly and carefully bias can be avoided.

Using the criteria notes indicated in Table 2: *Background Information of participants*, I recruited participants by directly reaching out through established social relationships. Initially, three teachers that I know from within the community who work in quintile 1 - 3 schools were approached. I informed them of the study and handed over the letters of informed consent for them to participate voluntarily in the study. The participants agreed to the study and offered the opportunity for me to conduct the interviews in their homes after working hours. In some instances, the teachers would come to my home for their interviews as it was more convenient for them. In all the interviews, I switched between languages to make the participants comfortable and at ease. However, I do not speak XiTsonga. I encountered two teachers who are XiTsonga speakers. In these cases, my father, who is fluent in the language, assisted with translations. For these two interviews, my father signed a 'confidentiality agreement for

research third parties' (see Appendix 5). This helped control the flow of information from the interviews and further protect the research participants.

4.6.2 Snowball Sampling

To expand my participant pool, I employed the snowballing sampling method. Silverman (2005) and Sharma (2017) define snowballing as the use of connection and network chains to recruit more study participants. Snowball sampling is useful in qualitative research in that it provides the researcher with access to a population sample they may not otherwise have been able to access (Sharma 2017). However, Snowball sampling may result in a group of research participants who are very 'similar' to one another, as one person refers the researcher to another, all within the same small community. To alleviate this challenge, I set up 'category limits' in cases where similar referrals were made and so proceeded to other categories. These category limits included not having more than three teachers from the same school, not more than three teachers in the same subject stream (within High school or Primary school settings), and not more than three teachers in the same grade.

Using this method, I relied on the initial participants to refer me to other teachers known to them or within their neighbourhoods. To facilitate this effectively, while protecting the privacy and confidentiality of my participants, I handed out a few copies of the 'Letters of Informed Consent' to share with their colleagues. I further asked that the referring teachers shared my contact details so that interested teachers could contact me directly. Upon being contacted by the referred teachers, we then communicated and set interview times using their schedules. The snowballing method did present a challenge at some point where the participants referred teachers from similar environments or the same school and this meant that the information, I received was similar. Some recommended teachers from the same grade, the same school, and the same subjects. To mitigate the repetition of sentiments and to diversify the findings, I eliminated some of the recommendations and sought ones from different schools and contexts.

The other challenge I encountered was that, during the referral process and explanation about the focus of the study, some teachers misrepresented the study, which gave rise to expectations that I would transform the teachers' experiences in their teaching contexts. I noticed this during the interviews, where teachers would mention "you must change this urgently", "so you are going to help us with our challenges in this job?" I consulted my supervisor who advised that

in cases where participants had hopes of any incentives or expectations, I needed to articulate my objectives and what the study was about clearly rather than giving the participants false hope for the sake of acquiring participants for the study. This was helpful. Clear communication with the teachers in the study helped to set the tone and ensure that their reflections and narratives were balanced and critical, speaking to the purpose of the study.

It is, therefore, important for any researcher employing snowball sampling to ensure that they provide initial participants with comprehensive information. This ensures that, in referring other participants, they provide clear and accurate information concerning the study, mitigating issues around misconstrued expectations and misinformation concerning the study. Moreover, researchers must ensure that they reinforce the information concerning the study, the expectations, and the objectives before their interviews with the referred participants. The following section discusses the methods used to collect the data once participants had given their consent for participation in the study.

4.7 Data Collection

I employed semi-structured interviews for data collection. Brinkmann (2013: 21) argues that semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to "obtain descriptions and meaning of the interviewee's world" purposefully and engagingly. Moreover, the interviews allow one truly to understand and engage with the research participants in dialogue whereby the interviewer/researcher will uncover deeper meanings and explanations from the responses that the participants will give (McIntosh & Morse 2015). Semi-structured interviewing was useful for this study as one of the objectives was to understand and explore the everyday experiences of teachers. Semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to gain more meaningful and rich data through their interactions with the participants, as they can seek deeper meanings and explanations for the reflections that teachers will share during the interviews (Brinkmann 2013; McIntosh & Morse 2015).

A key disadvantage of semi-structured interviews is that participants may feel uncomfortable responding to some questions or they may provide socially acceptable responses owing to the physical presence of the interviewer (McIntosh & Morse 2015). This is linked to the issue of 'feeling', seen in a physical interaction. I encountered this discomfort in a few of the interviews. Initially, some of the teachers preferred receiving the interview questions beforehand to prepare

themselves and prevent errors during the interview. Even though they were willing to participate, they felt that they needed to be prepared. I also found that the teachers wanted to present themselves as knowledgeable about the broad topic. To alleviate this, I assured the teachers that I wanted to hear from them regarding the topic and their experiences in their schools and that they did not need to prepare beforehand at all. I also reinforced that they could even speak in a language that best suited them to make them more comfortable. During the interviews, I made sure to start with questions such as "What led you to the teaching profession?", "Take me through your day as a teacher" as ice breakers. If one considers these questions, they are not something you would prepare for they refer to personal experiences. This helped build rapport and encouraged teachers to share their experiences. To further build rapport, I also shared and reflected on my experiences as a learner.

With the question "Why did you choose teaching as a profession", I noticed a reluctance with some teachers, particularly because, for some of them, teaching was not necessarily their first career option, but circumstances led them to the profession. The reluctance and discomfort were due to the stereotypical ideas and perceptions around teaching being a last resort and not necessarily an attractive career path. In the interviews, where the discomfort was visible, I brought this perception up to assist the teachers in making sense of their positioning and choices and not feeling uncomfortable about it. One of the teachers who did a PGCE owned this decision and confidently expressed that the PGCE programme opened her up to her 'calling' as a teacher.

Additionally, I continuously reminded the participants that their identities would be protected and that, for the reporting aspect, pseudonyms would be used to keep their identity confidential. The use of semi-structured interviews aided in unearthing teachers' understanding of their professional role and development and the role of CPTD in enhancing these skills for the eventual provision of quality education.

Pessoa, Harper, Santos, and da Silva Gracino (2019) argue that interviews generate high levels of anxiety for both the participants and the researcher. Therefore, it becomes important to ease both individuals involved in this process for data collection to be effective. The semi-structured nature of the interviews assisted in this regard as the interviews took on a conversational style. This also involved the flexibility to use vernacular languages for the participants, so that they could express themselves freely and comfortably. I realised that whenever I reassured teachers

that they could use their languages, they were able to express themselves more easily than they did when we initially started the interviews using only English. This was for the first few interviews. I then endeavoured to let the participants know that they were free to use any language they were comfortable with and that I would also ask them if I did not understand some words. I am proficient in IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, Sepedi, and Setswana. Teachers also translated some words where they used vernacular words to reflect on issues to ensure that I captured their thoughts accurately. Holmes, Fay, Andrews, and Atia (2013: 291) argue that "using multilingual sources enriches investigation". Moreover, they assert that language choice and multilingualism are key to building trust and gaining access to communities of research (Holmes *et al* 2013).

Overall, the use of language also assisted in building rapport with the participants and dissolved some power relational issues that were initially an issue during the recruitment stage as most teachers refrained from participating because they were intimidated by the idea that I was conducting interviews for a research dissertation and assumed they would have to express themselves fully in English; some thought this would be a burden for them. I use some of the original phrases and words used in the interviews by the teachers in the findings chapters to capture their authentic voices and experiences.

In addition to moving between languages to create rapport and smooth transitions in the interviews, I also introduced reflexive interviewing in which I drew from my own experiences and understandings. This helped dissolve unequal power relations and made the participants and me equals in that we could speak from our own experiences as human beings and so further assisting in following up and clarifying questions and sentiments shared by the participants, while, overall, ensuring a collective understanding around issues that emerge during the interview through varied language choice and reflexivity.

Pessoa *et al* (2019: 3) argue that "reflexive interviews allow participants to signal agreement, suggest changes, disagree about the interpretation, supplement information, or clarify obscure points that emerged upon previous contacts between interviewer and interviewee". I also occasionally asked teachers what some of the concepts meant in their understanding as a way of eliciting their views and understandings, and, in this way, avoid coming across as one who already knows and simply wants to confirm their knowledge. As a result, the interviews became more meaningful as the participants engaged in meaningful dialogue with me, the researcher.

Reflexive interviewing was not an initial strategy, but it came up during fieldwork. This demonstrates that, as a researcher, one needs to be flexible and adaptable with the methods one uses with their participants to gain meaningful insights and build meaningful experiences for the participants as well.

Moreover, the interviews lasted on average between 45-60 minutes. Upon reflection, I realised that every question and the narratives the teachers brought up were important in building my understanding of their experiences with the CPTD policy and associated workshop programmes. In instances where teachers had to attend to personal commitments, I omitted some of the questions and asked only the main questions for which I needed to obtain responses.

4.8 Data Analysis

The study made use of the thematic analysis of Braun and Clarke (2006). In this section, I will outline how I employed this in the study to meet the research objectives.

4.8.1 Thematic analysis

The study made use of the 6-step thematic analysis of Braun and Clarke (2006) to analyse the data collected from the interviews. The 6-step thematic analysis is an analytical approach that is used mostly in qualitative research to "extract meanings and concepts from data" (Javadi & Zarea 2016:38). Javadi & Zarea (2016) argue that the researcher may make presumptions instead of allowing themes to emerge from the data being collected to provide authenticity with regard to the themes being analysed. However, the approach worked well for this study as it was flexible and enabled the researcher to work with the meanings that participants attributed to various aspects of the research topic and the issues that emerged in the interviews, and so the interviews remained true to the purpose of the study while being aware of potential biases. This tool of analysis consists of:

- **Familiarising yourself with the data** - This step involved gathering the data and reading them to identify the themes and meanings relevant to the research questions. In this instance, I began by transcribing my data *verbatim* and translating the vernacular parts of the interviews. The translation of the interviews was not an extensive task as it was only in a few phrases and narratives that teachers used vernacular language. Most

of the time, they used English and also offered translations. My proficient fluency in the languages they spoke also enabled me to translate the data accurately. This process helped me refresh and familiarise myself with the data collected. Using my field notes also served well in this process. I also made use of the translations provided by my father who assisted with translating one of the languages I am not familiar with and had been used by the participants.

- **Generating initial codes** - This entails developing codes or common phrases from the interview that form common themes and ideas. Before the interview, I ensured that my interview schedule was organised into specific sections. For example, I had questions linked to each of the four research questions, and this helped me build a list of anticipated themes. This enabled me to organise the data according to key questions that were central to the research questions and objectives.
- **Searching for themes** - By using the codes generated I then formulated themes that emerged from the codes identified. After this, I would highlight the participants' reflections using coloured highlighters to differentiate between the common themes which emerged from the interviews and which I deemed to be relevant to the study and its research questions.
- **Reviewing themes** - One reviews and refines the themes identified and selects the most relevant themes for the study. This process was ongoing for me, as I changed and developed more refined themes with each draft I submitted. A key point for this step was ensuring continuously that these were answering the research questions.
- **Defining and naming the themes** – This section deals with organising the themes, relevance and theoretical ground linked to the study. In some cases, as will be found in Chapter 6 of the findings, I use some of the statements spoken by the participants as names for the themes as a way to personalise the data and remain true to the narratives provided by the participants.
- **Transforming analysis into a report** – This involves writing up the analysis from the collected data and conclusions from these. In summation, the six steps provide a systematic approach to organising the data into specific themes that emerge in the interviews and from the theoretical frameworks used in the study. The themes identified in the study emerged from the interviews and some were embedded in the pre-set questions.

4.9 Ethical Considerations

Wassenaar (2008: 61) asserts, "The essential purpose of research ethics is to protect the welfare of research participants." This means that social research has the moral responsibility of protecting the participants it works with beyond merely producing numerous amounts of research findings. For this reason, this study took into consideration that its qualitativeapproach would consist of interactions with sampled individuals in their personal spaces as well as via their thoughts and from varied contexts and viewpoints, on the issue being studied. The following sections outline the various ethical issues that arose and how these were addressed during the fieldwork process.

4.9.1 Voluntary participation and informed consent

Informed and voluntary consent was sought from participants. I made sure to hand over a letter of informed consent and consent forms clearly outlining what the study intended to do (See Appendix 2 and 3). I also informed the participants that they would be required to provide personal reflections and, if they felt uncomfortable, they would be free to stop participating. Those who gave their consent to participate were also informed that they had the liberty of withdrawing from the interview process at any point if they no longer felt comfortable with the interview. Moreover, I asked each participant for their consent to record their interviews as it would help me in taking notes and recollecting some of the data for my data analysis process. The participants gave their consent and signed the recording consent in addition to their voluntary consent and participation.

Only three of the interviews were not recorded and, in two of the instances, it was due to load-shedding which eventually became a power outage owing to cable theft in my community and where the participants lived. By the time the interviews needed to take place, none of us had sufficient battery power to record the interviews. For these interviews, I made sure to take comprehensive notes to capture the participants' accounts fully. The participants also agreed to have follow-up interviews in instances where I needed clarity or may have missed something. Some interviews had to be postponed owing to load-shedding. In other instances, power would be cut during an interview causing an inconvenience, particularly for theparticipants. One interview could not be recorded as it did not take place over one full sitting;it was a continuous discussion with the participant as they availed themselves in intervals owing to their busy schedules.

4.9.2 Physical and psychological harm

This study did not involve any physical or psychological harm to the participants. Moreover, I informed the participants that, should they experience distress during the interviews, I would pause the interview, debrief the participants, and then refer them to counselling services offered by Lifeline Johannesburg, a free Counselling service (0861322322/ 0117281347), to be able to assist the participants professionally.

4.9.3 Confidentiality and privacy

To uphold the ethical principles of confidentiality, pseudonyms are used for the participants and the references they made to the schools and various institutions during the interview. The participants were also informed of this. All this was done in acknowledgement of the Protection of Personal Information Act (POPIA) and its prescriptions for participants' privacy. Additionally, the participants were informed that the data would be stored at the Department of Sociology at the University of Pretoria using a password-protected format for 10 years in accordance with university policies. The participants were also asked for permission to use the data for further publication in my research work. These publications may include journal articles, different types of interviews and newspaper articles.

4.10 Researcher positionality

Social research has the role of being rigorous, relevant, representative, and responsible (Laher, Fynn & Kramer 2019). A fundamental part of this is being able to reflect on one's positionality in relation to the methodological choices made for the research study (Rabe 2003). The authors further argue that "the characteristics of the person or persons in the field are of particular importance" (Rabe 2003: 159) as these determine how the researcher is able or unable to access and obtain information in a particular field setting. In this section, I reflect on my position within the field as both an insider and outsider in research inquiry. I detail some possibilities and limitations, each of the two positionalities, presented within the research study.

4.10.1 Insider Positionality

The insider role within the research field shares a sense of familiarity with the community being researched (Rabe 2003). This could be socially and even through language which allows the

researcher to tap into and easily access the social settings of the participants and adequately prompt responses from participants. Bingma (2013: 6) likens the researchers' journey within a familiar space to "entering their current and/or former social worlds", within which they are "forced to negotiate the mobilities between their current and former worlds" (ibid.). This speaks to the difficulties and opportunities of entering a research setting whereby one finds oneself shifting between being one with the community and an outsider as well. One has to integrate these two identities in the research process. Furthermore, Bingma (2013: 7) argues that doing research in familiar spaces has opportunities such as "knowledge of the physical space and social expectations in relation to local etiquette". This element is extremely important in navigating one's movement in a given space and enables the researcher ease of access in the studied space. However, the role of the insider may sometimes lack boundaries thereby placing the researcher at risk within the researched community. In such instances, expectations and roles may become blurred by the sense of familiarity that the insider researcher carries with them (Rabe 2003). As such, I am an insider within Katlehong Township as it is my home town. I am familiar with the various language and cultural nuances within the community.

Considering this argument, the opportunities with my 'insider' identity included familiarity with the physical space and easy movement within various spaces as I recruited participants. I had easy access to the community and set boundaries with participants so as not to blur the expectations and roles of both myself as researcher and the participants. Moreover, my knowledge of the various languages used to communicate in Katlehong, both social and contextual languages, allowed me to build rapport and to understand the participants' narratives, thereby enabling me to probe the participants further which, in turn, enriched the data I was able to collect. Furthermore, having attended schools in Katlehong meant that I was able reflexively to use my experience as a learner in Katlehong schools to connect with the participants.

The insider identity of the researcher is not without any limitations. The negotiation between the current and former world showed up as a hindrance in my recruitment of participants. Initially, this began as a personal fear that some of my peers within our community had not had the privilege of going to university to pursue a degree. My educational success was going to be a hindering factor in that some of the participants would not feel comfortable sharing their experiences with me. I had thoughts of their declining to participate because their children had not even pursued tertiary studies. I decided to look past the fear and assumptions and went

ahead to recruit teachers within my community. Most of the participants saw it as an opportunity to contribute to the body of knowledge related to their work.

There were, of course, some who did not participate owing to the anticipated reasons. One of the potential participants later mentioned that they were uncomfortable because I would be coming into their space to judge them and their child who were my peers. These limitations with the insider identity delayed the fieldwork process. I had to devise strategies to recruit participants, but I could not find any. In going back to the drawing board, I even considered concealing my academic level until my supervisor advised against this as it would be deceitful to the participants, and it was not necessary for the type of study I was conducting. As a researcher in familiar spaces, one needs to be aware of the limitations and possibilities that come with this identity, more especially in a qualitative study requiring one to engage with social beings in their current and or/former world. Critical decisions have to be made as to how you go about recruiting and engaging with participants with this positionality in mind.

4.10.2 Outsider Positionality

As an outsider in the field, one can "look at things with new eyes and notice things that insiders take for granted" (Rabe 2003: 157). Thus, in the research, my role as an outsider is established in the fact that I am not a teacher nor am I a policy practitioner, but I am interested in the dynamics within the two fields and the intersections between the two. My outsider characteristic then enables me to look into the issues that come about during the research phase from a new perspective. Moreover, in line with Bingma's (2013) notion of negotiating to be in a current and former world, I consider myself an outsider in that I do not permanently reside in Katlehong anymore. This served as an opportunity to reflect differently.

Much like the insider identity, my identity as an outsider presented some limitations. My academic standing is one. This manifested in two ways: teachers spoke with caution; and teachers saw me as a conduit to address their plight in teaching. In a few of the interviews, where the participants were fully aware that I was conducting the research for my master's degree, they expressed themselves with caution. An example of this is when one of the participants was reflecting on university training, and, before they made their point, they apologised saying, "Perhaps I should not say this in the presence of a Master's student". It was at this point that I noted the discomfort and caution in how the participants expressed

themselves. While it was not concealed in the Letter of Informed consent and initial contact, I made it a point to speak about my academic position only at the end of the interview. I asked some participants why that was the case. It was clear that, in their understanding, one who is doing a master's degree knows more. They were worried that they may have given me incorrect answers. Yet this is not the case; academic inquiry I believe is about learning. I too am conducting this research to learn and develop my knowledge. The limitation in this case is how the participants perceive the researcher. These perceptions may limit how in-depth participants express themselves during fieldwork, thereby affecting the quality of one's findings at times.

The second challenge I encountered in this regard was the expectation that I would change their realities on the ground. Upon hearing what my research objectives were, some of the teachers expressed the feeling that they were looking forward to improvements in their teaching and training practices after the interviews. Some would say, "You must make sure they hear these reflections and come to our rescue", or "At last we will have someone change things around for us teachers". This expectation created an imbalanced responsibility for me as the researcher. While I am completing this master's degree as an effort to contribute to the body of knowledge on teacher training in South Africa, I claim no responsibility with regards to transforming the work of teaching and the practices related to it. My hope, through this work, however, is that policymakers consider some of the insights brought up during the interviews and in my analysis. I had to make sure to remind the participants of the research objectives. The experience of being perceived as an outsider in the field reveals that researchers are also met with complex emotional, psychological, and social dynamics that manifest themselves in the research process.

4.11 Chapter Summary

In conclusion, this chapter has reflected on the various methodological processes that underpinned the study. The reflections covered the methodological choices made about the study's research aims and objectives. Furthermore, reflections on the interactions between the researcher and participants were often referenced to share with researchers undertaking similar studies. The research process in its entirety is dynamic, calling for one to remain adaptive and reflexive in so far as the decisions regarding the attainment of the research questions and objectives are concerned.

Chapter 5:
CPTD Policy and teachers' views

5.1 Introduction

This chapter has two sections. Section one outlines selected content related to teachers' training, the work of teachers, quality education, and the context of teachers' work in the NPFTED of 2006 and the ISPFTED 2011 - 2025. Section two focuses on teachers' understanding of the CPTD policies through workshop programmes intended to offer continuous professional development.

To analyse and understand the CPTD policy effectively, this chapter focuses on selected content within the policy documents. It does this by using the conceptualisation of policy as a process and instrument, the IRC framework, policy as political symbolism, and the identity constructions of teachers as guiding tools of analysis. Specifically, the focus is on how each policy envisions teachers' professional development, the framing of quality education, teachers' work, training, and role in driving a quality education system. In this chapter, I argue that the CPTD policy formulation as framed in the two policy documents sets out good intentions for teachers' development and quality education. However, the framing of the problem pointing to teachers' incompetence and lack of engagement with their professional development is misaligned with the broader political and socio-economic context within which teachers have to teach. There are contradictions in the constructions of teachers and their role in developing a quality education system through the CPTD workshop programmes which are set to capacitate them in playing this key role effectively.

5.1.1 Policy as instrument and process

The conceptualisation of policy as an instrument and a process provides a critical lens for understanding the policy processes and the framing of teachers' work and professional development within the pursuit of a quality education system. These conceptualisations of policy help capture the complexities and contradictions prevalent in education system policy reform. This section outlines how the NPFTED and ISPFTED policies function as instruments and processes in determining teachers' professional development.

Formulated as instruments to improve teacher's professional development, the NPFTED and the ISPFTED are symbolic of a transformative and progressive order in their framing of the issues within South Africa's education system. Specifically, the NPFTED places teachers as essential drivers of a quality education system, while, simultaneously, placing them as the problem with regard to attaining this quality education system. The NPFTED is designed "to develop a teaching profession ready and able to meet the needs of a democratic South Africa in the 21st century" (DBE 2006: 4), while its main objective is to "achieve a community of competent teachers dedicated to providing education of high quality, with high levels of performance as well as ethical and professional standards of conduct" (DBE 2006: 5). Considering its purpose and objectives, one can argue that the NPFTED is an instrument outlining the processes in capacitating teachers to meet the context of the 21st century educational needs of a democratic society. As such, the framing places teachers as custodians of democratic values.

Similarly, the ISPFTED asserts that improving the quality of teaching will improve the quality of teachers. As such, its primary outcome is "to improve the quality of teacher education and development in order to improve the quality of teachers and teaching" (DBE & DHET 2011:1) It positions teachers as subjects and agents of improving South Africa's education system. As instruments, these two policies frame teachers as lacking in, or having poor, specific knowledge competencies that are deemed necessary for driving and attaining a quality education system.

In 2003, the Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education conducted an extensive study on teacher development with key stakeholders, such as: SACE; "the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA); the Education, Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority (ETDP-SETA); National Teacher Unions; the Higher Education South Africa (HESA) Education Deans' Forum; and NGOs working in teacher education." (DBE 2006: 4). The ISPFTED drew from the findings gathered in this study. The consultations demonstrate a distance from teacher's lived experiences and contexts. This is a sign of the "political symbolism" pointed to by Jansen (2001), where policy outlines intended change with no real commitment to implementation centred around teachers' actual experiences within schools. It seems that the policy conceptualises the problem of teacher development and the attainment of a quality education system through various bodies involved in the work of teaching. While these are representative of teachers and their work, they may not capture the actual complicated conditions teachers encounter in schools.

Moreover, there have been two notable turning points in South Africa's teacher professional development landscape since 2008. These turning points include: 1) The National Teacher Development Summit in 2009; and 2) The Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (MRTEQ) in 2011. The National Summit is key to the discussion in this section because the ISPFTED became a key outcome of the summit. The main objective of the summit was to provide clarity on teacher development within South Africa (DBE & DHET 2011; John 2018), as well as "highlighting and addressing the challenges being experienced in teacher education and development, especially by teachers" (DBE & DHET 2011: i). Moreover, all stakeholders in this development would commit to a "coordinated and coherent teacher development plan" (Johns 2018: 2). The primary outcome of the ISPFTED is "to improve the quality of teacher education and development to improve the quality of teachers and teaching" (DBE & DHET 2011:1).

The CPTD system is presented as a solution to curb poor learner performance rates in the South African education system through improving teachers' skills and knowledge. The CPTD system is set towards providing elaborate professional development for teachers. Literature (Soudien 2007; Chisholm 2012; Spaull 2013; Murtin 2013; Arends, Juan & Reddy 2019; Reddy *et al* 2019) shows that poor learner outcomes point to issues within schooling contexts whereby schools do not provide conducive environments for impactful and quality education.Moreover, for professional development programmes to yield impact for teachers in classrooms, schooling environments must be enabling environments (Bloch 2009; Jansen 2011; Spaull 2015; Kimathi & Rusznyak 2018; Hunter 2019; Meier & West 2020; Le Grange
2021; Nakidien, Singh & Sayed 2021; Reimers 2022).

The ISPFTED points to teachers' lack of subject and pedagogical knowledge as being a key contributor to a poor-quality education system in South Africa. Moreover, the ISPFTED acknowledges that "a wide variety of factors interact to impact the quality of the education system in South Africa". (DBE &DHET 2011: 4). However, the policy is clear that teachers' knowledge gap is the main contributing factor as policy further asserts that, while teaching resources and supporting materials are essential, they are important and useful only through teachers' "knowledge and competence to interpret and utilize them effectively" (ibid.). I argue that to ascertain teachers' competencies in effectively utilising the resources and materials in schools there must be a clear account of the contextual factors.

5.1.2 The level of complexity, depth, and intensity of reform policy

The NPFTED and ISPFTED are type five policies when read using Gallie's (2006) framework. Gallie (2006) posits that type five policies challenge individuals, teams, and institutional and systemic stakeholders with a focus on redefining education and aligning the various actors' roles in this role. The two CPTD policies are targeted at improving the quality of teaching which is essential for both teaching and learning processes within schools. While the CPTD policies call for teacher training specifically, they point to collaborative efforts and action from multiple stakeholders throughout the schooling system.

For instance, the NPFTED provides a strategy for the "successful recruitment, retention and professional development of teachers" (DoE 2006: 1). This strategy comes in the form of the CPTD management system, which the DBE places as a policy response to the challenges of teacher's insufficient professional development skills, and subject, pedagogical and content knowledge. To this extent, the framework asserts that:

> "A CPTD system will be created that registers and quality assure all providers of professional development activities and combine incentives and obligations to ensure that teachers continually upgrade their knowledge and skills throughout their teaching careers" (DoE 2006: 20).

Furthermore, Section 1 of the NPFTED outlines the specific CPTD activities that teachers will choose from and participate in. These are divided into four types, namely:

- "School driven programmes;
- Employer-driven programmes;
- Qualification-driven programmes; and
- Other programmes, offered by NGOs, teacher unions, community-based and faith-based organisations, or private companies." (DoE 2006: 18)

The layers demonstrate the complex and intense nature of the CPTD in the training it seeks to provide for teachers. The CPTD system is established to ensure the registration and quality assurance of teachers' training. The reflections of teachers in Section 2 of Chapter 5, will demonstrate how teachers' experiences of the CPTD workshop programmes offered to them do

not match the 'quality' spoken of in policy. Moreover, the continued lack of quality education evidenced in poor learner outcomes shows that these programmes are not effective in what they set out to do in schools. Of course, as I argue throughout this dissertation, the key issues lie in the differentiated contexts and complicated realities that teachers encounter in schools.

The principal outcome of the ISPFTED is to "improve the quality of teacher education and development to improve the quality of teachers and teaching" (DBE & DHET 2011: 1). This is set against the backdrop of a "failure of the system to achieve dramatic improvement in the quality of teaching and learning in schools" (ibid.). Importantly, the ISPFTED made its formulations five years after the establishment of professional development in the NPFTED, pointing to continuity in systemic challenges within South Africa's education system in relation to teaching and learning processes. In its assertions, the ISPFTED outlines the specific roles played by each stakeholder in the provision of quality teacher training and development, specifically the roles played by the DBE, provincial departments of education and the DHET. Furthermore, it outlines the specific challenges with teacher development and the policy solutions for these.

5.1.3 Policies vary in the challenges they pose to schools

At this level, the IRC specifically investigates five conditions necessary for the effective implementation of a policy. These include the purpose of the policy, vision for desired change, ownership, capacity, and support. The study focused on quintile 1 - 3 schools in a township setting. By their nature, quintile 1 - 3 schools in townships are no-fee-paying schools, relying on government funding and subsidies to operate functionally. Moreover, these schools, as demonstrated in the literature, often cater to communities with low-income levels. The quintile 1 - 3 schools, as a result of being under-resourced, lack, or have poor, ownership, capacity and overall support required for the CPTD policy to impact change in schools effectively.

In terms of their vision, the NPFTED (2006) asserts that, by capacitating teachers, they will be able to meet the needs of a democratic South Africa in the 21st century. Surely, conducive conditions need to be in place for the attainment of this ideal. A clear account of school conditions is required to show the nuances as well as the contradictions that exist in schools. As demonstrated in the literature, the post-apartheid context is fraught with inequalities, pointing to a continuity in the inequalities that were embedded in the apartheid system

(Chisholm 2012; Murtin 2013; Khumalo 2014; Van Dyk& White 2019; Maistry & Africa 2020).

5.1.4 Level of school functionality

This section refers to the often-neglected aspect of "what happens in schools" that will enable the implementability and relevance of policy. The DoE noted that "Conceptual, content, and pedagogical knowledge are necessary for effective teaching, together with the teacher's willingness and ability to reflect on practice and learn from the learners' own experience of being taught. These attributes need to be integrated so that teachers can confidently apply conceptual knowledge-in-practice" (DoE 2006:16). This assertion affirms the need for specific types of knowledge to enhance teaching and learning experiences (Jansen 2011; Luneta 2012). It further demonstrates an awareness of the nature of teaching, which requires a variety of skills and knowledge for more meaningful learning and teaching experiences. The framing around teachers' knowledge is important, but it also shows the limited consideration for what happens in schools that complicates the work of teachers. The conditions that facilitate teaching processes, the resources and infrastructure in schools, as well as the social conditions that affect teaching and learning processes in the classrooms are important (Soudien 2007; Chisholm 2012; Spaull 2013; Murtin 2013; Arends, Juan &Reddy 2019; Reddy *et al* 2019). All these form part of the functioning level of a school and how well a school and teachers implement a policy. The ISPFTED alludes to including teachers yet it does not speak to the varied contexts that impact the implementation of policy.

In terms of infrastructure in the schools, the NPFTED acknowledges the inequalities present in South Africa's education system. The document asserts that "the most profound and enduring effects of these apartheid inequalities are to be found in education, including poor infrastructure and facilities for poor people, a lack of amenities, and inadequate training for teachers" (DoE 2006: 7). Given this assertion, schools are expected to respond to these inequalities and still ensure the attainment of a quality education system. The social inequalities are prevalent within the education system and do not enable teachers and their schools to undertake the task of providing quality education in marginalised contexts such as quintile 1 - 3 schools effectively.

5.1.5 Constructions of Teachers

This section focuses on how teachers are constructed in the NPFTED and the ISPFTED. The NPFTED asserts that:

> "It is clear that all teachers need to enhance their skills, not necessarily qualifications, for the delivery of the new curriculum. A large majority need to strengthen their subject knowledge base, pedagogical content knowledge, and teaching skills. A sizable portion needs to develop specialist skills in areas such as health and physical education, HIV and AIDS support, diversity management, classroom management and discipline, and so on. Many need to renew their enthusiasm and commitment to their calling" (DoE 2006:17).

This statement demonstrates a sense of authority from the DBE in framing the needs of teachers. By stating that "it is clear that teachers need", the DBE determines the needs of teachers. The emphasis is on the need for continuous reinforcement and improvement of subject and pedagogical knowledge and skills as well as teachers requiring a specialised set ofskills to meet the day-to-day needs of their students in the schools and within their classrooms.The latter recognises that teachers will need to provide more than content and pedagogical support to their learners. Thus, as previously argued, professional development requires an in-depth understanding of the work of teaching for it to be more impactful. For instance, the NPFTED mentions HIV and AIDS support, health and physical education, diversity, and classroom management; all of these differ based on the social context in which teachers operate. Teaching is framed as a calling which is similar to the framing of teachers as liberators,performers and facilitators, as their responsibilities to the learners are multifaceted, taking on the roles of both the parent and teacher.

In sections 49, 51, and 52, the NPFTED points to the incentives that teachers receive for participating in the CPTD activities provided form. These are referred to as Professional Development Points (PD Points henceforth). The PD Points are awarded to teachers when they participate in the professional development activities provided for and endorsed by SACE. Teachers need to choose these activities themselves based on their professional needs. In this regard, section 50 asserts that:

> "The guiding purpose will be to enable teachers to become less dependent on outside agencies and more able to become responsible for their professional development" (DoE 2006: 18).

The intention here is for teachers to take charge of their professional development. The PD points are also awarded to teachers upon upgrading their qualifications (DoE 2006). Furthermore, the policy warns teachers not to "neglect their main responsibilities to earn PD points" (DoE 2006: 18). It goes on to provide a mitigating step by stating that "the first can be avoided if the PD activities relate directly to the classroom responsibilities of teachers" (ibid.). The PD point system is used as an incentive and a measure to ensure that teachers participate and engage in their professional development within the work of teaching. A reward system must also have sanctions where the requirements are not met. In this regard, section 56 of the National Policy states 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" (DoE 2006: 19).

The registration of teachers with SACE is fundamental to their practice within the field of teaching; "Registration is their licence to teach" (DoE 2006: 19). The rewards and sanctions of the CPTD system are closely linked to the practice and employment of teachers. In addition, it is important to note that some of the CPTD activities are compulsory while some are self-selected. The compulsory activities, as stated in the policy, will be funded by the relevant education departments (DoE 2006: 18). The teachers will fund the self-selected activities themselves and through available bursaries within the various departments of education.

Incentivising professional development activities reveals bureaucratic and top-down framing of teachers' work based on power relations between the DBE and SACE and teachers. By putting an incentive on these activities, teachers are forced to participate to acquire the incentive and avoid being deregistered with SACE, a crucial part of their ability to work as teachers. The ISPFTED also encourages teachers to take responsibility and own their professional development and training. However, teachers' experiences of workshop programmes tell a different story about the quality of the programmes and their relevance.

With respect to specific activities and outcomes, it is clear that teachers are to be supported at various levels of government, demonstrating the intricate nature of teacher development and training as a whole. The third output is "teacher support is enhanced at local level". This output and its various activities are led by the provincial education departments. The main objective of output 3 is enhancing the support and access to professional development opportunities for teachers at a local level. The problem identified in this instance is the difficulty for teachers, particularly those in rural areas, to access and receive the CPTD training and resources close to where they live and work. There are three key activities highlighted to this effect. namely: 1) Establishing Provincial Teacher Development Institutes (PTDIs henceforth); 2) Establishing District Teacher Development Centres (DTDCs henceforth); and 3) Establishing Professional Learning Communities (PLCS) to strengthen teacher professionalism. Thus, these three activities require the collaborative undertaking of all local stakeholders to enhance this professional support and development for teachers.

> Activity 3: "Establishing Professional Learning Communities (PLCS) to strengthen teacher professionalism"- PLCS are defined in the plan as "communities that provide the setting and necessary support for groups of classroom teachers, school managers, and subject advisors to participate collectively in determining their own developmental trajectories, and to set up activities that will drive their development" (DBE and DHET 2011: 14).

The establishment of PLCs becomes an important assertion of the ISPFTED that is related to the effective implementation of the CPTD policy. By establishing PLCs teachers stand to benefit from building a network among teachers who work within similar contexts and have identified practices that suit those contexts best. As demonstrated in the literature (Feldman 2016; Feldman 2020; Van der Merwe & Dasoo 2021), PLCs are collaborative systems that provide meaningful CPTD workshops. Furthermore, these PLCs move away from infantilization (Jansen 2011) and the framing of teachers as subjects towards teachers being role players in their professional development.

The work of teaching is relational and embodied. More than this, the attention paid to development should include protecting teachers as well. Paying attention to the fact that needs will vary across different social contexts is important. Evans (2011), cited in Kimathi & Rusznyak (2018: 19), argues that teacher professionalism is "embodied in what teachers do,

how and why they do it, what they know and what they understand" which are sentiments raised by Connell (2009) on the work of teachers, particularly 'good' teachers.

Finally, the activities listed in the ISPFTED include commitments to develop various committees that are essential to the development of effective CPTD programmes at the national, provincial, and local levels. However, the policy does not provide clear timelines and measures to ensure that these committees are not only efficient but also functional and truly serve the goal of ensuring a quality and efficacious implementation of the CPTD programmes. Certainly, the timelines may not be able to be made stringent given that the economic and social order is constantly changing, but a commitment with timelines and measures for what should be done should these not be done needs to feature in the policies.

5.2 Teachers' understanding of policy and workshop programmes

Policies present prescripts on the ideal subject (e.g., teachers), and these have implications for their everyday lives, such as the interactions within relationships in their lives and, more broadly, the society in which they live (Soudien 2019). Soudien also argues that the implications of policy on the South African individual are contextual given that South Africa is structurally divided in culture, race, class, and gender. This section focuses on how teachers understood and experienced the CPTD policy broadly as well as specific policy workshop programmes provided by the DBE and SACE.

To make sense of the relationship between the formulation and implementation processes of the CPTD policy, this section begins by exploring teachers' understanding of the CPTD policies and, thereafter, it details their experiences with regard to the implementation of the CPTD policies through the specific CPTD workshops they have attended. The point I seek to make in this section is that policy implementation is a social process unfolding within a context. The teachers were not asked about specific policies but rather interviewed about a broader understanding of CPTD policies. The following section relates to the myriad social forces that are at play in the resistance, contestation and even engagement of teachers with the CPTD policy and specific workshop programmes.

5.2.1 Teachers' use of policy discourse

Mestry *et al.* (2019) argue that "the overall performance of the education system can be improved by improving the quality of teachers through professional development programs" (Mestry *et al* 2019, as cited in Phasha, Bipath, and Beckman 2016: 69). Such professional development programmes, which are part of the professional construction of teachers, include the CPTD workshops provided by the DBE in collaboration with SACE. This sub-theme discusses teachers' understanding of policy and workshop intentions with regard to their professional development.

Teachers in this study used words such as "develop", "equip", "grow professionally", "update", "re-energise", "support", "learning is continuous" and "improve" in their discussions of CPTD policy and specific workshop programmes. This speaks to their understanding of the CPTD policy in general and specific workshop intentions as highlighted in the previous discussion of the NPFTED and ISPFTED. Teachers demonstrated an understanding of the obligation to identify independently areas in which they required professional development as part of self-development and professional learning communities. As a specific expression of policy, teachers were aware that the CPTD workshops were compulsory, and they stated that in the interviews.

Mkhokheli and Zwelethu noted the following:

> "Through CPTD…conducted by the department, the teachers are taught how to use the tools…the teacher may have the content of the subject but may have a problem with delivering the content to the students…Sometimes learners may fail, not because the teacher does not know the subject, the problem is delivery" (Mkhokheli).

> "CPTDs are meant to equip teachers with the changes occurring within the curriculum and the rest of the world. The intention of teacher development is for me to be kept abreast of the development of the world. CPTD intends to equip us to adapt to changing learning patterns and learning environments, changing styles of teaching, learning styles...because the generation of learners we are teaching now is different from the one we had 5 years ago…" (Zwelethu).

What is evident in Mkhokheli's understanding is that the process of teaching requires specialised skills. The participant acknowledges the difference between competence in the subject content and competence in the delivery of the content. CPTD workshops are seen as part of supplementary tools to support teachers in their work and initial training. In the same light, Zwelethu alludes to the nature of teachers' work that requires specialised skills and knowledge, helping teachers "adapt to the changing learning patterns…". Zwelethu points to an understanding that teaching is dynamic and is constantly changing, thereby requiring teachers not only to have specialised skills, but also adaptable skills to be able to meet the evolving needs of their learners as noted by Connell (2009).

Moreover, the reflections by the two participants speak to the importance and impact of the CPTD workshops as part of continuous interventions in the schooling system in filling what Jansen (2011: 107) termed the "knowledge gap" and, more specifically, "knowledge of teaching". For the teachers, CPTD workshops help to equip teachers with the knowledge required to make learning impactful. Thus, CPTD workshops are centred on ensuring quality teaching for the improvement of learner outcomes. Zwelethu's reflection also shows how CPTD workshops play a key role in updating teachers with evolving knowledge. In this instance, where subject content has changed on a global scale, CPTD workshops can cover these gaps and ensure that the subject being taught in schools matches the global developments. Subsequently this points to the attainment of a quality education system that places value for the learner beyond what is offered by the curriculum.

Other teachers also had a clear understanding of the CPTD workshops and what was expected of them. They expressed the following thoughts on what they understood CPTD workshops to be:

> "They ensure that we keep abreast with changes, they support and update us on any educational matters…Keep re-energising and reminding us of our role as teachers…" (Sisipho).
>
> "The workshops are trying to ensure teachers receive new knowledge…learning is continuous, we do not know it all, so the CPTDs help in that sense" (Mlungisi).
>
> "The training helps you conduct better classes" (Xoliswa).

> "That is where you get helped by other teachers to improve your weaknesses with your teaching methods and if your learner pass rates are low" (Tshidiso).

> "CPTDs are meant to develop teachers on the content and how to deliver the content to learners more effectively" (Mkhokheli).

Teachers explained the CPTD workshop programmes as being part of developing their professional knowledge within their field of work, whereby they were continuously equipped with skills that ensured relevance and enhanced skills. Some of the teachers mentioned the usefulness of CPTD workshop programmes in empowering teachers with technological skills as most of the schools have switched to using smartboards and computers, showing how the DBE is advancing the education system technologically. These sentiments were mostly echoed by the older teachers who have more than 10 years of experience in teaching. Professionally, there is a requirement and standard set by SACE and the DBE as discussed in section one. The CPTD workshops are a platform to ensure that these skills are enhanced.

Teachers' understanding of the CPTD policy discourse shows evidence of teachers knowing and taking action in determining their professional needs, a need that the literature pointed out in the experiences of various teachers with CPTD in a South African context (Somo 2007; Gulston 2010; Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen 2015). These are, however, met with incompetence from the implementors of the policy, especially with regard to the implementation of the CPTD workshop programmes. Teachers demonstrated knowledge of what is expected of them in their profession.

Beyond keeping teachers abreast of the latest trends, Thandekile adds an interesting insight into what CPTD workshops do for them as teachers, which speaks to teacher training and its long-term impact on the profession. Thandekile adds that:

> "University does not prepare you for real-life experiences so the workshops assist us in this because there you will meet teachers like you who teach in the township and have dealt with similar issues that you are dealing with. They share what works for them and you can learn from their experiences and insights."

Moreover, Thandekile added that the development training they receive from CPTD workshops helps them meet the gap between the knowledge gained through their tertiary training and their everyday experiences in the field. On a similar note, Luthando and Kholeka added with regard to the shortcomings of university training:

> "I did my practicals in a private school, where the leadership and management were completely different, when I got here there was a whole new set of problems that I was met with and the practical training I received from my university training did not serve me. It felt like I was starting from scratch" (Luthando).

> "When I began teaching and my practicals, it was in a private school in the Eastern Cape…things were different there. The learners and parents were all involved and there was more discipline which made it easy to focus on teaching rather than dealing with learner discipline issues. Moreover, the teaching was much easier than what I found when I started teaching in a township school since the learners had numerous challenges that they carried with them, some of which I never thought I would have to deal with in a classroom, it was my first time coming across these" (Kholeka).

Luthando and Kholeka revealed that CPTD workshops play a role in covering gaps between on-the-field practice and tertiary education. Both teachers pointed to the fact that their tertiary training did not fully prepare them for what they encountered in the schools they ended up teaching in. Botha & Rens (2018) refer to this phenomenon of a mismatch in what teachers encounter within schools after their teacher training. In line with the earlier mentionedargument by Jansen (2011) on the knowledge gap within South Africa's teaching profession, which ultimately impacts the quality of South Africa's education system, the CPTD workshopsare geared towards meeting the different knowledge gaps. Up until now, the assertions of policy discussed and the teachers' understanding of CPTD workshop intentions are aligned. Various teachers reflected on being equipped with subject-specific skills, technological skills, content-delivery skills and general updates of knowledge, as they too consider the learning process to be continuous. However, teachers' understanding, and knowledge of policy and workshop programme intentions did not always align with their experiences, uncovering the mismatch between policy formulation and implementation.

5.2.2 Teachers' experiences of CPTD policy through workshop programmes

The previous section considered teachers' understanding of the CPTD policy discourse. This section will now focus on how they experience the practice of the CPTD policy through its workshop programmes. These two sections show the effectiveness of the CPTD policy in improving classroom practices and enhancing teachers' professional skills and knowledge as per its prescripts. Two themes emerged in this section, namely the selection of facilitators and their expertise as well as Professional Learning Communities. The discussions of these two themes respectively demonstrate the mismatch between policy formulation and implementation, as well as teachers utilising their knowledge and understanding of policy to build networks and systems of collaboration to enhance their professional skills and, more importantly, their teaching practices.

5.2.2.1 Facilitators and the facilitation of workshops

The NPFTED asserts that the role of SACE is to ensure the quality assurance and effective implementation of the CPTD training and workshop programmes for teachers. This means that SACE is responsible for allocating facilitators for the CPTD workshops teachers are mandated to attend. This section delves into the implementation and focuses on how the workshops are conducted and, more specifically, who conducts these, and also the process of selecting these individuals. Importantly, I will discuss the three concerns raised by teachers about the facilitation of the CPTD workshops, viz. 1. The expertise and training of the facilitators; 2. The subject focus and prioritisation in CPTD workshops; and 3. The relatability of activities and themes covered in workshops.

While the CPTD workshops provided a space of collaboration, with some teachers praising the facilitators, other teachers felt that the peer-led discussions and facilitation were limiting. They expected the facilitators to take charge of the workshop programmes and ensure that they uplifted teacher skills and knowledge. Moreover, given the teacher school-initiated activities around professional development, this critique on inadequate facilitators shows that teachers had a clear understanding and knowledge of their profession and the interventions they required in their school environments. Bandile argued that:

> "The facilitators are not effective; the workshops are always based on sharing experiences. The facilitators do not share their own experiences or expertise on matters

> discussed, they always ask us for our reflections, while that is helpful, we still need to get effective tools from the said facilitator".

Here teachers showed that they understood their professional developmental needs. As such, the effective tools they sought from the facilitators, whom they regarded as being experts in teachers' professional training, were practical methods to mitigate the challenges they met in their schools and their classrooms. Some of the facilitators were said to be university lecturers who were regarded as knowledge experts in specific fields who would advise on teaching and classroom management. However, some teachers found the facilitation inadequate. Sisipho, Mlungisi, and Luthando echoed similar sentiments:

> "The facilitators are often older, veteran teachers who are not necessarily updated on current issues".

> "The facilitators hired are not trained for facilitation, it is as if it was a tender given to the best bidder… we have to come up with solutions and nothing is given by the facilitator, who is an outsider and could potentially provide us with meaningfulinsights" (Mlungisi).

> "Some of the trainings are like tenders…they (DBE) will host a workshop just to show that they conducted a workshop, but it has no value for me as a teacher… I quite honestly gain no value from them" (Luthando).

From the teachers' experiences, beyond not seeing the value in the CPTD workshop programmes, to likening the workshop programmers to South Africa's infamous tender system and seeing facilitators as not updated on current issues, the teachers found themselves entrapped in a bureaucratically managed CPTD system which does not acknowledge the issues of teachers on the ground. Teachers said they raised their dissatisfaction with their subject facilitators from their respective districts, but the response was often that these issues were not new. Therefore, it becomes an unending cycle of repeating workshops that do not serve the needs of teachers and their learners. Interestingly, Somo (2007) and Gulston 2010) pointed to the same matters in their discussions with regard to teachers' experiences with CPTD programmes. Furthermore, this points to two key points in the reviewed literature. The first is Spaull's (2015) argument on how poor-quality education creates a poverty trap for learners,

the secondly the political symbolism in policy development where the facilitators are not skilled, and implementation is a last-minute consideration (Jansen, 2001). The tender approach that teachers spoke about illustrates problematic government processes of 'masking' progress through elaborate programmes that in practice lacked comprehensive guidelines and solutions with regard to classroom challenges.

This extract highlights the views expressed by the teachers about the running and organisation of the CPTD workshop programmes, which they associated with the political arena of the policy implementation process in South Africa:

> "In my experience, teacher development is prioritised for certain subjects. The majority of the budget goes to Maths, Technology and Science…The CPTDs do not benefit my professional development, we just attend for the sake of attending…" (Luthando).

Bandile:

> "My experience of the CPTD workshops is that they are focused on helping learners pass Maths, not understand Maths…The topics we are trained on focus on the statistics that we need to produce at the end of the year. So, I can say there is a politics behind the training in that it seems they are done for the sake of saying we conducted a workshop to assist Maths teachers with their pass rates".

Key to Bandile and Luthando's reflections is the issue of the prioritisation of key subject areas such as Mathematics, Science, and Technology. As seen in literature from Abreh (2018), Mathematics at a global level is considered central to economic and technological advancement. On the one hand, an extensive number of the CPTD workshops cover skills in these subject areas, but similarly to what was established with regard to the allocation of facilitators, the workshops are not aimed at enhancing the teachers' skills for quality education. What can be seen in this regard is yet another mismatch between policy-stated intentions and their practice.

Teachers Xoliswa and Thandekile reflected on the challenges their learners experienced from their homes and how some of the activities they were introduced to in their CPTDs were not necessarily tailored to the kind of learners they taught. For instance, Xoliswa stated that:

> "We attended a Foundation Phase teachers' workshop titled: Learning through play…where you facilitate a child's learning through playing games instead of using the regular methods of writing on the boards and posters…The training was fun, we got to play as teachers as well. But when I got back to my classroom, I realised my learners had limited exposure to some of the playing material we were recommended to use in the CPTD…Where you are taught to use puzzles to teach learners logic and order, my learners only see those in the classroom and that is if I have been given the puzzles for my lessons. Some of the activities in the ATP [Annual Teaching Plan] also tend to not cover the context the learners come from…I then have to be creative and find ways that they can easily relate to…"

While the CPTD workshop programmes cannot adequately address each teacher's classroom context in their facilitation, they should offer a template to facilitate better learning and improvement. Teachers would take it upon themselves to find other creative methods that would be more relatable to their learners. For instance, teachers would contextualise learning through play but initiate relatable games such as '*diketo'* instead of using puzzles. However, some teachers were not looking for another teaching strategy but a way, firstly, to eradicate the challenges their learners face so that they can be fully present in the learning process, regardless of the methods being used. The issue is that the learners carry their psychosocial issues into the learning processes which hinders their participation and eventually the quality of learning and teaching that is reflected in their outcomes. The next chapter discusses the challenges teachers highlighted in terms of contextual factors.

Jansen (2011) points to this challenge with facilitators by arguing that university lecturers lack practical teaching training to enable them to train teachers effectively for what they deal with in schools and classrooms. The process of allocating facilitators requires a strategic review that considers relatability, functionality, and the varied contexts of teachers with teaching in marginalised societies.

5.2.2.2 Professional Learning Communities (PLC)

PLCs emerged as important spaces in the effective implementation of the CPTD policy in schools. As seen in the global perspectives from the reviewed literature, collaborative CPTD

implementation programmes within the CPTD system are effective (Xaso *et al* 2017). Additionally, the ISPFTED acknowledges PLCs as important activities within the district level towards actioning the CPTD policy for teachers' professional development (DBE and DHET 2011). Additionally, the reviewed literature (Feldman 2016; Feldman 2020; Van der Merwe & Dasoo 2021) emphasizes the collaboration and network system that exists within PLCs making the CPTD component effective in improving teachers' professional development. This section discusses the various ways in which teachers put into practice the assertions of the CPTD policy to suit their unique contexts and maximise the opportunity to collaborate and network with one another to support learners and enhance their teaching practices.

CPTD workshop programmes became a space for collaboration. On teacher-initiated activities, teachers recounted their experiences with learning from one another to ensure better teaching methods and standards in their classrooms. In learning from one another, teachers also emphasised the relationship between new and older teachers, where the PLCs within the CPTD workshop programmes were focused on teachers sharing their own experiences and challenges within the classrooms. Zolani (Young teacher) noted:

> "During the workshops, we gather with other teachers, and you get to learn from other teachers on the challenges they have faced and how they overcame those challenges…This is helpful because you will find that you are also dealing with similar challenges and now you learn of other ways to overcome them from more experienced teachers. My personal experience as such is that I have a PGCE Qualification and I teach Mathematics, for most of my career I had to learn Maths Lit on the ground…so in terms of strengthening my content, as I am an Economist, I was assisted by the CPTDs, learning from new and old teachers, from hearing them share how they did things in their classrooms".

CPTD workshop programmes were a platform where teachers were able to develop their professional skills which enabled them to provide quality education. From these teacher-initiated activities, teachers were able to learn from one another on issues around discipline and classroom management, looking at practical ways that have worked for them that might work for others. Teachers, like Tshidiso, Zolani, and Sisipho, commented on how they were able to learn practical skills on how to work with learners from colleagues in similar environments.

Specifically, Tshidiso shared that:

> "During the CPTD workshops, teachers will share ways in which they deal with issues like discipline, something I have been struggling with. So, they help in that way, and mostly it is older teachers that will share tips and tricks to dealing with such issues".

Zingisa (an old teacher, who has been in the field for over 26 years) also stated that:

> "Some of us are old school, with limited knowledge of technology, so in the workshops, we work together, especially with the younger teachers, they show us how to use the smart boards and all the different technologies required for us to meet the curriculum goals".

Moreover, the learning communities that teachers created with one another highlighted the agency teachers have and their ability to practise within their communities of learning. This is linked to the points raised by Darling-Hammon *et al* (2017) and Feldman (2017) on how the teaching and learning environments in which teachers work may inhibit effective professional development. Hence the PLCs, led by teachers themselves, were created for effective professional development. The CPTD workshop programmes were effective in creating an environment that facilitated teachers' development in a peer-to-peer-led environment. It must, however, be noted that the CPTD workshops are not regular, and teachers took initiative outside of the CPTD mandate, at times as teacher-led initiatives and at others at a school level.

The teacher-initiated activities included teachers in a quintile 1 primary school meeting on Tuesdays to plan their course content (Grade 1 - 3 teachers). Thandekile mentioned that this was to ensure that the teaching they provided for their learners was streamlined and they could share ideas on activities that worked for the learners in their grades and classrooms. Additionally, Thandekile commended this system as it helped in the progression of the learners within the foundation phase of their school in that a grade 3 teacher knows what concepts were covered in grades 1 and 2 and how they were taught so that they were able to plan for the learners as they progressed. They employ a scaffolding pedagogy. Overall, this indicates the agency practised by teachers in their schools, and beyond that an agency encouraged through the CPTD workshop programmes, particularly with regard to its intentions and objectives.

Another activity from a school perspective was led by the DH to support the teachers he was overseeing. Mthetho initiated a “Wednesday working lunch programme” in which he would have all teachers sit together during lunch and outline their issues. They would then assist one another in meeting the gaps in their teaching plans and objectives. This demonstrates teachers’ willingness to exercise their agency and autonomy to work towards developing their professional mandate in their work of teaching.

Both the teacher-led and school-led initiatives mirror the CPTD management system, which is geared toward the professional development of teachers. How it manifests may not necessarily mirror the programme documents, but it is meeting the goals. This is in conjunction with Nhlumayo (2024) who argues for school-based teacher professional development as an impactful and accurate implementation strategy to enable teachers working within specific contexts to deal effectively with the challenges with which they are met in those contexts. This phenomenon is evidenced by the two initiatives shared by Mthetho and Thandekile.

5.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter set out to provide a reading of the NPFTED and ISPFTED, specifically looking at how the CPTD policy and its relation to teachers' work and their role in developing a quality education in South Africa. In its reading, the study found that the policy underrepresents the complicated contexts within which teachers work. This was evident in how the policies framed the problem around poor learner outcomes and teachers' lack of content and pedagogical knowledge deemed essential for driving a quality education in South African schools. Using the IRC framework (level of complexity, challenges posed by policy, functionality), political symbolism, and the various constructions of teacher identities, this chapter found that the policies are instrumental and symbolic in how the state, the DBE and SACE frame the problems within the schooling system. As a result, the policy documents resemble political intentions in how they set out the CPTD policy and its assumed benefits for teacher professional development.

Furthermore, this chapter puts the policies into the context of conversation with teachers by exploring teachers’ understanding and experiences to speak to the representation of teachers and the key problem with attaining a quality education that is centred on the role of teachers.

Here the teachers' experiences illuminated the political symbolism in the contradictions within the CPTD policy prescripts on the role played by SACE and the DBE regarding the effective implementation of the CPTD policy. These also highlight the distance between the policy intentions and the context that the teachers work in, namely quintile 1-3 schools within Katlehong township. Chapter 6 will speak to this context to underscore the importance of aligning the policy formulation and implementation with the context within which teachers work, and to show that the problem with attaining a quality education system links to broader political and socio-economic issues within South Africa as a whole.

Chapter 6:
Giving context to policy implementation through teachers' experiences in schools.

6.1 Introduction

> "The production of learner performance as a social act, and to understand, specifically, that there are very distinctive social conditions that precede and accompany the child on his or her way to school, and that, also, come into play while the child is in school. With respect to the former, or what one might describe as the external social factors, included in an explanation of the factors that precede entry into the school are physical and cultural forces and influences: hunger, physical and emotional trauma, exposure to distinctive leisure and recreational past-times" (Soudien 2007: 190).

Soudien's (2007: 190) argument for "the production of learner performance as a social act" points to teaching and learning processes being socially situated within particular histories and contexts. Specifically, the teachers and learners in this study are social beings existing within schools located in the Katlehong township, and this carries particular social practices and dynamics that are (re)produced in the individual lives of the learners and teachers, within the dynamics playing out in schools and classrooms. Teachers in this study narrated how there were impeding factors in the learning and teaching processes. The challenges and experiences that their learners encountered outside the classroom and school environment still featured greatly in their learning.

The reflections of teachers in this chapter demonstrate the complex realities that they are faced with; realities which are a result of the complicated education system embedded within a legacy of inequalities (Soudien 2007; Chisholm 2012). This chapter highlights these within the context of quintile 1 - 3 schools in Katlehong to speak to the continued fragmentation of South Africa's schooling system that inhibits the effective implementation of policy, and, in this case, the CPTD policy. The first section will delve into the institutional challenges (the level of functionality of a school) while the second section will focus on the psychosocial realities at play within quintile 1 - 3 schools. These speak to the difficult societal contexts that are a result

of South Africa's difficult history with apartheid. The two sections are central to identifying factors contributing to the persisting distance between policy formulation and policy implementation in South Africa's schooling system. Moreover, the context highlighted in this chapter is key to answering the study's research question on teachers' experiences with the CPTD policy and its ability to enable teachers to drive a quality education system in South Africa. These experiences and the context discussed in the chapter demonstrate the overlooked dynamics of what happens and does not happen in schools that impacts the trajectory of progress towards effective CTPD practices for teachers.

6.2 Institutional and Systemic Challenges

In line with the pursuit of quality education, the reviewed literature (Boisserie 2004; Murtin 2013; Spaull 2013) revealed that getting children into schools is not enough, nor does it account for quality in the education system. The schools that children attend need to provide a conducive environment for learning and growth. Moreover, the schools need also to be conducive for teachers to be able to drive effective teaching and learning processes. The institutional challenges implicated in the implementation of policy in the context of this study include inadequate school infrastructure and resources to facilitate an effective learning environment as well as quality teaching practices for quality education. Specifically, the participating teachers' reflections showed how the issues of insufficient resources and funding and lack of infrastructure cut across the board when it comes to quintile 1 - 3 schools in the Katlehong Township. Gallie's (2006) IRC framework speaks of the level of functionality as well as the capacity of schools in implementing policy reforms. In using this framework, one can uncover how the context within which policy is implemented and within which teachers' function is not isolated from broader socio-economic issues which impact the effective implementation of the CPTD policy for the attainment of quality education. The institutional challenges referred to in this section form part of the complicated social reality in which teachers have to teach and implement the skills and knowledge they acquire in the CPTD workshops.

6.2.1 Infrastructure and Policy Prescriptions

In this section, the differentiated priority in the provision and maintenance of basic infrastructure that is necessary for effective learning is discussed. Amsterdam (2010: 1) argues that, in the South African context, the emphasis and priority is on the provision of "basic

infrastructure which entails: “classroom space, access to water, sanitation facilities and electricity” (ibid). Granted, Amsterdam wrote in 2010. The findings of this study, 13 years later, show that the same problems persist on the ground. The basic infrastructure is poor in schools that are situated in townships and are ranked as quintile 1 - 3 schools.

As was seen in Chapter 5, resource allocation and infrastructure are listed as imperative for effective learning and teaching processes towards the provision of quality education. Interestingly, The NPFTED and the ISPFTED acknowledge the importance of infrastructure in this regard but evident in this is a political symbolism of alluding to fundamental problems within the education system yet not making plans to address these effectively (Jansen 2002), further creating an unending cycle of poverty for schools in marginalised contexts (Spaull 2015). The NPFTED points to the enduring legacy of economic inequalities, with the prevalence of poor infrastructure and resources for poor people. The ISPFTED, on the other hand, mentions the requirement for funds for the infrastructure development and resource provision to enable effective teacher development and, ultimately, the attainment of a quality education. With the enduring legacy of economic inequality and political symbolism demonstrated here with regards to infrastructure and resources, it becomes clear that the DBE, as a key custodian for education, has not made any commitment towards the implementation of the CPTD policy and quality education with regards to the effective provision of resources.

The following discussion covers teachers’ experiences with having to navigate teaching with limited to no adequate resources and infrastructure. The teachers’ stories highlight various socio-political and economic issues prevalent in the education system, issues that impact educational processes in schools. These are important in outlining the complicated and complex realities with which teachers in the quintile 1 - 3 schools in Katlehong must contend. Specifically, this subtheme discusses infrastructure in schools that impedes meaningful teaching and learning processes. Evident in these discussions is the ripple effect in that a lack of school infrastructure leads to other key issues with learning and teaching experiences, such as overcrowding in classrooms. Moreover, the section will discuss the lack of resources found in the quintile 1 - 3 schools, which also impacts the quality of educational experiences. This lack of resources includes a lack of textbooks, stemming from family socio-economic statuses and the schooling context.

Central to this study is a question about teachers' experiences of the CPTD workshop programmes and how these enable them to drive a quality education system. The following sections highlight central aspects of teachers' reflections when they speak of their experiences and the complex social realities with infrastructure and socio-economic conditions of the learners and the schools in which they teach. The conjunction between the two, and, specifically, given the impact of effective implementation of the CPTD policy is that, by positioning CPTD as a means to capacitate teachers to drive a quality education system, the schools where they teach cannot be disconnected from the communities in which they are situated and the schools must be equipped to enable teachers to participate effectively in the CPTD programmes as prescribed by the DBE. This section seeks to argue that teaching and learning processes are situated within complex social realities that must not be overlooked in the formulation and implementation of the CPTD policy. The training teachers receive in the CPTD workshop programmes ought to recognise the context in which teachers work and the type of learners they are being capacitated to teach. This way the value of the education system with regards to its quality can be attained.

6.2.1.1 Infrastructure: the complexities and contradictions

Infrastructure needs can be big in terms of classrooms, sports fields, libraries, and science laboratories. They can also relate to needs, such as internet connectivity, printers, and stationery. This section highlights the importance of infrastructure provision for the delivery of quality education and further demonstrates the complicated context within which teachers in the quintile 1 - 3 schools in Katlehong work. It is impossible to provide quality education in the context of poor infrastructure, even as teachers come up with creative ways to deliver the content to the learners.

Bandile, a Mathematics teacher, and Tshidi, a Civil Technology, EGD, Design, and Maths teacher, reflected on poor infrastructure and the impact this has on classroom dynamics and processes. Tshidi stated that learners need a workshop room to demonstrate the practical aspects of the subjects. Bandile supports this point by stating:

> "Not having adequate infrastructure and resources in the school leads to a lack of exposure to the practical aspects of the subject" (Bandile).

This exposure for learners adds value to their educational experiences and the overall quality of the education system (Motala 2001; Spaull 2015). Given the earlier argument by Amsterdam (2010) that the basic infrastructure that needs to be provided by the DBE is a classroom and basic facilities such as water and electricity, for some schools teaching subjects, such as Design, Construction, Technology, Computer Science, and Technical Mathematics, classroom infrastructure goes beyond the provision of an empty room. Bandile and Tshidiso's reflections on driving a quality education without resources reveal the deflection in the ownership of the education system. The DBE as the custodian of the education system places teachers, as "essential drivers of a quality education" (DoE 2006: 5), while it does not provide them with the necessary resources and infrastructure to carry out this role. The level of functionality of schools highlighted in the IRC framework by Gallie (2006) can be read as infrastructure disparities, which make it difficult for teachers to implement strategies from CPTD workshop programmes.

6.2.1.2 Overcrowding in schools and classrooms

The need and supply of infrastructure in South Africa presents complexities, given the schooling contexts such as the quintile 1 - 3 schools situated within Katlehong. This demand and supply situation also presents a contradiction that implicates the quality of educational processes taking place in these schools. As such, the teachers lamented the poor quality of school infrastructure, which was not conducive to quality teaching and learning. Teachers reflected on the sizes and types of classes they had. Some schools used prefabricated classrooms which, the teachers argued, were too small to accommodate all the students. Moreover, the classrooms put in place temporarily had health implications for learners and their experiences with learning.

> "If you look at the type of classroom space we have, there is not enough space to allow the number of students we have to sit well and be able to concentrate on the work we cover…so the building itself is a disadvantage" (Zanele).

> "The school is too small to accommodate all the learners we have in the school. We share classrooms as teachers […]so you will find that before your period even ends you must hurry to give the next teacher space in the classroom…we are always rushing the lesson and sometimes taking time away from other teacher's lessons" (Thulani).

Prefabricated classrooms are a temporary measure often used while the construction of stable buildings is taking place. They are also regarded as cost-effective means of adding classroom space. However, these classrooms are not necessarily healthy and effective for learning in terms of ventilation, a point raised by Meier & West (2020), speaking on the impact of overcrowded classrooms on educational processes and experiences. Moreover, health and learner well-being are key components in UNICEF's conceptualisation of quality education (Colby & Witt 2000). Worse still is that, even with these temporary classroom structures, the schools are without enough space. The teachers argued that the classrooms in their school were being shared between teachers, not allowing for enough time to engage learners, because, as their lesson ended, they needed to make room for the next teacher. Here, the teachers are connecting infrastructure challenges to their ability to engage learners in their teaching strategies successfully, an important part of the process of learning. A consequence of limited classroom space is overcrowding.

Connected to this finding above, Meier & West (2020: 2) argue that "overcrowded classrooms occur as a result of a shortage of teachers, a lack of school infrastructure and a high number of poorly resourced no-fee (quintile 1-3) schools". Although the teachers did not argue about a shortage of teachers in their specific schools, they had problems with overcrowding as a result of poor or no resources. This demonstrates the interconnectedness between systemic and institutional challenges within the education system, particularly the quintile 1 - 3 schools. An effective supply and retention of teachers, as well as the supply of resources for learning are systemic jurisdictions that are managed by the DBE. However, a lack of these has led to institutional challenges such as overcrowded classrooms and poor learning in the quintile 1 - 3 schools which further count as poor working conditions for teachers.

The teachers complained about the issue of overcrowding in their schools, which is a manifestation of two things. Firstly, the limited infrastructure did not meet the constant influx of learners coming into schools at varied times of the academic year. Schools have deadlines and admission guidelines that help schools meet the demand based on their capacity. However, schools often find themselves making concessions to meet the demand from parents and learners, which is in accordance with the SASA Act No. 84 of 1996 that every child should be in a school and receive an education. As such, teachers find themselves having to accommodate new learners with each term, and they carry the burden of ensuring that the new learners are

well caught up with the lesson and the teacher is up to date with the Annual Teaching Plan (ATP) deadlines.

Secondly, the teacher-learner ratio stated by the DBE is not a reality in some quintile 1 - 3 schools. In addition, teachers stated that, when schools do not adhere to admissions deadlines, overcrowding becomes an invariable consequence. The teachers, particularly high school teachers, complained about classroom overcrowding. According to the teachers, the teacher-to-learner ratio should be 1:35. However, the teachers found themselves in classes with over 50 learners. Some of the teachers had 70 learners in the classroom, which is double the official ratio. This has an impact on the teaching and learning processes. Van Wyk (2008) and West and Meier (2020) argue that overcrowding in schools affects the quality of learning and teaching. In most cases, the teacher is unable to cater for and provide adequate support to all the learners, even with the best teaching strategies. Added to that, they are unable to provide the necessary psychological support that is also key to the learners' ability to learn.

Msizi and Luthando shared that:

> "One of the biggest challenges I have to deal with is the imbalanced learner-to-teacher ratio. Which is about 1:90, and I teach 3 different grades, with a similar ratio". (Msizi)

> "I am met with overcrowded classes for my subject, and this becomes frustrating for both me and my learners because it takes time to get the planned material through…On top of that, we teach in a container classroom, so even the conditions there just make it worse". (Luthando)

The 'container classroom' refers to the aforementioned prefabricated classrooms. Luthando had 70 learners in their quintile one school classroom. These two sentiments illustrate the conditions within some schools. The teachers' narratives point to the conditions that do not enable them to carry out their work of teaching effectively as per policy ideals. This demonstrates the contradictions that exist within the education system and the role teachers are expected to play in driving a quality education system.

The issues raised, particularly the lack of, and poor, infrastructure to enable effective learning and teaching processes demonstrates the tension between the socio-economic context of a

school and policy. This is so in that, while policy requires for teachers to drive a quality education system and ensure that all learners attain a good an equal education, the schools they learn in must be conducive environments for effective learning to take place. Policy reforms towards quality education as well and the redistribution of resources within a South African context do not match the reality on the ground, thus highlighting that the continued gap between policy formulation and implementation lies in the continuities of inequality prevalent within the education system.

6.2.1.3 Resources: complexities and contradictions

Beyond the big infrastructure challenges, there were also other, easier-to-address, challenges that persisted. Tshidiso shared some issues she faced with adequate stationery for learners. Emphasising that this was on the part of the learners:

> "Learners don't have the material required for a successful lesson…You will find that when you are supposed to start teaching, learners are busy borrowing stationery from each other…and you have to be lenient with them… For the subjects I teach, students know that they must have a T-square, protractor, compass […] EGD requires specific stationery".

Additionally, Tshidiso added that the schools did not supply any resources for the practical assessments given to the learners. When asked further about why the learners did not have the stationery, Tshidiso answered saying she was not sure of the reasons because she would communicate with the learners ahead of time. What is apparent here is that, while the school and the DBE have a mandate to provide teachers and learners with adequate infrastructure and resources for learning, parents also play a role in ensuring that the learners have the required basic resources that are not provided by schools. From the available evidence, quintile 1-3 schools often serve poorer families, and these schools are no-fee-paying schools. Poor families may struggle to secure all the resources that learners need to learn in schools. As discussed in the methodology section, Katlehong Township is characterised by diverse schooling contexts and environments, majority of which, are quintile 1-3 schools (NSC 2023), marked with limited resource. In this case, teachers armed with different teaching strategies may encounter problems where effective learning cannot take place because of inadequate resources. Evident here is the continued legacy of economic inequality within marginalised South African

societies that permeates schooling systems as well. In effectively implementing the skills gained in the CPTD workshop programmes, teachers must still contend with limited infrastructure. Hence this study argues for an in-depth consideration of the realities prevalent within school environments that act as barriers to attaining effective engagement with CPTD programmes and the driving of a quality education system by the teachers in quintile 1-3 Katlehong schools.

Mlungisi and others also complained that the schools lacked adequate equipment that would help facilitate better learning and teaching processes.
Mlungisi said:

> "We do not have photocopy machines to make copies from the textbooks we have…also the textbooks that the learners can keep are outdated and not so useful in their learning anymore, so to make copies from my own updated copy is a struggle".

Sisipho also echoed similar sentiments saying:

> "We have 30 textbooks for an entire grade, the learners have to share these textbooks…so as the teacher you must keep the textbooks with you every day so that no one loses the textbook, and all the learners can share".

Two key issues are evident in Mlungisi and Sisipho's narratives. The lack of access to ICT equipment, given the 4IR context that education systems across the globe have undertaken, is important in the ability to provide education that is meaningful, relevant, and relatable. Moreover, there is also the issue of textbooks. These two overlap in that Sisipho speaks of not having enough textbooks to accommodate all the learners in the grade, not just one classroom but an entire grade. Mungisi speaks on not having the ICT equipment that could help mitigate the shortage of textbooks and the ability to gather updated research on the learning content since the textbooks carry some pieces of outdated information. As a result, Sisipho must manage the sharing of the 30 available textbooks. This means learners cannot take them home with them to further practise and study independently.

As a result, the learning of learners is compromised as the only time they get a hold of the textbook, which is a necessary resource for effective learning, is during class time, and they still have to share it with other learners. In the teachers' experience, they are met with the

pressure of ensuring they teach the required module content within a specific timeline while faced with the shortage of resources to aid in their process of teaching. They also need to manage the sharing of the textbooks among their learners who also have different learning abilities. This is a connection with the literature as it states that schools do not have the necessary resources to facilitate meaningful and impactful learning (DBE and DHET 2011; Luschei & Chudgar 2013; Sayed *et al* 2016; Nkambule 2022). Moreover, this is consistent with the dominant framing of townships and their schools as such. Teachers in these schools are met with the paradox of having to provide quality teaching while the provision of such things as textbooks as supporting learning material is not available in schools.

Printers and photocopy machines are a necessity in schools. Worksheets, assessments, and other information need to be circulated within the school for the effective rendition of the education process. The lack of adequate infrastructure and resources reveals a continuing problem within the South African schooling system accounted for in existing literature (Bloch 2009; Spaull 2015; Kimathi & Rusznyak 2018; Hunter 2019; Meier & West 2020; Le Grange 2021; Nakidien, Singh & Sayed 2021; Reimers 2022). The Equitable Provision of an Enabling School Physical Teaching and Learning Environment of 2010 (EPESTLE) and National Minimum Uniform Standards for School Infrastructure of 2013 (NMUSSI) are aimed at ensuring the equitable provision of basic infrastructure. Yet, teachers still complained about not having this in their schools. Teachers are present at schools and in classrooms, ready and available to facilitate the learning process, but they do this without the required material.

When one considers the level of school functionality within Gallie's (2006) IRC Framework, it becomes clear that, within the formulation of the CPTD policy and its implementation, the schools within which teachers work and function require varied amounts of support to ensure that the policy is effectively implemented. Given Tshidiso, Mlungisi and Sisipho's reflections on the state of their schools and how these function it becomes clear that the CPTD policy does not take into consideration the resources that enable the effective functioning of the school, and which, ultimately, enable the functioning of teachers as effective drivers of a quality education system.

6.2.1.4 Policy prescriptions

More on the contradictions and complexities prevalent in the education system are policy prescriptions that limit teachers' agency and thereby impede their work relative to driving a quality education. This section focuses on some policy-related institutional issues teachers reflected on, which impacted their work and the educational experiences in classrooms. The policy prescriptions that seemed to affect teachers' work directly were the Learner Progression policy and stipulated ATP deadlines. Teachers argued that:

> "The policies protect the learners and not the teachers," said Msizi.

Msizi saw a double standard whereby policy protected learners far more than teachers, citing the teacher-to-learner ratios. Additionally, Mbalenhle argued that:

> "The system as a whole does not protect both the teachers and the learners…We are simply teaching because we have to teach, otherwise we no longer see the benefit…it would be better if the learners were benefitting" (Mbalenhle).

6.2.1.4.1 Learner progression policy

The teachers also cited challenges with the promotion of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of 2012 (amended), specifically its assertions on Learner Progression. The policy is aimed at ensuring that learners progress in the education system. It stipulates that a learner cannot be allowed to repeat a phase more than two times. In special cases where the learner has not met the minimum requirements, they will be promoted to the next phase (DBE 2012)). The policy was created to limit school dropout rates in South Africa (Mogale & Modipane 2021). While dropping out is a threat to the education system and the learner's educational outcomes, the promotion and retention policy does not adequately address the issues at hand, particularly with regard to the knowledge they can grasp. Beyond that, some of the infrastructural and social inadequacies (to be covered in Section 6.3) inhibit the learners from grasping the required knowledge to progress to the next grades. Moreover, while it seems the policy is serving the learners, it does not, and this is due to its not considering the contextual factors at play which hinder the teaching and learning processes in quintile 1 - 3 schools.

Teachers complained about how this progression policy hindered the quality of their teaching. Nombulelo shared that she usually fails her students if they are unable to grasp key concepts

that are fundamental to their overall learning beyond grade 4. However, she finds herself being told to not fail students and to make sure they pass the grade as the policy does not allow teachers to fail the pupils twice in a grade. Nombulelo asserts that:

> "This poses a challenge for the learner in the higher grades because the basic concepts they were unable to grasp here at the lower level, meet up with them in their senior phase…howeverbecause I am also restricted by the policy… I am forced to push the learner…by promoting them to the next grade knowing very well that they have not satisfactorily grasped the foundation phase work".

Mlungisi, echoing similar sentiments, stated:

> "At grade 8 level a key challenge I encounter is that learners cannot read nor write…not to talk of reading with comprehension. This is a challenge from primary schools where principals and districts push for results…for them, it's about getting rid of the learners".

These reflections show the need for a reconceptualization and re-imagination of what a quality education looks like in a South African context, given the fragmented schooling system. The literature argued for a value-laden education system that would enhance the learning experiences for learners (Motala 2001). Given the progression of learners without any substantial value and educational gain, the quality of education is compromised. Additionally, teachers saw the requirements of progressing learners as a challenge to their professional identity. Teachers were expected to betray their responsibility to their learners by passing them even when they were unable to meet basic skills such as reading and comprehension. Teachers saw a deeper problem for the learner as the teachers had to build on "existing skills" which learners lacked as they would have progressed without merit. Teachers' professional assessments were undermined by district officials and principals in the application of the progression policy.

The teachers also complained that, in instances where learners did not perform well, they were expected to be "miracle workers" to ensure that the student passed in line with the progression policy. This points back to Jansen's (2001) argument about how policy images impact teachers' practice and their teacher identities on an emotional, political, and professional basis. The teachers knew the students needed more time to grasp the foundational concepts before being

promoted to the next grade or phase, but they are trapped between complying with policy and truly serving their learners' educational needs. Again, teachers become subjects of policy while they are expected to be agents of policy change (Thomas 2005; Seetal 2006; Pesambili, Sayed & Stambach, 2022).

While one understands the intention of the policy in terms of ensuring that learners advance in their learning journey, this is a flaw in that it does not make provision for support for learners in these cases to ensure that they grasp the basic concepts and, as such, are then able to progress to subsequent levels in their learning. The following section will touch on a leading factor in this problem, paperwork and administrative deadlines that do not cater to learners' needs within the education process which puts many at the mercy of the progression policy.

6.2.1.4.2 Annual Teaching Plan (ATP) deadlines

Teachers commented on the burden that they had placed on them by the Annual Teaching Plan (which most referred to as their guiding policy). ATP deadlines did not match the different learners that teachers encountered in the classroom, such that the teachers tasked themselves to create three different ATPs which catered to the learners' differentiated learning capabilities. Teachers classified their learners' capabilities according to their performance levels. The three categories they had were: High achievers, Average achievers, and Low achievers. According to the teachers, the ATP caters only to the Average Achievers in that teachers can meet ATP standards and deadlines. Regarding the high achievers, on the other hand, the teachers continuously argued that they were the learners that were ahead of the other learners and required more challenging work. To engage these learners, some teachers created separate activities to meet their educational needs. The low achievers often had difficulty mastering the given content at a rapid pace, and for that reason teachers would need to adopt other strategies to ensure that they were not left behind and were on the same page as other learners, though they would need more time and attention from the teacher.

Zingisa narrated that:

> "In my classroom, I need to make sure that I have three ATPs, one for my high achieving learners, one average, and one for the low achieving learners because I need to cater to all of them. To ensure that the high achievers are constantly stimulated and not bored, and then for my average learners, I keep the normal ATP from the

> department. Then for my low achievers, I design one to make sure that they are not left behind in class and they can write the assessments".

In a similar light, Zanele also reflected that:

> "The ATP restricts me a lot in teaching because it does not provide strategies for the different learners I have. All it does is dictate to me the content and concepts I need to cover in a set time. How I do that is my responsibility. I must make sure that if the ATP says to cover a concept in two weeks, it is what I do. But the problem comes when, in the first week, I am still dealing with the basics of the concept, and I cannot move. I end up having to rush my learners. This creates a gap in their learning because I am having to chase the ATP deadlines as I will be held accountable by the district officials…As teachers, we are in a battle because siqeshiwe[7]".

These reflections demonstrate that teachers have the required knowledge bases, such as pedagogical and content knowledge as they know the amount of time required to cover a particular topic. Moreover, their knowledge of their learners' needs and capabilities and how to cater to these in their teaching methods was explained. Teachers' keen awareness linked to Jansen's (2011) & Luneta's (2012) notions of the knowledge bases required for effective teaching. Additionally, the teachers' reflections point to the unequal power relations between teachers and the state through policy. They also reveal the continuity in the hierarchical, top-down, and authoritarian power dynamics prevalent in the framing of teachers and their work (Sebakwane 1997; Chisholm 1999). The ATP and its requirements frame the work of teachers as professionals and militant workers (Heystek & Lethoko 2001) in that teachers ought to follow the specific guidelines provided in their ATP as the professional aspect of their work, while simultaneously framing them as subjects to the ATP guidelines, regardless of their discernment based on their encounters with learners in the classrooms.

Considering Zanele, Tshepang and Kholeka, who teach Science and Maths respectively, they shared that, for their subjects, because they cannot move forward with the content when learners are yet to grasp specific and important basics, they negotiate with their district officials who then require them to create catch-up plans. However, in their experience with the ATP

[7] Siqeshiwe- IsiXhosa phrase for "we are employed".

deadlines, Zanele highlights difficulties with being able to challenge the system and demonstrate an image of the teacher as a compliant actor as stated by (cite author here). She is aware of the tensions her learners face with the content, but she chooses to follow the ATP deadlines as she is answerable to the district officials. This is demonstrated in her sentiments that "as teachers, they are in a battle because they are employed". This means that teachers are subject to the precepts of their employers; they abide by the instructions of the employer over their experiences and understanding of the complex dynamics that occur in the classrooms and with their learners.

Kholeka, on the other hand, demonstrates the image of a teacher as an autonomous professional with a responsibility towards their learners first. In this regard, Kholeka states that:

> "The catch-up plan must show how I plan to cover the work that I would have missed while trying to get my learners acquainted with a particular subject theme. Since I teach Maths, I cannot compromise and force them to move forward when the learners cannot do basic things such as subtraction and addition, which are needed for the more complex topics".

What we can also gather, especially from the interviews with Zanele and Kholeka, is that teachers face ramifications for not sticking to the ATP timelines. Teachers complained that the ATPs were not realistic and did not accommodate their learners fully. For this reason, the teachers complained that the content on the ATP is too dense for learners and does not allow for quality learning. At the end of the year, they have gained little to no knowledge on top of being rushed to understand complex concepts within two weeks. Teachers stated that they addressed these issues with their district officials, who are now referred to as subject specialists. However, the response is always one of a lack of concern, as the officials believe these problems have long existed and there is not much they can do on their side.

The evidence is that teachers are not passive consumers and actors of policy, but they actively work with the policy to create a conducive learning experience for the different learners in their classrooms as seen with Zanele, Zingisa, Tshepang and Kholeka. The agency practised by the teachers here reflects the negotiations teachers undertake to ensure meaningful learning for their learners.

Moreover, if we consider the Gallie's (2006) IRC framework, it is evident that the learner progression policy as well as the ATP are type 5 policy reforms as they call for both systematic and institutional reforms, although they specifically impact learners and teachers directly. Given this, provision must then be made from an institutional level to ensure that the progression of learners through grades does not impact their overall learning experiences, which then broadly translates into the quality of the education system. Kika and Kotze (2019) point to the dropout rates that tend to be much higher in grade 9. Institutionally and systemically, there are challenges associated with the dropout rates of learners and their eventual life outcomes. Hence the socio-economic context of learners and their needs need to be viewed from this institutional level in terms of policy reform. Additionally, the ATP deadlines should reconsider at an institutional level the key priority area for attaining a quality education in South Africa and consider what is feasible for the given population of learners and teachers.

6.3 Complex social realities

In investigating the effectiveness of the CPTD training, it is imperative to have a holistic view of the teachers' experiences of the CPTD training/workshops as well as their experiences on the ground. This theme focuses on the social issues that learners are faced with, and, in turn, teachers are met with these during the process of learning and teaching in classrooms. Specifically, the subthemes will cover the social environments related to the context of Katlehong as a township, collapsing family structures and disciplinary issues among learners, schooling contexts, and their impact on teachers' professional identities.

Sisipho, a young teacher who taught in a quintile 1 high school, lamented the societal challenges that the learners from poor backgrounds and environments encountered. It must be noted that, while Sisipho no longer works in a quintile 1 school, in her reflections here she specifically points to her experiences in a quintile 1 school, and often reflects in contrast to her experiences in a quintile 5 school, in which she now teaches. She mentioned how these issues affected her mental health as the teacher because she was shocked at the severity of the issues the learners were dealing with, as well as the extent to which they projected their troubles in the classroom and school settings.

She states that:

> "The school I was in had a lot of violence which emanated from the violence in the community. The kids we taught, had a violent and troubled past, this violence and troubled past manifested in the classrooms…As a result, I feared for my safety. Moreover, there was a lot of absenteeism in the school because of the traveling distance which was too far for some of the learners."

Sisipho also offered a comparison with her current school, which is a quintile 5 school, where her concerns were no longer linked to the societal challenges attached to the learners, but more to herself and the general learning practices in the school concerning the type of school she was now in. To this effect, she stated that:

> "In the quintile 5 school that I am in, everything runs smoothly; everyone knows what their role is, and they follow it accordingly. The only issues I have to deal with are social cohesion and an imposter syndrome, seeing that I am in a former white school […]There is a huge difference between quintile 5 and quintile 1 schools…and thereal issue here is that it matters where the schools are located, and the socio-economic standing of the communities and the learners in the school".

The differences between the q1 and q5 contexts as outlined by Ms Sisipho, although generalised, are glaring and reflect persisting inequalities within South African society. This speaks to Spaull's (2015) argument that the poor quality of our education is a poverty trap for the students who find themselves at a disadvantage. The poor quality of education learners receive is very much linked to their social background and context, which is in turn tied to the issues and challenges that occur in such societal settings. The following subthemes discuss a number of points of concern raised by teachers in relation to the context of teaching and learning within and beyond the school.

As highlighted in the literature review, South Africa's education system must be viewed from broader economic and social processes as these impact the educational change and reform given South Africa's complex historical context of inequality and fragmentation (Christie 1997;Clercq 1997;Jansen 2004;Chisholm 2012).The various teachers' reflections discussed here and in the preceding sections underscore the continuities in the inequalities prevalent not only in South Africa's education system, but in the broader South African society. The glaring economic disparities speak to the situatedness of learners in their physical surroundings, such

as the Katlehong township, as well as the collapsing family structures owing to a myriad of issues. None of these contextual challenges stand isolated from the challenges both the learners and teachers encounter in the effective attainment of a quality education system, and, more specifically for teachers, their effective engagement with the CPTD workshop programmes.

6.3.1 Social Environments and collapsing family structures

Where the learners come from, and the schooling environment are also integral aspects of understanding the processes of learning and teaching holistically if one is to understand and appreciate fully the nature of teachers' work as well as their working conditions. Townships and informal settlements overlap with quintile 1 - 3 schools owing to the socio-economic conditions in the areas. In considering the environments of learners, Xoliswa noted the following:

> "Let us first consider the environment these learners come from and where the school is situated…We are in an informal settlement… Here there is high unemployment, which affects learners because if the parents are not working how will they access things like food and uniforms? [just now I have given my lunch box to this child] ... This leads to Poverty. Moreover, we have parents who are Foreign Nationals, some ofthem lack proper documentation".

Schools' ought to be understood as accounting for their surrounding environmental context as the two cannot be separated. The type of social context a school is in does permeate its corridors and classrooms as illustrated in the discussion of 'Katlehong as a context'. The township itself carries a rich history of displacement, violence, and strife, and as seen in the teachers' reflections, these complex dynamics persist and factor in the quality of learning and teaching that occurs in the quintile 1 - 3 schools. In direct connection to Soudien's (2007) point on the factors that impact the learners' entry into the school, Xoliswa mentions a scenario with a learner who arrived in class hungry. Xoliswa narrated:

> "You can sometimes walk into class and find that one of the learners is crying, complaining about being sick…they either have a headache or a stomach ache. The first thing we ask them is what have you eaten? […] You then find out that they have not eaten…That's when we ask for the feeding scheme to give them something […] hhay?

> during the day you will find that the crying has stopped, the child is now playing with other kids, and they have now forgotten they are even sick…just to show that it was hunger".

Moreover, the sentiments by Kholeka and Nombulelo on the burdens that the children are carrying in saying "abantwana bethu bathwele nzima", goes to show how the learners never leave their home struggles at home or the school gate; they carry these with them into the classroom and in their learning processes.

Hall and Mokomane (2018) articulate the issue of family structures as being key to a learner's wellbeing and their ability to show up actively in their learning processes. Moreover, from Kholeka and Nombulelo's reflections, one can further argue that there is a need to contend with two different environmental factors, one being home and the other being the school. In these instances, the ability to teach in a manner that drives a quality education is hindered. This is owing to the home and family contexts that learners hail from as social beings (Hunter 2016; Hall & Mokomane 2018 & Hunter 2019). Moreover, this is a key factor in the South African society, where issues of poverty and economic inequalities are mostly rampant in specific societies, a continuity in the segregation of resources within the South African apartheid regime.

Rabe (2014) places family as a key site from which key social processes, such as identity formulation and the formulation of worldviews and perspectives, come about. However, in South Africa, evidence shows that many children are growing up in differentiated family and household structures, which has implications for the well-being of children (Hall & Mokomane 2018). These texts further highlight the importance of functional family structures for the holistic well-being of the learner and their eventual attainment of a quality education.

Zingisa, who has been a primary school teacher in township schools for 27 years, narrated that most of the issues and challenges they encounter with learning and teaching in these township/ quintiles 1 - 3 schools are a result of the following:

> "Informal settlement setting of the township. There is so much that kids from these informal settlements experience and it affects their learning[...]. For example, the family structures in these informal settlements[...]you will find that the learners are in

> child-headed families, or they live with their single parents. Some of them are orphaned, and at times you will find they are the parents themselves or they are parented by their older siblings. Child-headed families […]so our kids lack a support system from home because of these family structures and the environment they are growing up in. Another issue is the unemployment of parents in these communities, it affects the children and our role as teachers at the end of the day".

Although townships are different from informal settlements, Zingisa is referring to the living conditions in the townships from which some of her learners come. These conditions include unemployment, poverty, and overcrowding. Xoliswa also added that:

> "Another factor is that some of the children we have here are orphans, some are being raised by their grandparents and some by extended family members who themselves are struggling[...] in some of these cases, it is because the parents neglected their child and left them with these family members[…] Some children are being raised by their fathers because there is no mother and at times the father's 'girlfriend' may not even like the child, these interactions affect the child emotionally, physically, and socially, because there is a parental gap".

Thandekile added:

> "I once had a case where the child was being raped by a grandfather who was supporting the family and would boldly tell the family that "ndiyanondla[8]", and the child had a seizure right outside the school gates".

The three teachers' reflections focused on the types of families the learners they teach come from. Some come from single-parented families, extended families, or blended families, some are orphaned and some live with grandparents. These varied family contexts that the learners come from are not exclusive to the learners in the quintile 1 - 3 schools; they could be learners from any schooling context. However, in the context of this study, the teachers' reflections sought to highlight the social conditions that shape learners' encounters and engagements with the teaching process in the classrooms. The different roles they play at home either as a child

[8] "Ndiyanondla"- Xhosa expression meaning," I feed you or I provide for you".

or the head of the household, given the type of family they come from, often impacts how they then engage in the classroom. Furthermore, the teachers' reflections show how, in their context, the type of family the learner comes from informs them of the learner's access to various capital (social, economic, and cultural) that could either enable or hinder their learning. These speak to the assertions of Hall & Mokomane (2018) on how the changes in family structures and households impact children and, particularly, their participation in educational processes.

Xoliswa speaks of a parental gap in a blended family context that exists in her classroom with one of her learners. The importance of looking into families for the teachers is that they then have to navigate the social and emotional conditions that the learners may carry with them from home and even their communities; hence, Zingisa refers to the fact that the families live in townships and informal settlements, which too becomes a marker for the capital that learners would have access to.

Tshepang noted that:

> "Some of the learners have unemployed parents. In some of these instances, the parents are not involved in the child's education as they carry an *'I don't care'* mentality, the teacher must look after you".

In addition to profiling learners, teachers can determine the kind of support they need to provide to the learners and the various types of pedagogical knowledge and skills they need to employ when met by specific learners in their classrooms. Zingisa, Xoliswa and Thandekile demonstrate an in-depth understanding of the social issues at play in their schools and classrooms and the impact of these on their teaching processes. In essence, the teachers often work towards finding ways to address the issues all the while navigating ATP deadlines and policies.

The issues shared by Xoliswa and Thandekile are being experienced by children in grade 1, the age range of 6-8 years. *"Abantwana bethu bathwele"* [9] (Kholeka) and *"abantwana bathwele nzima"* (Nombulelo) are two expressions given by two teachers from quintile 1 primary schools

[9] "Abantwana bethu bathwele"- Xhosa expression meaning "Our children are burdened"' – Given the context it was said in. Ukuthwala is to carry, and in this instance, they are carrying a lot/ heavy burden.

in the impoverished parts of the Katlehong Townships. The two expressions best capture the challenges that the learners in quintile 1 primary school in Katlehong Township encounter. In making these expressions, the participants were shedding light on the psychosocial issues interfering with the learning processes of the children. Kholeka emphasised the use of drugs among male learners in the primary school where she works. Nombulelo narrated family-related issues affecting learners and how she has at some point had to sit in on court cases as she was protecting her learners. She further stated that:

> "We end up getting assaulted by parents and being told we are interfering too much" (Nombulelo).

This illustrates the various social conditions that teachers have to contend with. This is not to say that teachers in other contexts do not compete with varying social problems. What is evident, particularly with Nombulelo's reflection above, is that the work of teaching requires engagement with various social forces that teachers contend with on a day-to-day basis while, all the time, having to ensure that they deliver subject content to learners as part of their work as pedagogical practitioners. There are consequences for the psycho-social well-being of the learners in conditions of poverty, violence, and struggle. The assertion from the NDP illustrates how the process of education is part of a broader political objective.

6.3.3 Discipline amongst learners

This section will discuss discipline and ill-discipline in connection with teachers' training in CPTD workshop programmes. In some extreme cases, the ill-discipline may include cases of vandalism, assault and, even, murder (Moyo, Khewu & Bayaga 2014). In the context of this study, the disciplinary issues mainly have to do with issues of respect, obedience, and the general behaviour of learners which interferes with the learning processes. It is these issues that teachers need to struggle with as they navigate teaching in quintile 1 – 3 schools.

Sechaba (a relatively old teacher at a Quintile 2 school):

> "The biggest challenge in our school you see is discipline. Yeah, no discipline is a big issue here. Our learners do not have respect for their teachers. You even see how the teachers are no longer able to manage and control their classes. The learners will sometimes even fight with each other, and you spend most of the teaching time trying to end fights between learners"

Mandla also reflects that:

> "We get a lot of disrespect from the learners, it's even worse since the classrooms are overcrowded. One must first manage and discipline the learners before teaching can start, when you have an overcrowded class, with just about an hour to cover the subject material".

Thulani also laments that:

> "My grade 12 learners need to be disciplined as they can be unruly. While my grade 8 learners harass you as a teacher".

Discipline can also speak to respect for teachers and fellow learners, while ill-discipline is the opposite of this, which is reflected by a lack of order and control in the classroom. What is apparent here is that learners' behaviour, especially their inability to show respect for others, can hinder the learning process, impacting teachers' work in the classroom. The interviews also reflect on the teacher's ability to manage the classroom, in terms of ensuring that there is rapport and respect in the classroom so that learning may continue. Ndofirepi, Makaye and Ndofirepi (2012: 2) argue that "discipline is designed to maintain a form of order that will promote learning objectives and provide a teacher with a classroom atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning". The CPTD workshop programmes do tackle some of these issues, especially discipline, which is an issue that most teachers lament about.

In this regard, Thulani and Msizi shared how they use creative ways to appeal to their learners and maintain discipline in their classrooms since the banning of corporal punishment in schools. Thulani shared that:

> "I give my learners detention or have them write out essays explaining their behaviour. It does not always work because the learners will just laugh at you or not even pay attention to your attempts. I do sometimes wish that we could be allowed to use corporal punishment because the learners do not see them as adults. But it is illegal, so we have to manage".

Msizi on the other hand pointed out that:

> "I use creative ways to discipline the learners. I realised that some of them act out in disrespectful ways because they are seeking attention, not that they mean to be disrespectful. So, I try to appeal to them as a friend, to build trust. I have also noticed that they like being validated and trusted, so I usually send the unruly ones and validate them more often so that they tone down, and it works for them".

Msizi's reflection demonstrates yet again teachers' ability to understand and interchange between this embodied knowledge around behaviour and classroom management to reach out to their learners to build rapport and respect within their classrooms as a means towards maintaining order and discipline in classrooms. Msizi shows how teachers employ their agency and autonomy in managing classroom dynamics with the learners. The tone used by Msizi at times, such as calling the learners 'unruly', indicates frustration with the behaviour of learners at times as it takes away time from learning and is disadvantageous to other learners in the classroom as well.

Thulani also demonstrated this frustration and even wished the corporal punishment policy could be re-established. Thulani's experience with ill-discipline shows how learners gauge teachers based on their age and make decisions around how they treat them and how far they respect them. If we look at Msizi and Thulani who teach at the same school, Msizi is much older than Thulani as he has been in the school for longer than Thulani and has established an image for himself, while Thulani is fairly new. This also reveals how learners profile teachers and interact with them on these profiles impacting their learning processes and the teachers' work of teaching them.

Sometimes ill-discipline was seen as a cry for help. Similar to Msizi, Lethabo shared similar sentiments on issues of discipline:

> "Yoh, ba stout bana ba"[10] and they have an attitude. But I find that judging them and shouting at them only makes the situation worse. I have also learned that some of the naughty things they do are because they are seeking attention from us as their teachers…attention that they do not receive from home… My strategy nah, also because

[1] "Ba stout bana ba" – These children are naughty.

> I am fairly young and they see me as their sister, is to get close to them, open my door to them to talk to me whenever they have issues. This has helped for the most part, and even the ill-discipline fades out when you engage with them on that personal level. Remember that these are teenagers and adolescents who are going through some developmental phases in their lives, on top of their own family problems and community issues, so they tend to want to take these out on you as the teacher. So, you must discipline them in class (I phoxa[11] them), then bring them in when they are alone, to understand why they act in the way they do".

Lethabo's sentiments show that teachers are in tune with their learners and their experiences. They look beyond the external behaviour that is being exhibited in class in order to mitigate it effectively for more conducive learning and teaching experiences. Thus, in relation to Jansen's (2011) knowledge gap, Lethabo accounts for the different types of knowledge.

At a high school level, the learners are dealing with a different set of problems, which are then projected onto the teachers and received as ill-discipline by the teachers. However, the teachers noted specific issues with their learners alluding to contextual issues that come with the home environments/background in which these learners find themselves, social and psychological issues that the learners are grappling with, in addition to their 'learner-hood'. Disciplinary issues within quintile 2 schools reveal social problems that exist within a township context that then contend with the expectations placed on the learner and the teachers. These issues include issues of poverty and family issues, including family arrangements, drugs and teenage pregnancy were prevalent issues raised by the teachers in the quintile 2-3 (township) context. The majority of the behavioural issues raised by the teachers seem to stem from the learners' home background.

6.4 School context and consequences for teacher identity

In the context of the issues outlined so far, some identities can be noted. The expressions of Nombulelo and Kholeka when they say "abantwana bethu", our children, reveal a particular relationality that exists in their classrooms and a sense of responsibility towards the learners. The "our children" reference indicates how the teachers see the learners as their children and, thus, have a sense of responsibility towards the learners that transcends the teacher-to-learner

[10] "phoxa"- to reprimand sharply.

relationship. This identity of a teacher as a parent is documented in legislation and various policies. For example, the South African Schools Act states that teachers stand in as *in loco parentis* in the absence of parents (Mampane 2018). This speaks to teachers acting in the role of parents as guardians and responsible adults.

Soudien (2007) asserts that teachers, too, carry along with them parts of themselves into the school. For the teachers, I would like to argue that the parts of themselves they carry into the school and the classroom are their identity as human beings, and, particularly, their identity as parents, social actors, and community members. Similarly, the theorisation of teachers' professional identities (Jansen 2001) links these teacher identities to their professional undertakings, which are also connected to the knowledge they exhibit in their work (Jansen 2011) such as social workers, sociologists, teachers and even parents. The professional setting of the school requires them to embody a professional being, acting professionally, within professional boundaries.

However, the nature of the schools where they teach and the socio-economic conditions of the learners, they teach require the teachers to bring in the parental parts of themselves to create conducive environments for them to carry out their professional role. Importantly, Sachs (2005: 15), as cited in Beauchamp and Thomas (2009: 178), asserts that the professional identity of teachers is at the core of their profession, "as it provides a framework for teachers to construct their ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act' and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society". Consequently, "teacher identity is not something that is fixed nor is it imposed; rather it is negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience" (ibid).

In the same light, teachers find themselves having to negotiate between the professional identity assertions provided for by SACE and their identity within the school environment through their interactions with their colleagues, learners, and parents. There is a continuity in the identities that teachers conjure up in their day-to-day encounters with the learners (Jansen 2001; Smit & Fritz 2008), and, thus, to limit their work only to their professional identity, reduces the extent to which we engage and come to understand the work of teaching and its complexities.

One of the teachers even mentioned that "we are parents because we spend more time with the learners" (Zolani). This mandate is problematic in that, while teachers are indeed acting as per

policy and legislative precepts, their role of parenting within the schools seems to be over-extended while parents fizzle out on their role even in their homes. In the case of food, homework and having adequate uniforms, surely that should be the primary role of the parent, not of the teacher. However, this demonstrates the complexities that exist within the context of families in South Africa, given the socio-economic inequalities within the country (Hall & Mokomane 2018) that make it difficult for parents to show up for their children as expected in policy. The identified shift to being parents becomes a crucial discussion in that teachers go above and beyond, while parents and social institutions downplay their role (Mampane 2018).

Kholeka and Msizi shared that:

> "As a teacher you become a social worker, police officer, teacher, and parent, all because your primary concern is the child". (Kholeka)

> "The reality we face in the schools forces us to end up becoming a social worker, parent, friend, and a father…as you intervene in the social issues that the learners face". (Msizi)

In relation to Jansen's (2011) argument with respect to the knowledge gap, Kholeka and Msizi demonstrate that they do indeed have this required knowledge and even beyond. It seems that teachers draw on multiple pieces of knowledge that are necessary for the learning processes in their contexts.

Msizi raises another pertinent point about the issue of the role played by teachers as they intervene in their learner's difficulties. The idea of "good teachers as good mothers" is a conceptualisation by Connell (2009) in which she argues that women teachers tend to be seen in terms of family roles. Connell (2009: 215) argues that "for women, the idea of a good teacher was liable to be blurred with the idea of a good mother while, for men, an ideology of professionalism made better sense" (ibid). What Connell (2009) presents us with are the different ways in which teachers are framed, particularly their teacher identities in relation to their gender, whereby female teachers would be associated with ideas around being a good mother, while for men it was more about leading.

In the context of this study's findings, the idea of a good teacher being a good mother is linked to the teacher's tendency to switch to their parental instinct and role within the classroom to

support their learners. It is not necessarily linked to the gender identity of the teachers. Msizi's encounter also shows how some male teachers in South African high schools also play a parental role, and that male teachers also tend towards family roles as well as professional roles. Interestingly as well, 10 of the 12 male teachers interviewed in this study all taught at high school, while the other two males were in primary school, with one being a Deputy Principal. However, the important aspect to note in this instance is that the social context of the schools in which they teach summons up the interplay of these identities and roles, thus disrupting the normative conceptions of good teachers as good mothers, to seeing teachers as parents (which speaks to an element of care, support, and family).

Moreover, the roles and identities that teachers shift/switch between as they engage with their work of teaching include teachers as 'professionals', teachers as 'parents', teachers as 'social beings', teachers as community members (relatability with the socio-economic context of the township life). This shows us that the various identities that teachers embody in the classroom intersect and, as a result, any form of training and support relayed upon the work of teaching must account for the intersectionality of these identities, given the social context of the work of teaching. Moreover, as seen with the younger teachers' narratives earlier, some switch between being a teacher and a sibling, to assist the learners in making sense of their troubles (in their individual lives, which transcend their roles as learners too).

This section on identity is key to understanding the teachers' experiences, and, most importantly for this chapter, it is key to establishing the meaning-making of teachers about their experiences of the CPTD workshops. In his work on teacher identity and policy images, Jansen (2001:246) argues that "teacher identities cannot drive policy strategy" meaning that a discussion on teacher identities is not sufficient to drive policy change, even in the area of CPTDs. However, he acknowledges, in citing Buenfil-Burgos (2000), that "while policies might not change what happens inside classrooms, they nevertheless 'leave a trace in practice'" (Jansen 2001: 246). Jansen calls for the creation of "dialogues of meaning between policy, politics and practice" (ibid). This is an important assertion in the context of this study, as it engages with the meaning of teachers' experiences with the CPTD (a policy assertion) and their experiences within the schools, which speaks to the practice. It must, however, be noted that the teachers' experiences as such are informed by their identities and the complexities of these given the social context of their schools and learners as seen in the participant narratives provided.

Identity constructions of teachers were also gendered. Tshidiso (a young teacher at a Quintile 2 school) lamented discipline issues that she saw as revealing a gender dimension. She noted:

> "Your voice as a female teacher counts in how much respect you receive from the learners, so you see me, I have a tiny voice I need to raise my voice to get the class's attention…Also, remember this is a high school, so when the learners see you, they see a girlfriend, especially with us the young teachers, Yoh, it is hard".

Tshidiso's reflection on the voice of young female teachers points us to an important issue around gender and gender roles within schools, as well as how female teachers and male teachers are constructed within schooling systems. Here, we see how young female teachers in high schools find themselves having to negate parts of themselves for them to be respected by the learners. In addition to that they find themselves at risk of being seen as a "girlfriend" by the learners, and the learners easily cross lines. One then wonders how learning takes place in such a setting.

However, it must also be noted that, at times, familiarity between learners and teachers may lead to misconstrued notions of the other from the other. Teachers do talk about their experiences with learners and some of these become heavily embedded in stereotypical ideas around the interactions between learners and their teachers. If we are to consider Lethabo's narration, it seems that, at times, learners' behaviour is a cry for "attention", which can be translated as care and not necessarily that they consider their teachers as partners, although, in some cases, learners are overt in their behaviour around this notion.

A common thread can be seen with the relatively young teachers in high school as they all lamented how learners viewed them as being one of them. Although in different ways depending on the individual, it remains that the learners in their schools saw their peers in the young teachers, making the learning and teaching processes difficult.

Zolani (a young teacher at a high school, quintile 2) also lamented that:

> "Students see you as their peer, from the way they address you, to the way they behave, you can just tell they see their age-mate, not their teacher… Abantwanta ngabantwana, [12]even worse the learners we teach are 'lokshin'[13] kids, they have an attitude, and they have underlying drug issues. This then forces you as the teacher to stand your ground and in some instances to find effective ways to 'discipline' them, for example, I find that being close to them all the while setting boundaries helps me, and in this way, they all start to see that we are human too like them".

Key to note in Zolani's sentiments is the stereotypical construction of learners from the township, that they are unruly and are prone to drug abuse. This is a biased view of the learners because any learner, be it from the township or even a suburban area, may exhibit these behaviours and signs of drug abuse. What the teacher is failing to do in this case, which is contrary to what Lethabo demonstrated in their narration, is having an in-depth outlook into what the learners could be experiencing outside of the classroom that could be informing their behaviour in the school grounds and classrooms before they are framed in a biased manner.

In Zolani's reflections, we can see how teachers construct their learners as learners from township environments. This speaks to the social context that the learners come from which lends them to preconceived ideas about their behaviour and attitudes because they hail from the township, as seen in Zolani's reflections. How these learners are spoken to and about also reflects how their social background heralds their entry into the schools and classrooms.

Another important aspect that emerged during the interview with Zolani was again an issue around gender constructions. Interestingly, one would assume that it is only female teachers who are constructed in heteronormative ways by the learners and find themselves having to set boundaries and protect themselves from learners seeing them as more than just teachers. There is a psychological shift in the learner's mindset that is also linked to their social contexts from their family and communal arrangements. Helman and Ratele (2016:11) argue that "families exist as gendered spaces in which notions of gender are constructed and enacted in particular ways". This is to say that ideas around gender, gender roles, and sex are formulated within

[11] "Abantwana ngabantwana"- is a Nguni expression meaning that children are children.
[12] "lokshin"- is an informal way of saying township.

family and communal institutions. These are then performed and enacted in external environments such as the schools, as we see in the case of Tshidiso and Zolani.

Zolani narrated an instance where he experienced a similar case to that referred to by Tshidiso, while he worked in a quintile 1 high school. He narrates that he had a female learner in his class who insisted on making advances towards him to the extent of even contacting him through the school WhatsApp groups (since these were introduced during the COVID-19) pandemic to allow for ease of contact with teachers. He felt discomfort, and he confronted thestudents as well as his colleagues, including the Departmental Head (DH), to report the matteras it affected the teaching process in the classroom. Zolani states that he was shocked at the response he received from his colleagues when he reported the matter and the steps, he had taken to combat this issue. He states:

> "They laughed at me and asked why I had not approached them earlier, because they know the girl, she is known in the school for 'poaching' male teachers…I later learned that she was much older than her grade cohort, and had a child, as she was recently married off at a young age, so in her mind, she felt she was our peer, and somehow saw male teachers as 'partners'."

Zolani then elaborated on his reason for not reporting earlier, and he had this to say:

> "We are advised by our management staff to deal with matters and create a file before we escalate the issue to them. I cannot just say I have this problem, assist me, they want to see what it is that I have done before they step in…this is risky because some issues may escalate while you are trying to manage it on your own".

Zolani's narration reveals some interesting and concerning notions about the construction of female learners by male teachers considering the history of abuse of female learners by male teachers in schools. Again, it seems that teachers carry stereotypes into the classroom, and they too project these onto learners and then formulate judgements and institutionalise images and ideas around learner identities. When Zolani says "She is known in the school", that shows how there are ideas around this learner that circulate among the teaching staff. This also goes against the parental role that the teachers play in that they are not protecting the learner in this case. It did not come through in the interview whether the learner had been called into a meeting

to understand her, her issues, and experiences, before drawing these problematic conclusions that stigmatise the learner. Additionally, I cannot help but wonder why Zolani, in his authority as the teacher, did not call the student out the very moment he sensed discomfort in her interactions with him. Moreover, the notions around learners as mothers in schools also feature in Zolani's narration in that those learners who fall pregnant while at school are shamed and ostracised, even though there are now policies around learners with pregnancies and children. Teachers in this case are also perpetuating the discrimination and stigmatisation of mothering learners instead of supporting and protecting them as per the *In Loco Parentis* mandate of the SASA ACT No. 84 of 1996.

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has explored teachers' experiences within classrooms and schools. In this instance, teachers' experiences and their learners' experiences were considered as being socially situated, with learning and teaching processes being social acts that reproduce the social conditions that learners carry with them from their homes into the classrooms. Thus, the various conditions existing in classrooms revealed the complexities and contradictions prevalent in the education system by considering the conditions of the quintile 1 - 3 schools in Katlehong about which teachers reflected. The reflections pointed to the continued economic inequalities evidenced through a lack of infrastructure, and, at times, the presence of poor infrastructure to enable them to facilitate meaningful teaching processes.

Moreover, the reflections revealed the contradictions and political symbolism (Jansen 2002) existing in educational processes with framing the work of teaching and how it plays out in classrooms where teachers found themselves met with complex social realities that stemmed from the broader political and socio-economic dynamics at play within South Africa. It is these societal dynamics that shape the families the learners came from and are manifested in the same classrooms within which teachers are expected to drive a quality education. In contending with some of these social conditions and contexts, teachers always keep their professional identity as teachers. However, the emotional, political, and professional basis of their identities would conjure up shifts between identities to respond positively and meet the needs of their learners while providing meaningful learning experiences despite the complexities and contradictions at play within their fields of practice. The challenges discussed in this chapter which inform teachers' experiences have revealed a key dynamic that is often underrepresented in the policy

formulation, the complex social context that teachers grapple with in their classrooms and schools which acts as a barrier to their being able to receive and implement the CPTD workshop programmes effectively.

Chapter 7:
Discussion of findings, conclusion, limitations, and recommendations.

7.1 Introduction

Teachers' professional development is without a doubt an important aspect of the drive towards a quality education system. However, policy processes toward effectiveness do not speak to the contradictions and complexities that exist within the broader education system within which teachers' function. Moreover, the work of teaching exists within a broader political and socio-economic context. The study set out to investigate the implementation of the CPTD policy and its impact on developing a quality education through teachers' experiences in quintile 1 - 3 schools. Three questions underpinned the study: What are quintile 1 - 3 teachers' experiences of CPTD workshop programmes? What meanings do teachers construct about CPTD policy and workshop programmes as means to drive quality education? Is there a gap in the formulation of the CPTD policies and their implementation? The following discussions highlight key findings concerning these questions from the qualitative study approach undertaken for the study.

Policies present idealised images of teachers and the education system (Jansen 2001). However, these idealised images do not consider the real experiences teachers encounter in schools. Therefore, key to answering these questions is the conversation between policy and teachers' experiences. These reveal the ideal image of the teacher which is constructed in policy as well as the real image of the teacher, made visible through their experiences. The latter reveals the political and socio-economic constraints that are present in classroom dynamics and that inhibit teachers from realising the ideal image of the teacher as provided for in policy. Moreover, these lived experiences which underscore the complicated and complex context that the teachers in quintile 1-3 schools in Katlehong experience, demonstrate the importance of locating policy reforms within the political and socio-economic context of South Africa as a developing country with a complex history of inequality that is still traceable in the contemporary context of the education system.

7.2 Discussion of key findings

7.2.1 Findings from Chapter 5:

Broadly, findings from this chapter highlight teachers' understanding of CPTD policies and experiences of CPTD workshop programmes. Importantly, this chapter provides a dialogue between policy (NPFTED and ISPFTED) and teachers' understanding and experiences.

7.2.1.1 Findings from reading the NPFTED and ISPFTED

Teachers' experiences of the CPTD policy and its workshop programmes:

In response to the first question, the study undertook to engage CPTD policies and how they are understood by teachers. Moreover, it then engaged with teachers' experiences and meanings to show the distance between policy and practice concerning the CPTD policy and associated workshop programmes. The study found that teachers understood policy prescripts, but the policy prescriptions did not match teachers' experiences of associated workshop programmes. Teachers shared differentiated experiences with the CPTD workshop programmes, with some finding value and others experiencing more gaps with the contextualization of the topics covered in the training workshops.

Teachers' reflections on their experiences with the implementation of CPTD programmes revealed how the intentions of the CPTD were indeed symbolic of transformation and change. Discursively, teachers demonstrated an understanding of the CPTD policies and their role in ensuring their professional development. Teachers knew what was expected of them and their professional needs. Contrary to how teachers are framed in policy statements, teachers' reflections demonstrated a need for reflexive engagements between policymakers and teachers to ascertain the actual professional and knowledge gap as well as what teachers consider to be the real issues on the ground.

The NPFTED and ISPFTED frame the CPTD policy as an instrument to enhance teachers' professional development toward driving quality education in South Africa. The reading of the NPFTED and ISPFTED revealed the dual framing of teachers as both subjects and agents of change within the broader education system (Seetal 2006; Thomas 2009; Pesambili *et al* 2021). As subjects, the policy linked the problem with South Africa's education system to teachers' lack of subject, conceptual and pedagogical knowledge. The CPTD policy is framed as a

solution to this. The framing of teachers revealed a continuity in the imbalanced relations of power between the state and teachers in which the state assumed a bureaucratic role of identifying problems and proposing policy reforms for issues related to the education system. It also raised the need for an engagement with teachers' experiences in schools and classrooms as well as CPTD workshops to point accurately to and solve the issues associated with the decline in learner outcomes and the overall quality of the education system.

As agents, the NPFTED specifically pointed to teachers' agency in their professional development. It encouraged teachers to take responsibility for their development. This responsibility and agency are implied within the ISPFTED. The policies consider good teachers as being those who are knowledgeable, drive good learner outcomes, as well as attending and engaging with the prescribed CPTD programmes.

Therefore, given the teachers' understanding and experiences of the CPTD policy and its implementation through workshop programmes, teachers place value on and show a commitment to their professional development. However, the implementation, which is an undertaking of the DBE and SACE, reveals a lack of commitment to drive meaningful teacher development effectively with the attainment of a quality education as the end goal.

Evident in this chapter's discussions, is the conjunction between the idealisation of theteachers' role in developing a quality education system, as well as their lived experiences whichilluminate the real teacher within South Africa's education system. The NPFTED and ISPFTED frame the problem with attaining a quality education within teacher's professional knowledge gap (Jansen 2011; Luneta 2012) without necessarily considering the dynamics teachers contend with in their classrooms to demonstrate the required professional knowledgebases such as content and pedagogical knowledge effectively. The findings in this section offer an understanding of the dynamics at play within the framing of teachers' professional development provided in the CPTD policy. Moreover, the findings continue to show the importance of understanding teachers' work from their perspectives by engaging their professional and personal identities. This is key to answering the second and third question on the continued distance between policy formulation and implementation of the CPTD policy, which is demonstrated in the lack of contextual consideration. The policies tend to take on a 'one-size-fits-all' approach in envisaging teachers as the essential drivers of a quality education through the continuous professional development training.

The framework employed in the study was useful in unearthing the complexities prevalent in the schooling context of South Africa, particularly in q1-q3 schools, thereby revealing the conjunction between policy and context in the CPTD policy while it is framed within an inequality context. Broadly, it does not address the fragmentations prevalent in the schools in which teachers must teach. Central to these complexities is also the framing of the problem with attaining a quality education in South Africa on the basis of teacher's identities, which was not representative of the context within which they work. The study centred its arguments for viewing learning as a social act and the social processes and experiences of teachers within schools and classrooms within the arguments raised in literature by Soudien (2007), Bloch (2009), Murtin (2013), Spaull (2013), Spaull (2015), Kimathi & Rusznyak (2018), Hunter (2019), Nakidien, Singh & Sayed (2021), Reimers (2022) and Le Grange (2021).

7.2.2 Findings from teachers' voices in the context of teaching

Chapter 6 engaged with the question of teachers' experiences and contextual complexities. It specifically accounted for the often-overlooked dynamics that are central to teaching and learning experiences. It explored the meanings teachers made of their work and their relations with their learners as well as policy. Evident in the discussion within this chapter is that teaching and learning are situated within political and socio-economic contexts that affect the implementation of policy and the eventual attainment of a quality education system.

In this chapter, the study found that teachers in the Katlehong quintile 1 - 3 schools specifically encounter systemic and institutional challenges that are embedded in the historical continuities of inequality. Teachers spoke about infrastructural challenges and a lack of resources and support within their schools, which otherwise would allow for effective and conducive environments for quality learning and teaching experiences. The reflections from teachers revealed that the key issues with the CPTD policy are issues with the broader education system. Teachers demonstrated an understanding of the types of knowledge required to teach effectively. For instance, teachers portrayed an awareness of the different learning abilities of their pupils and, thus, would channel the correct and required pedagogical knowledge. When teachers were not confident in certain aspects of their subjects, they asked for the help and support of their subject advisors.

In relation to its contribution to literature, this chapter offers possibilities for relating policy and the experiences of teachers. The study agrees with arguments raised in the literature by Seetal (2006), Soudien (2007), Chisholm (2012), Jansen (2002), Jansen (2011), and Roux (2018). It argues that learning and teaching are social acts in that both learners and teachers embody various complex social realities that inform their interactions within classrooms and, ultimately, impact their experiences of teaching effectively and providing meaningful and quality education as posited in policy.

In answering the third research question on the continued gap in policy formulation and implementation, this study considered the question of legacy within the education system which sought to view teaching and learning processes as social acts (re)producing social dynamics manifesting in both individual and institutional interactions between teachers and learners. The social realities that learners bring with them into schools speak to the legacy of racialised inequalities and segregation that is persistent in the education system.

The complex contexts of quintile 1 - 3 schools, such as those in Katlehong, have implications for CPTD workshop programmes. Teachers attended the workshops. However, the implementation did not speak to teachers' professional needs and their specific school contexts. This is similar to Ntloana (2009), Roux (2018), Johns (2018) and Smit (2020). Moreover, the schooling contexts on which the teachers reflected revealed that educational processes are social acts that should be situated within context.

Overall, the study's findings show an important element in the analysis of education policies within South Africa. The formulation of education policies is based on the socio- economic context and political regime which permeates the education system and the teaching and learning processes that exist within schools and classrooms. This political and socio- economic context is important in understanding policy as an iterative instrument and process in driving social change. Furthermore, engaging with the experiences of teachers in relation tothe policy constructions of their work, professional development, and role in driving a qualityeducation system is key in further showing that education is a social act situated within differentiated social contexts with which policy must also engage. The policy process should not be isolated from the context preceding its formulation to the context of its implementation.

The continued legacy of inequality within the education system emerges as a common context between the policy dialogue and teachers' experiences, which speaks to the continued distance between the policy formulation and implementation of education polices, and, specifically, the CPTD policy. This continued legacy of inequality includes economic, social, and spatial inequalities, imbalanced power relations, and fragmented family dynamics owing to societal constructions within these unequal social relations. Understandably, this is a complex and complicated context to grapple with. However, misrepresenting the core issues that are embedded within these patterns of inequality presents us with a critical issue of policy overload and political symbolism (Jansen, 2002) in the formulation and implementation of key polices driven towards transforming South Africa's education system to one of good quality and competitive value.

7.3 Limitations

The limitations of the study were mostly attributed to the methodology used. To increase the sample size, the study employed snowball sampling, which entailed teachers referring other participants known to them. As reflected in Chapter 3 of the methodology, this led to teachers reflecting on similar issues leading to a uniformity of reflections and experiences. However, to mitigate this, I created sample boundaries by placing number limits for participants from similar teaching environments.

Another limitation of the study, which eventually served as an opportunity, was recruiting teachers in their individual capacity and not within their school environments. As a limitation, this meant that I relied upon the snowballing methods and referrals from the teachers. This also meant that some participants did not fully commit to the agreed-upon interview times and places, slowing down the fieldwork process. However, as an opportunity, this helped teachers reflect honestly and openly about their experiences without the obligation of feeling as though the interviews were a mechanism to gauge their work and experiences officially.

The study focused only on teachers' voices and a reading of the policies related to the CPTD programme. While this worked well given the scope of the study and the focus being to illuminate teachers' voices more than anything, it would be worthwhile including stakeholders within the CPTD policy formulation and implementation chain. Interviewing members from SACE, DBE, and facilitators of the CPTD programmes would have been beneficial in adding

depth in terms of the discussion on policy, its formulation, implementation, and its impact on teachers' experiences and overall classroom practices.

7.4 Recommendations

Practically

- A plan for the implementation of the CPTD policy must be developed with the teachers' experiences and schooling contexts being at the centre of these implementation strategies and plans. Moreover, the implementation plan needs to include specific and clear timelines as well as adequate resource allocation to ensure that the programmes are delivered efficiently and are thoroughly targeted at meeting teachers' professional needs at their different schools.

- Though it was not the study's main aim, in the interviews with teachers, it was found that there is no evaluation/follow-up from the CPTD workshops to elicit their impact and difference in teachers' experiences. Having considered this, the study then recommends that, in addition to the implementation strategy that involves teachers themselves, there ought also to be an evaluation of their experiences of the workshop programmes and school practices. The evaluation could be provided at a teacher or school level.

Methodologically

- Future research could focus on a comparative study between quintile 1-3 teachers' experiences and the experiences of teachers in quintile 4 to 5 schools within a set region. This would aid in building a contextual profile for teaching in township schools with varied resource settings and policy precepts for teachers.

- Furthermore, the research could study the workshop programmes to ascertain how providers are selected as well as their qualifications and how the programmes unfold.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethics Approval Letter

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Fakulteit Geesteswetenskappe
Lefapha la Bomotho

Humanities 100
Since 1919

25 February 2023

Dear Ms LN Bobe

Project Title:	Quality education and continuous professional training: The experiences of teachers working in Quintile One and Two schools in Gauteng
Researcher:	Ms LN Bobe
Supervisor(s):	Ms VD Bingma
Department:	Sociology
Reference number:	18205438 (HUM050/1022)
Degree:	Masters

I have pleasure in informing you that the above application was **approved** by the Research Ethics Committee on 2 February 2023. Please note that before research can commence all other approvals must have been received.

Please note that this approval is based on the assumption that the research will be carried out along the lines laid out in the proposal. Should the actual research depart significantly from the proposed research, it will be necessary to apply for a new research approval and ethical clearance.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely,

Prof Karen Harris
Chair: Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: tracey.andrew@up.ac.za

Room 7-27, Humanities Building, University of Pretoria, Private Bag X20, Hatfield 0028, South Africa
Tel +27 (0)12 420 4853 | Fax +27 (0)12 420 4501 | Email pghumanities@up.ac.za | www.up.ac.za/faculty-of-humanities

Appendix 2: Letter of Informed Consent

Faculty of Humanities
Fakulteit Geesteswetenskappe
Lefapha la Bomotho

Department of Sociology

Letter of Informed Consent

Dear research participant,

My name is Lutho Bobe, a master's student in the Department of Sociology at the University of Pretoria. I am conducting a research project entitled: 'Quality Education and Continuous Professional Training: The Experiences of Teachers working in Quintile One and Two schools in Gauteng'.

The aim of the research project is to explore teacher's experiences of and engagement with (or lack of engagement for some) continuous professional training that are provided for by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and the South African Council for Educators (SACE). The main objective of the study is to investigate teacher's experiences of continuous professional development and training, and how they understand it enhancing their ability to provide quality education.

In this regard, I would like to implore your assistance and participation in gathering the information required to complete this research project. I am requesting permission to conduct a one-on-one interview with you, the interview will take approximately 60 minutes. It can take place at any place that is convenient for you. Additionally, I would like to request your permission to record the interviews to ensure that all your responses are captured accurately. I have attached a separate consent form for this purpose.

Please note that your participation is voluntary. You may refuse to take part in the research or ask to stop the interview at any point in time, should you feel uncomfortable. You are also free not to answer any question you do not wish to answer, should you be unable to respond or feel uncomfortable answering it. If you agree to participate in this research study, the following will occur: You will be expected to sign below, to give your consent. During the interview, a few of your personal details such as your occupation, age, and level of education will be requested. Please also note that all data collected will be kept confidential, as the use of pseudonyms will be used to protect your identity.

Furthermore, all the data collected from you, in the form of interview transcripts, will be stored safely at the University of Pretoria's Department of Sociology in a secured location, and this will be for a duration of 15 years. These will be stored in a password protected format, and they will be anonymised. Only my supervisor and I will have access to the data. Thus, your permission to reuse this data in subsequent research or studies is humbly requested. This will take the form of my master's dissertation, journal articles, newspaper articles as well as radio or online interviews, during and after the research process.

The research will not lead to any direct or immediate benefit, but it will contribute to the body of literature on issues concerning continuous professional development and training for teachers, and their role in developing a quality education.

There are no anticipated risks linked to participating in the study. However, if you feel any distress/ discomfort at any point of the interview, lease inform the interviewer and the interview will be paused and stopped. Please also feel free to contact my supervisor Ms Vangile Bingma (contact details below), should you have any concerns about the way the interview was conducted.

By signing the consent form, you agree that you have read the information above and that you are aware what your participation in this study will involve. Should you have any questions or concerns, kindly contact me via email at u18205438@tuks.co.za and by phone at: 0738614524 or my supervisor at vangile.bingma@up.ac.za. Phone: +27 (0)12 420 4897/2330

Yours sincerely,
Lutho Bobe

Appendix 3: Consent and Recording form.

Faculty of Humanities
Fakulteit Geesteswetenskappe
Lefapha la Bomotho

Department of Sociology

Consent Form

- ☐ I hereby consent to participate in the research focusing on the 'Quality Education and Continuous Professional Training: The Experiences of Teachers working in Quintile One and Two schools in Gauteng'.
- ☐ The purpose of the study has been explained to me and I understand it.
- ☐ I understand my participation is voluntary and have not been forced in any way to partake in the study. I can withdraw from the interview process at any point should I no longer be comfortable with the interview.
- ☐ Should I feel distressed I will inform the interviewer. Information about counselling services has been communicated and I can contact Lifeline Johannesburg, a free Counselling service (via 0861322322/ 0117281347).
- ☐ The researcher has made me aware that my responses will be tape recorded and transcribed to enable her to accurately capture my experiences. The transcripts will only be viewed by the researcher and possibly her supervisor.
- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided regarding my participation.
- ☐ I understand that this is an academic research project and has no direct benefit to me.
- ☐ I give permission for the data to be reused for any subsequent academic projects.
- ☐ I understand that my identity will remain confidential.

Participant's name and signature: Date:

_____ _____

Researcher's signature: Date:

Interview Recording:
Dear participant, please note that I will need your permission to record the interview. This is solely for purposes of being able to recall the information collected from the interview, and to

ensure that I have captured it accurately. However, should you not be comfortable with this option. I will continue to take extensive notes during the interview process and may also ask you to assist in repeating some aspects I may have missed. My supervisor and I will have access to the recordings, and these together with the transcription notes will be stored in a password protected format, in the Sociology Department for a period of 15 years.

Tape Recording Consent:

☐ I am willing for the interview to be taped recorded. My name will not be mentioned inthe tape recording.

☐ I understand the purpose of the need for the interview to be tape-recorded.

Participants Signature:_____ Date: _____

Interviewers Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 4: Interview Schedule

Section A: Background information

a) Age
b) Gender
c) Highest level of education
d) Institution where you acquired your qualification(s)
e) Number of years in the teaching profession or When did you start teaching?
f) Type of school you teach in: Quintile one or Quintile two or Quintile 3

g) Number of years as an educator in township school(s)

Section B: Teaching experiences

a) Why did you choose the teaching profession?
b) What subjects do you teach?
c) How did you come to teach the subjects and grade/s that you currently teach?

d) What does a day in your life as a teacher look like?

e) Are there any differences in what you were trained to do as a teacher and what you are currently doing now?

Section C: Teachers and policy

a) What policy documents do you refer to in your work as a teacher?
b) How do you access these documents?
c) What role do you think you play in the education system of South Africa?
d) Do you participate in any policy development concerning teaching in South Africa? Give an example
e) Do you engage with your district officials? If yes, how does that work and how often?
f) Who puts together the policies that frame your work as a teacher?
g) Are you consulted in the process? If *yes*, how does this occur, please explain the process of consultation. If *no*, would you want to be consulted in the policy process?
h) How is the policy and the changes communicated to you?

Section D: Teachers' meaning making

a) What do you know and understand by Continuous Professional Development and Training?
b) What do you think is the relationship between continuous professional development and your work as a teacher?
c) Have you participated in CPTDs? If yes, what motivated you to participate? If no, what hindered your participation?
d) How often do you participate in CPTDs?
e) How do you come to know about CPTDs taking place?
f) In your experience, what do the CPTDs entail? Outline the activities you engage in during the training.
g) What are some of the benefits you have received from participating in CPTDs?
h) What are some challenges with engaging in CPTDs, from your understanding and interactions with fellow teachers?
i) Do you feel that the CPTDs meet your professional needs? Please elaborate on your response.
j) How have you applied the lessons learnt from the CPTD programmes? How and what motivated that?
k) What support has been made available to enable your participation in CPDT programmes? (In cases where teachers did not engage with CPDT, the question will be what support/measures do you need to participate in CPDT programmes)

Section E: Teacher's perceptions of a quality education

a) What makes a good quality education?
b) How do you measure a good quality education system? Explain
c) Do you see yourself playing a role in developing a quality education system? Explain.
d) Do you think there is a link between the quality of teaching and a good quality education system? Provide details.
e) What do you think is a good measurement for a quality education system?
f) Do you feel the CPTDs are effective in developing your skills and thus in ensuring progress towards a quality education system?

Appendix 5: Confidentiality Agreement with Research Third Parties

Faculty of Humanities
Fakulteit Geesteswetenskappe
Lefapha la Bomotho

Department of Sociology

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT WITH RESEARCH THIRD PARTIES

Hereby, I [[redacted]], in my personal capacity as a(n) [informant and translator] collaborating with [Lutho Bobe] on a research titled [**'Quality Education' and Continuous Professional Training: The Experiences of Teachers working in Quintile One, Two and Three schools in Gauteng**], acknowledge that I am aware of and familiar with the stipulations and contents of the conditions of ethical clearance specific to this study. I shall conform to and abide by these conditions. Furthermore, I am aware of the sensitivity of the information collected and the need for strict controls to ensure confidentiality obligations associated with the study.

I agree to the privacy and confidentiality of the information that I am granted access to in my duties as a(n) [informant and translator]. I will not disclose nor sell the information that I have been granted permission to gain access to in good faith, to anyone.

I also confirm that I have been briefed by the research team on the protocols and expectations of my behaviour and involvement in the research as a(n) [informant and translator]

SIGNED: Date:

…….. ……
M.C Bobe 15 August 2023

Appendix 6: Turn-it-in Report

Bobe_Continuous_2024.pdf

ORIGINALITY REPORT

0%	0%	0%	%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

Exclude quotes	On	Exclude matches	< 10%
Exclude bibliography	On		

Appendix 7: Declaration from Language Editor

The Reverend David Swanepoel
BA (Rhodes), Hons BA, Hons BTh, HED (SA)
Unit 2
Haven Village Retirement Centre, 269 Emmie Hartmann Street, Garsfontein, Pretoria, 0081South Africa
Telephone +27 (0)72- 2077727 Email:
davidswanepoel@wol.co.za

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27 November 2024

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that I have completed the English Editing of the text of a dissertation to be submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Science

in the

Department of Sociology, Faculty of Humanities, University of Pretoria

The dissertation is entitled

Continuous professional development for quality education: Teachers'

experiences in quintile 1-3 schools in Katlehong, Gauteng Province.

By

Lutho Bobe

U18205438

I am qualified to have done such editing, being in possession of a Bachelor's degree in English from Rhodes University, Grahamstown, an Honours Degree in English and HED with English as prime teaching subject from the University of South Africa, and having taught English to Matriculation, First Year University Level, GCSE and A level in both South Africa and the United Kingdom of Great Britain for over 40 years, as well as having been Senior (English) Associate Editor of a national magazine for two years. I have edited Master's Dissertations and Doctoral Theses for over twenty years for several universities and institutions in South Africa and abroad as well as

editing documents/papers for publication for various publishing concerns and a number of international academics.

I trust that this declaration is satisfactory.

DAVID JOHN SWANEPOEL